THE EFFECTS OF RELOCATION ON ROYAL AIR FORCE FAMILIES

JANE KIRSTEN MATTHIESEN

Doctor of Philosophy

ASTON UNIVERSITY

October 2005

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Thesis Summary

This doctoral research project examines the effects that geographical transience has on Royal Air Force families. The methodology employed in this exploratory and qualitative study consisted largely of open-ended interview questions but also included a series of demographic variables. In total, 29 RAF personnel without families, 33 RAF personnel with families, 33 RAF spouses, and 15 RAF children participated in this research (N = 110). All respondents volunteered to take part in the study and were based in the United Kingdom at the time of data collection. The interviews were transcribed and content coded according to six major relocation themes arising from the literature (change, tasks, support, coping, difficulty, and outcome). QSR NVIVO 2.0, a qualitative data analysis software package, was used to facilitate the process. Through the utilisations of qualitative methodology, the researcher was able to offer various novel and reoccurring variables that appear to play an important role (at least subjectively) in relocation. Additionally, frequencies associated with these factors were presented. The findings were integrated with those from the literature in order to offer an initial comparison and differentiation between civilian and military samples. The main theoretical contributions were the introduction of the concept of mobile mentality, the creation of a novel relocation model that takes familial interaction into account, and the development of a taxonomy for the classification of relocation outcomes. Finally, additional observations, recommendations for future research, and practical implications are reviewed.

Keywords: military, family, mobile mentality, relocation, psychology

Dedication

I dedicate this thesis to all of the brave servicemen and women that work to protect our national security and civil liberties every day, and to their respective families who work equally as hard and sacrifice many of the luxuries of civilian life in order to continue supporting *their* soldier, sailor, or airman.

Disclaimer

The author alone, not the Ministry of Defence, the Royal Air Force, nor any other organisation with which she has ever been affiliated with is responsible for the findings and interpretations presented here.

Acknowledgements

First of all, I would like to thank my family for always pushing and never doubting me. My mother, Elizabeth Matthiesen, has been my rock throughout this process - driving me on and on - and reminding me what it means to be strong. My siblings, Martin, Jenny, Julia, Matthew, Magnus and Jaimie have lightened my spirits throughout.

I would also like to take this opportunity to thank a few of my colleagues for their constant input and inspiration. Special thanks go to Professor Felix Brodbeck, Andreas Richter, Matthew Carter, Min Wen (Sophie) Chang and Yves Guillaume. Jenny, Basia and Lynne have also been of irreplaceable help in this process. I further acknowledge Paul Bartone and Hugh Milroy for their small but very significant roles in the completion of this Ph.D.

Above all, I would like to recognise my supervisor Dr. Patrick Tissington for his continued support and encouragement. Thank you, Patrick.

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Chapter 1 : Introduction

This introduction aims to explain the current research project and its origins. It opens by outlining the general research topic and then moves into an explanation of the significance of the sample. Additionally, the proposed project objectives are outlined and the expected contributions to knowledge reviewed. The section closes with an overview of the dissertation.

Section I : Project Overview

Relocation is becoming an increasing phenomenon in today's society (Lu & Cooper, 1995). Indeed, almost everyone now faces a move at some point in their life (Flynn, 1995), with the motivation for this type of mobility generally coming from the individual's employer (Glueck, 1974). However, it is not only the employee that is affected - The consequences of work-related transience also extend to the employee's family (Peterson, 2001). Studies documenting the connection between work and home suggest that occupational researchers should take family factors into account when conducting relocation research (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992b; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Despite this, family variables are often excluded from studies (Frone et al., 1992). This has produced an unbalanced picture of work-family interaction: While detailed and developed ideas regarding the occupational move exist, little attention has been devoted to the personal and familial move. The focus of research has thus left a gap in the literature: Little is known about the role of the family in relocation (Brett, Stroh, & Reilly, 1993).

In addition, this project represents one of the rare academic attempts to use a British military sample to study occupational family transience. Regardless of the fact that soldiers, sailors and airmen comprise a suitable sample because of their frequent moves, little military relocation research has found its way into the public domain. Frequent movers constitute an excellent *extreme case* on which to study relocation and extend existing empirical knowledge (Denscombe, 2003). Military samples are especially interesting, since aside from the frequency of the transience, the duration is also admirable. Many individuals stay with their military employer for the whole of their career, thus providing us with

a healthy stretch of life over which we can explore relocation. In addition to the possible magnification of effects, this offers the potential of discovering previously undetermined long-term effects of transfers.

Since limited research with this type of sample exists, qualitative research was deemed a necessity. One cannot easily transfer findings from one sample (e.g. managers) to another sample (e.g. military personnel) without conclusively proving that the samples are sufficiently similar to justify the expectation of similar findings (Baum, 1995; King, 1994). This rendered much of the previous research unsuitable for the creation of a solid empirical basis for the research project currently under investigation. Without the existence of a sufficient number of comparable studies, exploratory qualitative interview research was most appropriate (Symon & Cassell, 1998).

However, one should not completely discount the existing research. Although some differences between the samples are expected, similarities will undoubtedly also exist. The existing literature thus offers a suitable basis for comparison between military and civilian samples and will provide the researcher with an indication of the overlap between them. Additionally, one should note that the investigation was not purely qualitative. Some descriptive (quantitative) data were collected and the qualitative data gained were later quantified on the basis of frequency counts.

Military vs. Civilian Samples: How do they differ?

Military samples differ from civilian samples in several ways. Although many of the issues raised in this section likely apply to a variety of military samples, the author will focus on the specific military service employed in this study: The Royal Air Force (RAF). RAF personnel and their families make tremendous sacrifices in order to fulfil their duty to the United Kingdom. While serving personnel deal with the reality of chaotic, ambiguous, unpredictable and dangerous employment (Murray, 1999; Dandeker, 1994, 2000), their families face other burdens of military life such as extended separation and frequent relocation (Bett, 1995).

As members of the Armed Forces, RAF personnel are posted on the basis of service rather than personal need and thus tend to have little choice regarding the sites they locate to (Dandeker, 2000; Fisher & Shaw, 1994; Moskos, Williams, & Segal, 2000). Geographic transience is prominent in the RAF, where officers relocate on average every eighteen months. In addition, due to the prerequisite of large open spaces for airfields, RAF bases are often situated in isolated areas. This, coupled with recurrent detachments and deployments, make it conceivable that moving is harder for RAF families. Certainly one might argue that the military places additional strains upon families (Brett, 1992).

Section II : Project Aims & Objectives

This research project examined the effects that transience has on Royal Air Force families. Relocation, the geographic movement from one location to another, is a defining characteristic of military life and thus hypothesised to influence various aspects of working and private life. The data for this project were collected in an independent study entitled *The Effects of Relocation on Royal Air Force Families* between 2002 and 2004. The stated objectives of the research project were:

- **Objective 1** : Explore the existence of negative consequences of transience

- **Objective 2** : Match relocation consequences to existing outcome categories & create new ones

- **Objective 3** : Explore the existence of positive consequences of transience

- **Objective 4** : Explore the existence of long-term relocation consequences

- **Objective 5** : Explore which factors could influence relocation

- **Objective 6** : Explore whether individuals are aware of family consequences

The derivation of these research objectives will be discussed thoroughly in the theoretical chapter (Chapter 3).

Section III : Contribution to Knowledge

Just like past generations of military personnel, members of today's defence force are continuously being transferred to different military bases across the United Kingdom. The only exception is that there has been increased emphasis on peacekeeping missions, and improved international relations in recent years have provided a greater number of serving opportunities abroad (Dandeker, 2002). It is thus more likely than ever before that military personnel will experience geographical relocation and even overseas posting at one point in their career. Since relocation has become such a prominent aspect of Armed Forces life, this research has the potential to make a significant difference in the lives of military families, contribute to positive changes in the operation of the Armed Forces, and could even induce social and national policy adjustments. Despite the very specific focus of this study, research applications could extend beyond the British military and into other public and private sector settings.

The existing literature on relocation has identified many stressors, consequences, mediators and moderators (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1980). However, little empirical work assessing military or family relocation exits. Military family relocation literature is a rarity. The military is often overlooked as a sample due to its unique organisational structure, and the difficulties associated with access and financial sponsorship (Moskos et al., 2000). Occupational researchers also often neglect to investigate families and focus on the employee alone because of pragmatic issues (Munton & Forster, 1990). However, the now well-documented relationship between work and home suggests that occupational researchers should take family factors into account when conducting research (Greenhaus, Collins, & Shaw, 2003).

It is the aim of this project to rectify these shortcomings by gathering qualitative data regarding the nature and complexity of Royal Air Force moves. The study endeavours to supply new information regarding family moving processes and adjustment. A central research goal is the creation of a *model* that outlines *military family moving* and how individual family members respond to relocation. This model may in future be used to contrast military and civilian relocations.

Data will additionally be used to create a *taxonomy* for the classification of relocation outcome variables. This taxonomy will not only provide an opportunity for the categorisation of outcomes but will also allow researchers to distinguish between them more clearly. In other words, the taxonomy will help future investigators to organise relocation outcome variables into groups that share similar qualities.

This research will also devote specific attention to the psychological *long-term effects* of relocation. Although acknowledged in the literature from time to time, enduring relocation consequences have largely been neglected in past research. The theoretical focus has dominantly been on immediate outcomes and the individual's adjustment to these (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1980). This study aims to correct this oversight by capturing long-term effects of relocation and representing them in a theoretical construct.

Finally, this research aims to add to the existing body of relocation literature by contributing new findings regarding potential *mediating and moderating factors* that exist in (military) relocation. The relocation picture is likely much more complicated than previously depicted. This investigation may well help to draw out additional factors relevant in relocation. Its utilisation of a military family sample should make for especially interesting findings. Some of these results are expected to be novel and unique. Please review Figure 1.1 for a diagrammatical interpretation of the research and its goals.
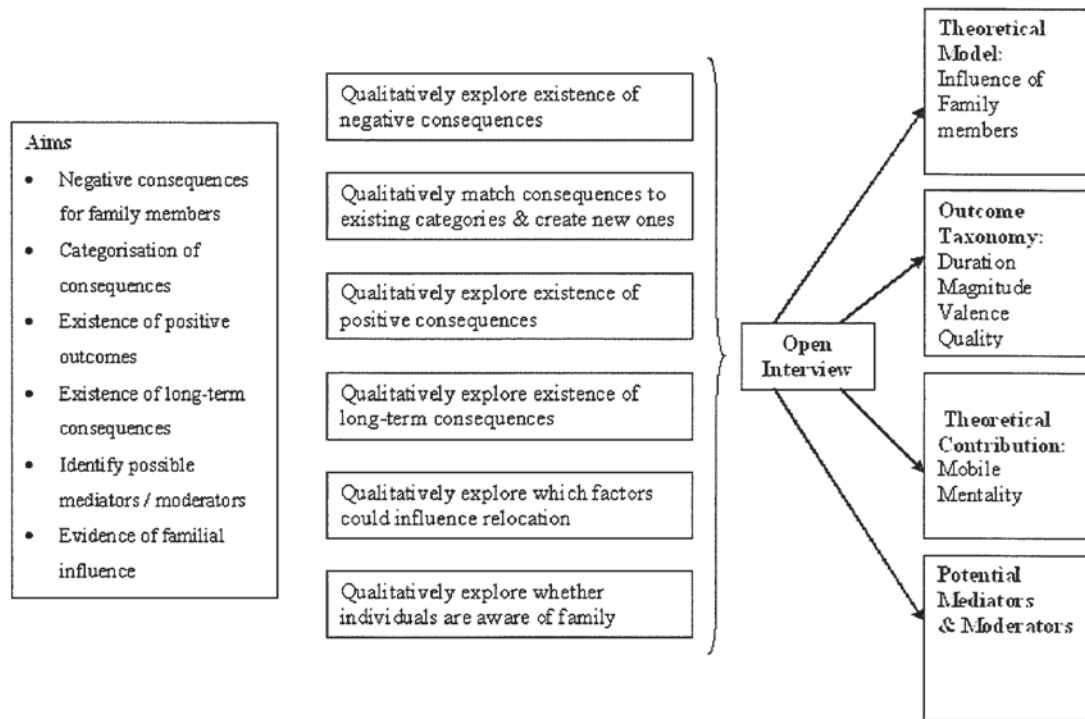
Figure 1.1: Dissertation Design Plan: Structure & Rationale

Section IV : Dissertation Overview

The thesis will begin with an in-depth literature review on relocation, giving specific attention to studies concerned with family and military relocation. The aim is to summarise available knowledge and illustrate how this knowledge can be improved or expanded by the present research. The third chapter centres on theory from the relocation, stress and work-family domains that is relevant to this project. It also introduces and explains the theoretical model that guides the work, which will help to justify the research topic further. It illustrates the narrowed focus of the research by drawing conclusions from the literature and setting specific research objectives. Chapter four, the methodology chapters, reviews possible (and past) methods of study in this area. The methodology chapter will delineate the work strategy in replicable depth and also evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of this strategy. Chapter five presents the quantitative results of this research. It outlines the demographic characteristics of each subgroup of the sample and then employs descriptive statistics to compare them on the basis of their moving attitude and perceived quality of RAF support. The next chapter, chapter six, delineates the qualitative findings, provides thematic frequency counts, and discusses responses

to specific qualitative questions. Chapter seven will review results specific to the sub-groups and the military nature of the sample. Chapter eight offers a thorough discussion of the subject area in an attempt to explain the findings. It will offer interpretations and theoretical modelling, in the case where the literature cannot account for findings. Chapter nine represents the final and concluding chapter of this thesis document. This chapter reviews the results from this study in terms of the research objectives set out and also highlights some of the wider significance of the work. Additionally, it makes inferences based on the methodology and data available, makes links to the literature, outlines the major contribution(s) to knowledge, and makes suggestions for future research.

Chapter 2 : Relocation Literature Review

Before embarking on any research project, it is important for the investigator to be aware of previous research in order to place their work within the existing empirical framework and avoid unnecessary duplication. This chapter aims to provide an overview of the topic of relocation, highlight key studies with specific relevance to the research (i.e. those employing military or familial samples), and discuss some of the results reported in the remaining civilian literature.

Section one (introduction) defines relocation, debates different types of transfers, suggests reasons for moving, and touches on societal trends to illustrate how relocation is changing. Section two focuses on the key studies guiding this research; the studies that have been selected come from the military and child domain. Section three (empirical literature) outlines findings presented in the domestic civilian relocation literature. It delineates which factors influence relocation; describes physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical outcomes; and highlights mediating and moderating factors such as move variables, personal characteristics, employment factors, attitudinal factors, family variables, coping, support, and additional stressors. Section four briefly discusses expatriate samples and their place in the current research. It argues that whilst expatriate research makes valuable contributions to the relocation literature, cultural variables act to confound the studies and limit their generalisability to a domestic context. The chapter concludes with a critique of relocation research that highlights current weaknesses in the field.

Section I : Introduction

Every year thousands of people move from one geographic location to another (Flynn, 1995; Glueck, 1974). The motivation for this type of mobility usually comes from the individual's employer (Glueck, 1974). Individual and company relocations have doubled since the 1960s (Bodenhoefer, 1967; Lu & Cooper, 1995) and have seen exponential growth in the last two decades (Altman, 1991). Indeed, one

study reports that nearly two-thirds of companies relocate employees every year (Altman, 1991). The increase in relocation also means that moves are now frequently permeating international borders (Lu & Cooper, 1995). Today moving is a relatively common event (Brett, 1992) with almost everyone facing a move at some point in their life (Flynn, 1995).

1 What is Relocation?

Relocation is "a relatively permanent job reassignment that entails the movement of an employee within an organization from one of its operating sites to another" (Pinder & Walter, 1984, p. 188). This definition is interesting because it acknowledges that transfers do not necessarily involve hierarchical or functional changes but rather focuses on the geographical aspects of transfers.

1.1 The Individual Experience

Relocation is generally accompanied by changes in the physical environment, which affects both working and non-working life (Sagie, Krausz, & Weinstain, 2001). The resulting alterations in the physical and working environment constitute a stressful life event, which is associated with high levels of individual distress (Martin, 1995). However, job moves can be stressful in themselves because they may involve change in a number of areas: Employing organisation, status, function, and location (West, Nicholson, & Rees, 1987).

Geographical relocation can be viewed as a psychological and social transition, which brings about changes in mental well-being and social relationships (Forster, 1990). These changes may be associated with negative consequences. Indeed research on relocation illustrates that moving, a relatively short-term event, can have long-term effects in addition to the obvious short-term consequences on an individual's life situation (Bolan, 1997).

1.2 The Organisational Experience

Relocation creates problems for the organisation as well as the individual (Feldman & Brett, 1985). Organisations are faced with the cost of physical relocation, which can include removal fees, visits to the area, real estate assistance including broker fees and solicitors' costs, cultural information, spousal employment assistance, dependant care information, educational information, cost-of-living adjustment, and additional financial compensation (Eby & Allen, 1998; Feldman & Brett, 1985). Less obvious costs include the loss of efficiency individuals experience around the relocation period (Feldman & Brett, 1985; Mason, 1996), since they have to invest a lot of energy in learning activity that would normally not occupy their time.

Although, organisations try to combat this by minimising the time between job acceptance and relocation (Feldman & Brett, 1985), one cannot predict how long it takes for an individual to reach proficiency in their new job (Pinder, 1977). Another consequence of relocation is what Craig Pinder

(1977) calls the *domino effect* (cited in Feldman & Brett, 1985). This refers to a situation where several individuals in the organisation are moved around in response to the transfer of one individual (Feldman & Brett, 1985).

2   Type of Transfer

There are various different transfer categories (Brett, 1992) which, despite having different characteristics, all incorporate the geographic movement from one location to another (and thus constitute relocation). *Residential mobility* is domestic geographic relocation (Veiga, 1983) and incorporates moving into a new residence. A *job transfer* occurs when individuals move nationally in order to change position within an organisation (Brett, 1992). *International transfers* refer to transfers in which individuals move internationally in order to change position within an organisation (Brett, 1992). Another kind of transfer, *migration* constitutes relatively long-term international mobility (Sell, 1983) and incorporates elements from the other three.

Group moves are unique and not as common as the previous types of transfers (Brett, 1992). They occur when organisations move a group of employees, usually co-workers, from one plant to a new location (Brett, 1992; Rives & West, 1993). Plant relocations should be less stressful than individual relocations, since ties with the work unit stay intact (Sagie et al., 2001). A final category, devised by West et al. (1987) is a move into a *newly created job*. When individuals move into newly created jobs, they are the first to hold the given position and therefore do not have predecessors. These types of moves are thought to be qualitatively different from other relocations.

This report will use the words *relocation, move, transience* and *transfer* interchangeably to refer to "a relatively permanent **domestic** job reassignment that entails the movement of an employee within an organization from one of its operating sites to another" (Pinder & Walter, 1984, p. 188, bold text has been added by the author) unless otherwise stated.

3   Reasons for Relocation

Transfers are not an inherently negative phenomenon: Relocation has the potential to stimulate personal growth and role innovation inside and outside of the workplace (Brett, 1992; Forster, 1990; Lu & Cooper, 1995). Thus both organisational and individual benefits exist in relocation (Feldman & Brett, 1985).

Mobility is largely initiated on organisational rather than individual need (Veiga, 1983). Despite individuals' growing reluctance to move, the organisational importance of relocation is increasing (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Sell, 1983). From an *organisational* point of view, moves are made in order to keep an organisation competitive and effective (Mason, 1996). Indeed, relocations are often necessary in order to move expertise, develop individuals, and advance the organisation (Brett

& Reilly, 1988; Brett, Stroh, & Reilly, 1992; Feldman & Brett, 1985; Sell, 1983; Stierle, van Dick, & Wagner, 2002).

According to Feldman & Brett (1985), relocation can also be used to staff posts, distribute and redistribute knowledge and ideas, transmit an organisational culture, promote staff, and develop staff relationships. In addition, organisations use geographic movement to retain access to markets and customers or even to gain a better cost-of-living index (Mason, 1996). Companies indirectly benefit from relocation because managers widen their perspective, gain invaluable experience, and become more able to diagnose and resolve interdepartmental conflict (Feldman & Brett, 1985).

On the other hand, moving from one location to another can also carry *individual* benefits with it and can positively affect individuals' working lives. For instance, relocation is often viewed as important for career development and enhancement (Gould & Penley, 1985; Markham, Macken, Bonjean, & Corder, 1983; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997) because employees can gain valuable knowledge and skills (Brett et al., 1992; Feldman & Brett, 1985). Undeniably some employers even demand that their employees move to obtain promotion (Sell, 1983; Lee, 1990). Other individual advantages can include increased self-esteem, increased responsibility, personal growth opportunities, and monetary incentives (Feldman & Brett, 1985).

4   The Changing Face of Relocation

Over the past twenty years, public awareness of the disruptiveness of relocations has increased steadily (Lu & Cooper, 1995). The way individuals perceive job transition is changing (Lu & Cooper, 1995). While managers in the 70s reported minimal impact, managers in the 80s reported experiencing stress (Lu & Cooper, 1995). The relocation experience is intensified when it occurs at a time of difficulty, during which individuals are likely to experience additional adjustment problems (Feldman & Brett, 1985). For instance, Fedor (2003) theorised that relocation may result in rejection and isolation from peers, which in turn leads to a lack of connectedness, feelings of loneliness, and social distress.

In addition, the individual is not the only person that is affected. Job transfers also cause great changes in the lives of the individual's family. Despite this, occupational researchers often neglect to investigate family consequences and focus on the employee alone. The well-documented relationship between work and home, suggests that occupational researchers should take family factors into account when conducting research (Frone et al., 1992b; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). However, this type of research often confounds work-related and home-related adjustment. Studying the family in isolation may provide for a clearer picture of the home aspect of the work-home interface.

Few occupational researchers have addressed the family as a unit of study (Lee, 1990). This is despite the fact that problems seem to be magnified at this level, especially when family members may be in

conflict (Lee, 1990). For instance, one member of the family may wish to move on promotion, while his/her spouse does not wish to leave their current job and is adamantly opposed to relocation. If a move occurs despite this conflict, increased relocation difficulties should be expected. On the other hand, the family may also mitigate the effects of mobility by acting as a vital support mechanism (Lee, 1990). It seems that organisations have so far underestimated the role of spouse and family in relocation and greater attention must be paid to them (Brett et al., 1993).

Indeed, societal change has played an important role in relocation and its perception. First of all, more women are part of the workforce and therefore more women are being relocated. This has resulted in the growing phenomenon of male trailing spouses (Cetron, Lucken, McFadden, & Weir, 1987). Furthermore, the number of employed trailing spouses, male and female, will likely continue to rise (Cetron et al, 1987). This employment has lead to an increase in the number of dual-income and dual-career couples (Feldman & Brett, 1985) and influences family relocation decisions (Cetron et al, 1987; Bielby & Bielby, 1992). For instance, there are now more commuter marriages with long periods of separations than ever before (Peterson, 2001).

Transferees and their families seem to lag behind societal trends and be more conventional than the rest of the public (Cetron et al, 1987; Peterson, 2001). Research indicates that most households have a male leader and children are present in four-fifths of the cases (Green, 1997). Nonetheless, additional data indicates that only ten percent of those participating in research are part of a traditional family, in which the male was the principal breadwinner, the female was a housewife, and children were present (Werbel & Walter, 2002).

Therefore, the term *trailing spouse* is no longer synonymous with *housewife* and now encompasses a variety of working arrangements including full- and part-time employed spouses, some of which are career-oriented (Cetron et al, 1987). Spousal employment and involvement in work are becoming increasingly important in relocation decisions (Bielby & Bielby, 1992; Major, 2002). Traditional family systems are being challenged and more individuals than ever are choosing an alternative family lifestyle (Werbel & Walter, 2002). Individuals may remain unmarried, be unmarried with children, single parents, bring children from a previous relationship into a new one, care for parents, etc. In the 20th Century, families are a truly blended phenomenon.

In summary, it can be said that although a broader spectrum of people is relocating today than ever before, the typical relocatee remains a middle-aged male manager, married, with one or two children (Lu & Cooper, 1995). However, the number of individuals from other samples is exponentially increasing. Section II will examine relocation with special samples: Military families and children. These studies comprise the research most relevant to the present project and will be reviewed in-depth.

Section II : Key Studies

Relocation research studies utilising special samples such as military personnel or children are rare. Thus relatively little is known about the phenomenon within these groups. This absence of research is somewhat astonishing considering that the frequency of relocation members of the Armed Forces experience makes them ideal candidates for research participation. Additionally, more studies on child relocation would be expected since the effects are likely magnified in this sample. However, the literature does not reflect these ideas and has been relatively quiet about these samples. Nonetheless, some notable exceptions have been made. These will be discussed in turn, starting with military relocation and then moving to child relocation. The author will also engage in some discussion about the expatriate relocation literature and the appropriateness of its use to inform this research project.

1   Military Relocation

The research community often views military samples as unique; they therefore remain a largely untapped research resource. However, the military represents a highly mobile community in which the effects of transience are prone to be magnified. It is for this reason that the present study utilises a military sample. Despite the advantages, the employment of a military sample also carries disadvantages with it. As previously mentioned, members of the Armed Forces are often viewed as different from their civilian counterparts. It is thus difficult to draw direct parallels between the groups. This increases the importance of a full review of the military relocation literature, in other words relocation studies utilising military samples. Important attention will be given to whether the findings obtained from the military literature differ significantly from those presented in the civilian literature.

1.1   The Nature of Military Relocation

The military is a unique organisation that has an extraordinary amount of control over the men and women in its service. Aside from this, service life offers unpredictable hours, extreme environments, dangerous deployments and extended separations (Moskos et al., 2000). Other common and increasing concerns about the soldiering included: Being kept or staying beyond normal hours, being required to work on weekends, and having to cancel personal/family plans because of work (Peterson, 2001). Unlike in normal employment, these behaviours are not simply expected but rather compelled. Due to these factors it is sometimes said that relocation is unusually stressful for military personnel (Wickham, 1983). However, others argue that moving is a more familiar and less daunting experience for soldiers

since they (a) expect to be relocated and (b) their reference groups also frequently relocates (Altman, 1991).

The nature of military relocation itself differs from nation to nation and service branch to service branch. Since this dissertation is concerned with British military relocation, the discussion in this section will exclusively focus on the United Kingdom. Relocation for British Forces is based on individual posting orders and regulated by the *Terms of Service for Officers and Soldiers*. Although frequency of moving can be approximated, it is subject to the *contingency of service* or service need, and thus no set of formal written rules and regulations on how long a soldier or officer will serve at one unit exists (MoD, 2005a, 2005b, 2005c).

It is generally acknowledged that the first-line defence system of the United Kingdom consists of the Royal Army, Royal Navy, and Royal Air Force. Each service branch, largely due to its mission and the character of its work, approaches relocation differently.

The British Army employs two types of relocation systems: (A) The *Army plots system* and (B) the *trickle posting system* (MoD, 2005a). Some sections of the Army, namely the Infantry and the Royal Armoured Corps, relocate their troops in regiments or *Arms Plots*. These group moves have a clear advantage for soldiers: Social networks stay intact. Additionally, regimental moves allow for a degree of stability since troops tend to stay in their role (and therefore the same location) longer. However, this system is being employed less and less in favour of an individual relocation system: The *trickle posting system*. The frequency of relocation with this system varies but tends to transpire around the two-year mark for officers and the three-year mark for soldiers. The Royal Army has over 100 units to host regular forces (MoD, 2005a).

Members of the Royal Navy are normally assigned to a *home port* from which they operate. Again, a trickle posting system is in operation: Officers and sailors alike move in two-year cycles. However, relocation frequency is largely dependent on whether the job is ship- or shore-based and which trade individuals practice. It should also be observed that the Royal Navy is the service branch with fewest bases: Three naval bases, two air stations, four regional offices, and fourteen university units host all of the Navy's regular forces (MoD, 2005b). Indeed, at any one point approximately sixty percent of the fleet is held at Portsmouth (MoD, 2005b).

The Royal Air Force also relocates frequently. Like the other two services, it operates on the basis of an individual posting system. Again, the officer corps moves much more frequently than enlisted airmen: Officers relocate on average every eighteen months, while airmen and airwomen may spend three years in a place on a single tour. The RAF currently has a total of 60 units: 2 Headquarters, 23 major units, and 35 smaller units (MoD, 2005c). However, due to major restructuring currently taking place, the number of bases will likely be reduced. Several closures, including RAF Innsworth

and RAF Stafford, have already been announced (MoD, 2005c).

The frequency of mobility in the British Armed Forces creates flexibility and enables the military to respond to changes in the environment quickly. Since members of the military may be asked to enter unfamiliar terrain at any point with little notice, adaptability remains a crucial competency for soldiers, sailors, and airmen. Relocation therefore continues to be an essential aspect of forces life and it is likely that the transfer of employees will continue. Research might however offer insights into ways in which the relocation process can be changed in order to diminish the negative consequences that service families experience.

It is now relatively well-known that frequent mobility can have negative consequences for the individual and his/her family (Peterson, 2001). Relocation consequences for military families, though intensified, appear to be similar to those of their civilian counterparts. Family difficulties arising out of relocation have in turn been linked to reduced work performance for the employee (Behson, 2002). The military, unlike most other populations, cannot afford this loss in work-performance since it is difficult to predict when mission deployment will occur. In order to optimise the mission readiness of soldiers, sailors, and airmen it is therefore essential to attempt to minimise the negative effect of geographical relocations. This includes the identification of factors that have an adverse impact on the employee's family, as well as the sources of support that help to reduce this impact.

1.2 The Role of the Family in Military Relocation

The military began formally recognising the importance of families in the 1980s, when it became accepted that the family plays a critical role in the military mission (Wickham, 1983). Indeed uniformed researchers now proclaim: "Since relocations are potentially stressful for families and this stress may impact on the readiness of the soldier and his/her unit, it is in the best interest of the Army to promote positive relocation adjustments among spouses and children (Orthner, 2002; p. 1)". Research also supports the premise that spousal satisfaction with the military way of life is important to retention (Gill & Haurin, 1998).

Though the support families offer their military member is invaluable, family members have to make many sacrifices in order to continue providing that support. For instance, military families are much more likely to relocate than civilian families (Segal & Harris, 1993; Wickham, 1983). Indeed, one report found that approximately 33% of military families relocated annually (Orthner, 2002). It also appears that the percentage of military spouses who are being relocated is increasing (Peterson, 2001).

Despite the fact that most families seem to adjust well to the demands of relocation, adjustment levels for relocated families remain lower for up to one year after the move as compared to those who do not move (Orthner, 2002). The frequent and at times unpredictable relocations are additionally associated with challenging practical outcomes such as spousal unemployment. Data indicates that

wives of military personnel are less likely to be employed and if they are employed are less likely to work full-time or have job tenure than civilian partners (Gill & Haurin, 1998; Peterson, 2001; Wickham, 1983). Military spouses are also less likely to be educated, tend to have lower job status, and earn less money (Gill & Haurin, 1998).

In addition, relocation can carry financial burden with it for families. Peterson (2001) found that 34% of spouses reported moving costs in excess of $500 that were not covered by the Army. The difficulties associated with relocation and service life can result in career dissatisfaction: One study found that 19.7% of spouses believed that their partner was dissatisfied or extremely dissatisfied with their military career (Peterson, 2001).

1.3 Key Studies

As previously observed, research on military (and especially military family) relocation is limited. In this part of the dissertation, the six studies most relevant to the current research will be reviewed: Brackley (2001), Cooney (2003), Fisher & Shaw (1994), Gill & Haurin (1998), Orthner (2002), and Peterson (2001). Although some of the results from the studies have already been reviewed above, more descriptive detail is provided so that the reader may understand their significance. These studies are considered central to the present research since they all use military samples and have relocation as one of their main area of study.

Brackley (2001)

Brackley (2001) reports on the RAF element of the Tri-Service Families' Moving Survey. The data set comprised a total of 1049 questionnaires that were returned by individuals who had been posted in the UK within the past three years. This research project is most aligned with the study currently under consideration.

The results indicated that the main problems encountered by RAF families as a result of relocation were: Children's education; NHS healthcare; General Practitioner (GP) registration; and dental treatment. Of these, registering with a dentist proved most prevalent - 42.2% of respondents reported difficulties. Children's education closely followed with 26.7% of families experiencing problems. GP registration was a difficulty in 9.7% of the cases, while NHS healthcare proved a challenge to 6.9% of the sample. A number of individuals also reported wishing to leave the service as a result.

Several difficulties exist with this research. First of all, although the research was intended to be exploratory, questionnaires were used. This indicates that the researchers had some presupposed ideas about the problem areas RAF personnel and their families experienced during the time of relocation. Indeed, this design restricted the study to the sole investigation of practical outcomes. No physical, psychological, behavioural, or social factors were identified. Additionally, the definition of family was

slightly outdated. The sample consisted only of married individuals and ignored modern family forms (e.g. long-term partnerships). Finally, the study represents an internal effort to capture relocation outcomes.

Internal research can be problematic since it may create suspicion with respondents and lead to falsification of results. Further, internal research efforts tend to focus only on 'hard' organisational outcome variables (e.g. performance, turnover) and neglect other important variables (e.g. satisfaction, well-being) because they are viewed as 'soft' and the impact on the organisation is more difficult to assess. Another reason for the investigation of these objective / organisational factors is that they allow for application and policy implications. In other words, it is more likely that effective improvements could can be undertaken. Additionally, softer variables may increase an organisations legal responsibility and liability. It is difficult for an organisation to ignore problems once these have been proven to exist. For instance, if an organisation is aware that depression occurs around the time of relocation, it becomes their obligation to provide support services in an attempt to prevent this issue.

Cooney (2003)

Cooney (2003) investigated the impact of tied migration status on the employment of military spouses. Data from the 1992 Department of Defense Survey of Spouses was used to investigate whether the impact of relocation on employment differs by gender, race, and class. In total, 12025 individuals were selected for participation. It is interesting to note that the sample over-represents Air Force spouses, since these achieved an usually high response rate of 62%. Unfortunately the response rates of all other sub-samples are not provided. Findings illustrated that high levels of geographic mobility were associated with greater problems in finding employment, heightened dissatisfaction with work opportunities, lowered levels of employment, and reduced earnings per annum. Results varied by gender, race, and class though the effects were complex.

Despite the valuable insights this study provides into military relocation, it again focuses on practical outcome variables. No consideration is given to psychological consequences. Additionally, only responses from married individuals were captured and modern family forms were again overlooked. However, this is perhaps not surprising considering that the original survey dates back approximately thirteen years. This also makes it feasible that some of the findings are now outdated. This study represents another internal research project, which may be challenge on the basis of ulterior motives and also helps to explain the focus on objective and practical outcome variables.

Fisher & Shaw (1994)

Fisher and Shaw (1994) used a sample of U.S. Air Force personnel to study pre- and post-relocation attitudes. It was one of the first military studies to also include pre-move variables; until that point only post-move attitudes were assessed.

Findings indicated that moving experience was significantly and negatively correlated with adjustment difficulty in domestic movers. Also, pre-move (but not post-move) attitudes were affected by perceived difficulty associated with the most recent prior move. Time spent in the previous location and community satisfaction (indicators of attachment), were negatively correlated with pre-transfer attitudes. While expected advancement lead to positive pre- and post-move attitudes, job similarity was solely related to adjustment. Pre-move attitudes were also affected by having friends at the new location.

Realistic expectations were related to pre-move satisfaction, possibly through decreased ambiguity. Expected job and community satisfaction predicted pre-move attitude most strongly and yet did not predict post-move attitude at all. It was real job and community satisfaction, as well as advancement that were related to post-move attitude. Patterns in the data revealed that expectations predicted pre-move attitudes best, whilst actual experience was the best predictor for post-move attitudes. Pre-move attitudes were also related to post-move attitudes.

The researchers proposed that one could not predict mobility attitudes and adjustment without considering the specific new location. Also, both expectations of and actual experience at the new location were important predictors of mobility attitudes. However, post-move attitude was only measured 3 three months after the move - The results may therefore not generalise to any other time periods. Further, adjustment may not be complete yet. Another interesting point of investigation would have been the consequences of relocation. Unfortunately the reported findings were limited to attitudes.

On the basis of their results, Fisher and Shaw (1994) concluded that individuals learn from past moves, thus easing their future transitions. In a military sample this seems plausible, since personnel and their families become familiarised with relocation procedures and are thus able to reduce some of the uncertainty associated with subsequent moves (realistic expectations tend to decrease the likelihood of surprise). Further, as the authors note, the military is a highly mobile community; it is therefore likely that transferees already know some of the people within the new community. It is further possible that the individuals had already been posted to the location at another point throughout their service.

Gill & Haurin (1998)

Gill & Haurin (1998) investigated how civilian wives affect military husbands' decisions regarding their career. Only civilian wife-military husband couples were analysed since wives are more likely to be tied movers. In order to test their hypotheses, the 1992 DOD Surveys of Officers and Military Spouses was utilised. This survey assessed demographic, attitudinal, and economic variables in a sample of 13650 married officers. The sample was then reduced to military members who had served for at least one year, to allow for service familiarity, and no more than 8 years, because military officers tend to plan a full military career after that point. The military sample was compared with the 1992 National

Longitudinal Survey of Youth (NLSY), which assessed similar variables in a civilian sample.

Data indicated that wives of military personnel are less likely to be employed and if they are employed are likely to only work part-time. Over 40% of the sample indicated that they were homemakers. Also, if they do work, they have less job tenure than civilian wives. This was largely due to the frequent geographical relocations they undergo as a result of their husbands' careers. Military wives are also less likely to be educated, have lower job status, and earn less.

The research also supports the premise that husband and wife's satisfaction with the military way of life are important to retention. Attitudinal and economic variables are important predictors of career decisions. Attitudes are especially important and influence the way in which economic variables are weighted. For example, if women illustrate low commitment to the labour force, husbands are likely to weigh their own earnings as more important. Also, husband's satisfaction with the work-family situation appeared to be more important than the wife's.

Gender roles were also important predictors of attitudes and decisions. Traditional men, who were likely to make unilateral decisions, were less likely to be influenced by economic consequences and their partner's prospective career change. However, the number of traditional men and women appears to be decreasing as more women are entering the labour market. It will therefore become increasingly important to consider both spouses' career changes as a result of relocation.

Further, an increase in the proportion of married service members was reported (from 38% in 1953 to 60% in 1995). Thus family factors are likely to play an even more important role in future retention. It is essential that policy-makers consider the influence the military lifestyle and relocation have on family members, since these affect the service member's attitudes and career decisions.

However, it should be noted that data used in this study is thirteen years old and may not represent the current state of affairs. Further, once again only those legally married were included. The problem is compounded in this sample, since only female trailing spouses (wives) were studied. It is therefore unlikely that the sample is representative of the military population it was drawn from. Moreover, only officers were used in this sample; and these were compared to Youth samples. This limits the generalisability of the findings. Finally, the research was conducted internally and may thus suffer from associated problems previously observed. Results must be applied with caution.

Orthner (2002)

Orthner (2002) published a paper based on the most recent Survey of Army Families (SAF IV 2001), which was conducted by the U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences (ARI). An important recognition was that relocation has the potential to impact on the adjustment and well-being of military families.

The study found that approximately 33% of families relocated annually. Although the use of relocation services provided by the Army is increasing, satisfaction with services remains low to moderate. Despite the fact that most families appear to adjust well to the demands of relocation, their adjustment levels remain lower for up until one year after the move compared to those who do not move.

With respect to Army support services, electronic relocation information service saw the greatest increase in usage. Compared to 1995, when only 31% reported using the service, 66% reported using it in 2001. Further the number of individuals attending group (22%) and individual (30%) relocation counselling increased to 36% and 43% respectively in 2001. However, satisfaction levels with services were disappointingly low and had also receded since 1995. The only services that demonstrated increases in satisfaction levels were computerised relocation services and overseas orientation. Logistical support services were generally rated as more satisfactory than emotional support services (e.g. counselling, sponsors).

Relocation adjustment was not assessed per se. Rather, individuals who relocated within the past year were compared to those who did not relocate. Relocatees reported lower levels of satisfaction in 13 of the 18 adjustment indicators that were used. Adjustment was categorised into family, personal, and Army adjustment. Especially indicators related to deployment readiness, financial problems, personal coping, loneliness, independence, and satisfaction with the Army way of life produced low results. Families that employed Army relocation assistance services were less likely to possess personal and social resources and had not adjusted as well to their latest transfer. These types of resources appeared to be linked to lower levels of stress and greater well-being.

Factors that were found to be positively correlated with adjustment comprise Army-related resources (e.g. comfortable in dealing with Army agencies, family support services, medical care, respect etc.), family assets (quality of marriage & family time), personal ability (education & volunteering), financial resources (spousal employment, savings etc.), social support (friends, information etc.), and leadership quality/supportiveness (concern for families). The greater the number of assets, the greater personal, family, and Army relocation adjustment was. The author concluded that strengthening these assets can lead to better adaptation and coping which in turn can mitigate the demands that relocations place on military families.

Again, this is an internal military study. These types of research projects suffer from inherent flaws and are not always available for review by civilian researchers. However, the fact that psychological variables such as well-being were investigated in this study should be considered a major strength. Unfortunately, the discussion of psychological consequences is very broad. It would have been desirable to understand more about the specific psychological relocation effects. Nonetheless, the research makes valuable contributions to science.

CHAPTER 2. RELOCATION LITERATURE REVIEW

Peterson (2001)

Peterson's (2002) report outlined the findings from the 2001 Survey of Army Families IV. The survey assessed perceptions of the Army way of life, quality of life, Army family characteristics, family issues, policy effectiveness, and changing needs of military families. The U.S. Army Community and Family Support Centre (CFSC) funded the research that was conducted by the Army Personnel Survey Office (APSO) during the spring and summer of 2001.

Questionnaires were sent to a stratified sample of civilian spouses of serving soldiers. 6,759 responses were received for a response rate of 33%. Items assessing housing and neighbourhood, family relocation, family separation, Army chaplains, relationship with the Army, own demographics, own employment, volunteer work, soldier demographics, health care, Army family team building, recreating programs, other services, pregnancy, children, and the Army way of life were directed at spouses.

Findings illustrated a number of interesting trends. For instance, it was found that 13.6% of spouses did not reside in the same location as the soldier. Satisfaction with housing was generally high (61.8% were satisfied or very satisfied), although individuals were more likely to be satisfied if they lived in a privately owned house (91.9% satisfaction rate vs. 51-56% for other types of housing).

Additionally, spouses were concerned greatly about certain neighbourhood variables and their effect on well-being: Namely heavy/fast traffic (23.2%), poor housing (17.6%), poor schools (16.2%), drugs (16.1%), and security (15.0%). In Peterson's study, 43.2% of participants reported pregnancy complications during relocation. Of these, over two-thirds were serious. In fact, the negative effect of relocation was so strong in 20% of the cases that spouses reported difficulty in coping with day-to-day stressors.

With regard to family relocation, the author observed an increase in the percentage of spouses who had been relocated (from 29.7% in 1995 to 33% in 2001). Concerns about the financial burden of relocation were mentioned by 34% of respondents who stated that moving costs in excess of $500 were not covered by the Army. Further, many spouses were unfamiliar with the support programs available to them. For example, only 60.6% of spouses were aware of the existence of Army Family Team Building Programme. However, proximity of residence to the base increased likelihood of participation in Army programs. This indicates that those living further from the unit may be disadvantaged in terms of support.

Despite representing a very comprehensive investigation of family issues and the inclusion of relocation variables, the report somewhat overlooks specific details. The research appears to focus on too many areas simultaneous, neglecting depth in favour of breadth. Another possible item for critique would be the internal nature of the work - The independence of the researcher may be challenged. Even so, some valuable observations were made.

Summary

Results from military studies indicate a range of negative practical outcomes. Children's education; NHS healthcare; General Practitioner (GP) registration; and dental treatment constitute the major concerns of military families at the time of relocation (Brackley, 2001). Additionally, geographic mobility was associated with problems in finding employment, dissatisfaction with work opportunities, low levels of employment, and decreased yearly earnings (Cooney, 2003; Gill & Haurin, 1998). These results vary by gender, race, and class (Cooney, 2003).

In terms of psychological outcomes, Fisher and Shaw's (1994) research indicated that moving experience reduced adjustment difficulty in domestic movers. Also, while expectations were the best predictor of pre-move attitudes, actual experience was most related to post-move attitudes (Fisher & Shaw, 1994). Although the increasing utilisation of military relocation services, satisfaction remains relatively low (Orthner, 2002). The literature also signalled that adjustment of those relocating remained lower than that of non-movers for up to one year post-move (Orthner, 2002). Finally, while there was an increase in the percentage of spouses relocating, many spouses were not familiar with available relocation support (Peterson, 2001).

Despite the value of these studies, they also have limitations - Individually and collectively. As can be seen, the military relocation literature is no where near as developed as its civilian counterpart. Therefore information available on military transience is limited, necessitating the conduction of additional exploratory work in the area. However, as will become evident later on, military and civilian samples do not produce entirely different findings. Please review Section III for details.

2 Child Relocation

It is common for the relocation literature to examine the effect relocation has on working adults. Participants usually include employees and their (female) spouses but the literature is less developed when it comes to a special group of transients: Children. In general, children tend to be quite negative about moving, even more so than their parents (Brett, 1980). Despite their potential influence (Behson, 2002) they are a largely overlooked part of relocation. For instance, children's reluctance toward a transfer had been shown to reduce parental transfer acceptance (Brett & Werbel, 1980). This section will discuss some of the research that has examined the effect of moving on children.

2.1 Nature of Child Relocation

Generally, children represent a group that does not choose to relocate - They are compelled into moving by their parents and have little control over the process. Vernberg & Field (1990) discuss transitions in terms of normative and non-normative experiences. According to their theory, normative transitions are predictable and expected (e.g. changing schools at the end of elementary school), while non-normative transitions are less predictable and more ambiguous (e.g. geographical moves). Both

types of transition place additional demands on children and may be experienced as stressful since they are accompanied by changes in environment and interpersonal relationships (Vernberg & Field, 1990). However non-normative transitions, such as relocation, are often experienced more negatively by children (Vernberg & Field, 1990).

2.2 Military Children

One section of children that is particularly affected by relocation consists of children coming from military families. It has been suggested that relocation and other aspects of service life can have serious negative long-term consequences for children of service personnel (Ender, 2002). However, few studies assessing the long-term impact of service life on children in adult life have been conducted (Ender, 2002). Nonetheless there is some limited evidence that relocation affects adult personality and that children that are exposed to frequent transience feel rootless (Ender, 2002).

Children in military families are exposed to unique stressors that civilian children are unlikely to encounter (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002). Their lifestyle is characterised by transience, risk of parental death or injury, extended periods of family separation, shift work, organisational and cultural limitations, employment dominated by masculinity, counterculture learning, residence in foreign countries foreign, and the challenge of transition to civilian life (Ender, 2002).

Especially the unavailability of a major attachment figure, usually the serving parent, can create difficulties for children since a part of one's identity is gained from family during childhood (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002). Armed Forces children may also gain part of their identity from the military culture they are exposed to (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002). The effects of exposure to service stressors can last into adulthood, thus adults who grew up in military families tend to seek each other out (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002; Ender, 2002). What unites them is a sense of *otherness* which they only begin to understand in adulthood (Ender, 2002). This is deemed to provide a mutual sense of comfort (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002), which is recognised through shared experience, united ethos, and collective identity (Ender, 2002).

2.3 Key Studies

Research on child relocation is restricted. Since many organisational research projects are funded by the organisations themselves, this is perhaps not unexpected. It is much more difficult to establish the effect family members have on the outcomes variables that organisations are most interested in (e.g. productivity). This may be especially true for children, since little research targeting them exists: This further perpetuates the cycle.

A review of the scarce studies using children as part of their sample follows: Baker Cottrell (2002),

Ballinger (2002); Brett (1982), Brett & Werbel (1980), Cachevki Williams & Liebenow Mariglial (2002), Ender (2002), Finn Jordan (2002), Lawson & Angel (1994), Schaetti (2002), U.S. Army Community and Family Support Centre (2002), Vernberg & Field (1990), and Wood, Halfon, Scarlata, Newacheck, & Nessim (1993). These studies are important since they provide some insight into the consequences of relocation on children. This is relevant to the present research, since children are also included as participants. The research presented provides both background literature to guide the researcher and some studies for comparison.

Baker Cottrell (2002)

In this research project data from 603 American adult Third Culture Kids (ATCKs) was collected. Third Culture Kids are individuals who spent a significant portion of their childhood abroad. 30% of the children in the sample came from military families. Results indicated that international expatriate experience has an important long-term effect on children and that individuals with these types of experiences are changed because of them. The occurrence becomes a part of who they are.

TCKs feel different from their cultural peers but most nonetheless feel they have benefited from their colourful background. ATCKs exhibit extremely high level of achievement in the areas of education and employment. Most ATCKs welcome back international involvement and are thus particularly well suited for the contemporary globalised world. Clearly there are differences between TCKs: While some return to their origin country wishing to put their TCK life behind them, others embrace it completely and settle overseas.

The project represents exploratory research where data was collected in the form of interviews. Unfortunately the methodology was not outlined in detail, making a full evaluation of the design difficult. However, the data appear to capture the existence of long-term consequences of relocation. Despite the fact that the international element in the study makes it more difficult to draw parallels between this research and the current venture, it supports the notions that relocation can have enduring effects. These effects may reasonably also be expected in a domestic sample - Though perhaps to a lesser extent.

Brett (1982)

One of the first relocation studies to assess well-being was conducted by Brett in 1982. Brett conceptualised well-being as a subjective aspect of human experience, which results from the interpretation of objective situational characteristics. Based on earlier work by Campbell (1981), Brett outlined various germane aspects of well-being: Working life, self, standard of living, family life, marriage, and interpersonal relationships. The study was conducted with a sample of 350 employees from ten large American companies; three different comparison groups, derived from past research, were employed. Interestingly, the average frequency of move for the sample was once every two years.

Findings signalled that mobile children (1-14 years) did not experience more physical or psychological symptoms of ill-health than stationary children. However, mobility did correlate with physical health problems in teenagers (15-18 years). In the area of friendship, the picture was somewhat reversed: Relocated children had lower quality peer relationships and difficulties in adjusting socially. Although the social adjustment of teenagers was better, they tended to miss their old friends more and found it difficult to make new friends.

This study provides evidence that the age of children is an important variable to consider in relocation research. Children mature as they age and this appears to alter their response to relocation. One must note, however, that some of these results are based on parental ratings (children under 7 years of age). Findings for this age group are thus based on inferences and it is unclear whether parents could accurately identify their child's reaction to relocation. No study correlating parental estimates of child adjustment to the actual adjustment of the child exist to the author's knowledge.

Additional caution should be applied when interpreting these results, since data was collected in the late 1970s. Brett (1982, p. 451) herself provides some indication that these findings may no longer apply today by stating that: "The typical corporate move involves a male employee with a nonworking wife and two children." Due to changes in society, this no longer represents the typical relocatee and the generalisation of results is therefore somewhat restricted.

Ballinger (2002)

In a report on child relocation in the British military, Ballinger (2002) reported that schools with a high number of service children illustrate the highest mobility rates and the least stable student population. Mobility is seen as an inevitable part of life in service. According to a series of statistics reported in the document, there are approximately 80,000 service children of school age in the United Kingdom. Of these, 12,200 pupils are being educated by the Service Children's Education Schools, with a predicted number of 1,000 further children in private overseas schools. In addition, an estimated 10,000 are in boarding school.

Summarising available information on mobile military children, Ballinger (2002) asserts that these are more mature, more knowledgeable, more confident, able to adapt more quickly, have better relationships with adults, possess advanced language skills, have travelling confidence, are excited, experience a holiday feeling, have a wider network of friends, are comfortable in new environments, establish deep friendships more quickly, learn social closure skills, seek change, and are more focused on the present as compared to stationary children.

Relocation was also associated with a series of negative outcomes including: Peer rejection and social exclusion, friendship loss, difficulty in social relationships, difficulty in planning and decision-making, feeling rootless and temporary, difficulty in relationships establishment and maintenance, reluctance to

become involved, disappointment, sadness, sense of loss, accumulated grief, confused sense of identity, lower levels of psychological adjustment for up to 6 months after a move, reduced coping ability, and general disruption.

In addition, children may experience a lack of confidence, uncertainty, loss of sense of belonging, reduced independence and lack of autonomy, school disruption, reduced contact with family, constant change in social activities, increased emotionality, and change in sleeping or eating habits. Symptoms of relocation stress include children being clingier, crying more, exhibiting a greater desire to be with adults, illustrating increased aggressiveness, and greater withdrawal (Ballinger, 2002). School age children display the following additional symptoms: Complaints of aches and pains without physical cause, greater irritability, lack of concentration, and problems at school (Ballinger, 2002).

The degree of change children are subjected to is positively correlated with stress and relocation difficulties. Living in temporary accommodation and being a part of a non-traditional family also increase time to adjustment. On the other hand, moving as part of a group (e.g. regimental move) reduced time to adjustment. Ballinger (2002) theorised that a two-year moving cycle may stop children from ever feeling completely integrated at a location.

Unfortunately no information on methodology was provided and the studies presented were not cited appropriately. However, these are likely the result of internal research efforts and were thus never formally published. Access to these types of documents is restricted for civilian researchers, since military papers only tend to be circulated internally and then held at the Ministry of Defence library in London.

Brett & Werbel (1980)

In their longitudinal research study, Brett & Werbel (1980) assessed the impact of relocation on employees and their families. The initial sample consisted of fifty employees from ten companies who were selected to participate and the study encompassed three phases: Baseline Survey I, Movers Study, and Baseline Survey II. In phase one, a questionnaire was mailed to all selected families between winter 1977 and spring 1978. 350 completed questionnaires were returned to the authors for a response rate of 70%.

Phase two consisted of three telephone interviews. 100 family units (parents and children over seven) participated in the telephone survey. The first interview gathered data with respect to pre-move expectations and feelings. The next two interviews gathered post-move adjustment data. Of interest were adjustment to the new job (employee only) and the new community. However, Brett & Werbel (1980) only assessed community adjustment for spouses and children, whilst adjustment to work/school was completely neglected for these sub-samples. The third and final stage consisted of another questionnaire. This questionnaire aimed to provide a final measurement of mover's adjustment.

According to results from the study, children seemed to adapt quite quickly after relocation - Despite vast changes in school structure. Nonetheless about 25% of children sampled mentioned post-move problems of insecurity and dependency on parents. Overall girls seemed to look forward to moving more than boys and younger children tended to adjust better than older children. Additionally, children who were happier about the move, tended to adjust better and were more satisfied with their new school and neighbourhood. This, however, was largely dependent on whether or not the child had made friends. Children that thought it was easy to make friends and made them quickly, tended to like their new school and neighbourhood better than children who experienced some difficulties.

The in-depth relocation study conducted by Brett & Werbel (1980) was sponsored by the Employee Relocation Council (ERC) and the first of its kind. It was one of the first research projects to focus on soft relocation outcomes (e.g. assess well-being), to include all family members in the research (i.e. employees, spouses, and children), and to employed longitudinal methodology. The fact that all three of these were combined in a single project, unquestionably means that the study has set a new standard for relocation researchers. However, since the project was conducted well over 25 years ago, numerous societal changes have occurred and some of its findings are expected to be out of date.

Cachevki Williams & Liebenow Mariglial (2002)

Cachevki Williams and Liebenow Mariglial (2002) argue that military children are different from civilian children because they relocate often and can be separated from their parents for long periods of time. According to their review of early research, military children show increased irritability, depression, impulsiveness, maternal dominance, need for attention, aggression, and dependency. On a positive note, they also demonstrated lower delinquency rates, higher achievement scores, and a higher mean IQ. No difference was found on physical and psychological disorders such as schizophrenia.

Children from military families gain part of their identity from the military culture they are exposed. Those individuals living abroad deal with additional complexities and often need more time to get acculturated. However, with adequate support they may view expatriation as an enjoyable and broadening experience. Whilst overseas, the military community provides needed familiarity and often becomes the focus for children.

Using phenomenology, an interpretive qualitative approach, the researchers used six participants whom they corresponded with over a one year period. Analysis showed that children from military families tend to seek each other out with the effect being preserved into adulthood. Additionally, examination yielded five major themes with regard to seeking out similar others and obtaining membership in organisations for military children or adults that were military children: Keeping up and staying connected; other like me - creating safety; lack of social hierarchy; disconnected adults - adjustment issues; and impact of military life on feelings about family.

Although the authors used an exploratory approach to research, their sample was relatively small. This limits the generalisability of the interpretation. Also, the practical implications of findings were not thoroughly discussed, leaving the reader wondering about the value of the research.

Ender (2002)

In an attempt to further develop the knowledge of children that relocate, the author employed a sample of 590 individuals who had been expatriate children and surveyed them between 1991 and 1997. The 11-page questionnaire assessed organisation family history, social history, demographics, and present lifestyle. 75% of the sample was military.

Respondents reported significant educational achievement with more than 95% indicating at least some college. Further, virtually all respondents reported having spent time overseas while growing up in their organisation families. The average number of years overseas was seven. 97% had lived abroad in one country, 63% in two, and 31% in three. 65% reported having mingled often or totally with the host population. 80.9% reported speaking two languages whilst growing up.

Individuals rated level of stress for several organisational demands. Of these, geographic mobility, normative organisational concerns, and parental separation were cited as most stressful. When asked questions regarding life-satisfaction, participants rated friends, family, and health as most satisfying, with work, non-work activities, and residence still rated as relatively high in satisfaction.

The study also provides some evidence that these children feel rootless. However, relocation and the associated experience of living and travelling abroad can also foster resilience, tolerance, and worldliness. Ender (2002, p. 83) further suggests that relocation and other aspects of service life can have serious negative long-term consequences for children of service personnel: "Their socialization in a family that was occupationally committed to a service organization has a long term impact that is not yet fully understood." However, no studies assessing the long-term impact of service life on children in adult life have been conducted.

When examining this study critically, it should be observed that the typical participant in this study is different from civilian peers and also somewhat different from adult children of military families in general. In the study the typical adult child moved about eight times before high school graduation - This is an extraordinary amount and generally not representative of military samples. The frequency of relocation may create differences between this sample and comparison samples, limiting generalisability. Additionally, the research, though investigating child relocations, used an adult sample. Whether these will accurately recall their experience and accurately assess the impact of these on them in adulthood is difficult to establish. Further, findings may no longer be applicable to children moving today - Some twenty years later.

With reference to the doctoral research presented in this dissertation, the cultural element again limits the value of the research for comparison. However, since the research on child transients is so limited, expatriate papers may well be worth consideration since they may provide at least some insight into the process as experienced by children. Nonetheless, the author is well aware of the limitations and will only apply findings cautiously.

Finn Jordan (2002)

Finn Jordan (2002) profiles children who accompany parents on their overseas tours and as a result grow up in a variety of cultures: Third Culture Kids (TCKs). She describes these individuals as having a combination of values, norms, and social structures that make them similar to and different from the two cultures they grew up in. According to Finn Jordan, TCKs tend to focus on the intrapersonal rather than interpersonal. They tend to know who they are not rather than who they are and cannot completely identify with their ethnicity.

Additionally, most TCKs possess a strong base of academic skills but can be deficient in social skills at the peer level, feel pessimistic, and be insecure or foster a sense of elitism. They tend to conceive their worldwide networks as extended family and continue to experience a strong dependence on and identification with these individuals. Child expatriates often also express issues about separation, grief, and loss. In adulthood, TCKs tend to be good with social behaviour, keen observers, and adjust easily. They carry their cultural diversity with them and thrive on the new, the different, the challenge, and the stimulation. TCK psychological landscapes are generally fluid and diverse - Continuities are maintained through mobility.

Finn Jordan (2002) offers an interesting profile for TCKs but fails to adequately support her ideas by research. It is difficult to recreate the process of theory development. Additionally, an international element also exists in this paper - Making comparisons between this and the current sample difficult.

Lawson & Angle (1994)

The study investigated a (voluntary) business-unit relocation in the United States. For the purpose of this study, 202 family units responded to a series of questionnaires two years after relocation. Questionnaire items were based on extensive interviews with executives as well as employees & spouses. Each household received two separate questionnaires: One employee questionnaire and one family survey. The family survey consisted of a spousal and a family section: Whilst spouses were to answer the first part of the questionnaire individually, they were encouraged to gather input from the whole family for the second part.

Data indicated that neither spousal employment nor having children at home produced a significant effect on adjustment two years post-move. However, a number of other factors were found to have

an effect. For instance, time since relocation increases spouse and child adjustment but decreases the chance that an employee would redo the relocation. Also, if an employee had grown up in the region they originally relocated from, both spouse and employee were less likely to redo the relocation. Additionally, the employee had lower adjustment and reported more negative non-work impacts.

If a spouse had grown up in the original location, spouse and employee were again less likely to redo the relocation. Further, the spouse had lower adjustment and the family experienced greater strain. Another important factor was whether the employee had fewer than two prior relocations. If this was the case, employee and spouse were less likely to redo the relocation; employee and spouse had lower adjustment; employee experienced more negative non-work impact; and family experienced greater strain.

With the aging population, elderly parents are becoming an increasing concern for those relocating. Indeed, this study found evidence that leaving parents behind resulted in spouses and employees being less likely to redo the relocation; employees having lower adjustment and reporting more negative non-work impact; and the family experienced greater strain. It may be noteworthy to mention that non-work impact in this study referred to relationship with loved ones, leisure activities, and quality of life.

This study provides interesting results but fails to adequately describe family outcomes. The research sells itself as a family study but makes little indication about the outcomes for children - Indeed only family strain can be said to reflect child suffering. All other results pertain solely to the employee or his / her spouse. The project may be further criticised on the basis of its methodology. Though utilising an innovative approach, the effectiveness is unclear. For instance, although the authors ask for 'whole family input' it could be argued that the responses obtained are largely reflective of a spousal response.

Schaetti (2002)

Schaetti (2002) focuses on attachment theory to try to explain the relocating process for children. Those frequently relocation experience a life full of change: Location, pets, friends and possessions get altered in cycles, generally every three years. In this environment of constant change it is possible to say that the primary source of continuity is actually discontinuity. Schaetti (2002) predicts that frequent change in the environment could hinder attachment, especially when children move into a new environment that is less responsive to the child.

The adjustment process is also likely to be influenced by parental adjustment because the child's ability to trust an environment and feel comfortable within it is often a reflection of how his/her attachment figure engages with it. This is especially true for younger children, who practice less self-regulation. If a caregiver becomes overwhelmed, depressed, or less responsive it is likely to impede

a child's adjustment. Relocation also produces repeated loss and grief cycles in which affectionate bonds are broken.

Schaetti (2002) offers an insightful application of attachment theory to the problem of child relocation. However, the argument is only partially supported by research and needs to be tested extensively before being used to inform policy.

U.S. Army Community and Family Support Centre (2002)

The American Army now recognises that relocation can impact on the well-being of military families and that this concern is especially marked in teenage children. The research summary by the U.S. Army Community and Family Support Centre is based on the 2001 Survey of Army Families (SAF) that is conducted every four to five years. SAF is carried out by the U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences (ARI) to explore non-military spouses' attitudes about Army life and quality of life. The report also draws upon 2001 Sample Survey of Military Personnel (SSMP) which aims to assess soldiers' attitudes with regard to the same issues. Over 22,000 spouses participated in the survey.

Overall, 75% of Army families who participated in the survey had child(ren); of these 60% were school-aged. Ninety percent of all school-aged children lived and relocated with their parents. From these surveys it can also be seen that more than 40% of soldiers and spouses had high-school aged children whose lives were affected by relocation.

Since this study focused on the preceding three years, most individuals (71.5%) only relocated once. There were, however, families that relocated two (22.2%) or more (6.2%) times. 56.1 % of spouses reported that accompanying high-school children experienced no difficulties after their last relocation. This means that an estimated 11,853 spouses did report difficulties. Frequently reported problems included: Poor social adjustment, low participation in extracurricular activities, not being able to complete homework on time, being under-challenged in school, and unrecognised qualifications (e.g. not receiving credit for courses completed elsewhere). However, relocation did not appear to change perceptions towards the Army and quality of life. It also did not alter adjustment rates.

Spouses and soldiers gave similar responses with respect to their high-school aged children. It was further found that there were few differences in reports made by enlisted personnel versus those made by officers (and their respective spouses). It may nonetheless be noteworthy that officers were more likely to move during the summer, whereas enlisted personnel were more likely to move during the school term. The article concludes by acknowledging that: "Frequent PCS moves and children frequently changing schools are two of the many demands the Army makes on Army families (U.S. Army Community and Family Support Centre, 2002; p. 4)."

The study offers an impressive sample not paralleled in the literature. The data produced from the questionnaires is detailed and allows for sophisticated statistical analysis. However, one must recall that the results are not based on ratings made by children but on estimations presented by their parents. Whether or not parental perceptions accurately reflect the experience of the child remains to be demonstrated. Further, this report is a manifestation of an internal research effort. Finally, the study largely focuses on practical outcomes of relocation. This may have several roots: It may be a direct result of the type of questions that were asked; it may be because practical outcomes are easier to express; or because practical concerns represent the interest of the researcher and/or organisation.

Vernberg & Field (1990)

Vernberg & Field (1990) present a largely theoretical paper that asserts that transients are faced with various tasks that place strain on their adaptive resources: Loss of a person or object (psychological); development of new relations (social); and the establishment of new behaviours (physical). The authors stress that any intervention must be informed by developmental stages because these are likely to influences the response and coping ability of a child.

Tasks children face include the dual demands of leaving a comfortable setting and entering an unfamiliar one, as well as grieving the loss of valued relationships and engaging in the formation of new ones. These ideas are based on past research that found children as young as 15 months experiencing distress as a result of separation from peers. According to the study, in the week preceding and following the separation, infants and toddlers were more active, fussier, aggressive and affectionate. They also wandered around more and engaged in fantasy play. They slept less, cried more during their sleep, had sleeping problems, toileting problems, and were more prone to illness.

Toddlers experienced more pre-transfer distress than infants, indicating an anticipatory response. It is also relatively well established that the formation of new relationships seems to be more difficult for older children and adolescents (11-18 years). Additionally, a study conducted by one of the authors illustrated that recently mobile adolescents (three months post-move) had less peer contact and less intimate relationships with their best friend. Rejection and bullying also appeared to be a problem for boys.

However, the study successfully illustrates that children vary in their response to stress (physiological and coping responses) just like adults. This is due to dispositional and environmental factors. For instance, dispositions such as attractiveness and athletic ability seem to make transitions easier because it allows for popularity with peers. Skills in social problem-solving, ability to enter and participate in groups, self-esteem, self-efficacy, internal locus of control, resilience, and persistence are other factors that are conducive to adjustment.

Environmental factors in this model are largely based around social support from family and the

peer group but also include the degree of change between locations and other stressful life events occurring simultaneously. Family is considered an important source of support, especially since other interpersonal relationships are lost. Moves are thus more difficult for children who do not have a strong family relationship.

The theoretical underpinnings of this model make sense at a common level. The model is simple to follow and is (at least partially) supported by the evidence. However, a critique of this study would include the requirement of more recent data to test all aspects of the model with various types of child participants (e.g. civilians, preachers, military children, etc). This would enable the theorists to make more sweeping or predictive statements about the nature of child relocation and to more completely test the applicability of their theoretical conceptualisation of the process.

Wood et al. (1993)

In this study, data from 9915 six to seventeen year olds completing the 1988 National Health Interview Survey was used. The study is conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census as part of a household survey. Results from the study indicated that relocation positively correlated with: Poverty, Caucasian racial status, single parent families, low parental education, and young parenthood. Additionally, relocation was associated with child dysfunction such as the repetition of a grade and a range of behavioural problems. No relationship between learning disorders, growth or development and relocation could be established.

This study provides some additional insight into child relocation. However, its main focus was not relocation. The authors investigated a host of variables and thus only provided limited information about relocation. A more in-depth examination would have been preferred. Although the data from the survey was originally nationally representative, a number of subgroups were excluded from analysis. These included homeless children and those living on military bases. Also, the data is now approximately 20 years old and should be tested for its applicability within modern settings. However, the sample size is impressive and the research represents one of the only efforts to actually consult children themselves.

Summary

The evidence so far seems to indicate that children face many demands when they move from a familiar into an unfamiliar setting (Vernberg & Field, 1990). As a result child transients experience physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical relocation outcomes that tend to be negative. However, the positive impact of relocation on physical health has found few followers. Only negative effects have been documented in the literature. This finding may have surfaced due to several reasons: (A) A limited amount of research has been conducted with children, making the observation of effects less likely; (B) physical relocation outcomes are rarely the focus of research and even when they are

included are more difficult to observe and measure; and (C) research on the consequences of relocation tends to be more concerned with the negative than the positive outcomes.

Although the relocation consequences experienced by children fall into the same categories as the outcomes experience by adults, the nature of these consequences seems to differ qualitatively (e.g. children's relocation outcomes seem to centre on school rather than employment). In addition, children vary in their physiological and psychological response to stress, just like adults (Vernberg & Field, 1990). Many factors influence the relationship between relocation and outcome variables.

Mediating and moderating variables include: Coping, social support, physical appearance, skills, personality factors, parental adjustment, stressful life events, environmental factors, age and development, attitudinal factors, and moving experience. This very closely reflects the factors influencing the relationship between relocation and outcome variables in adults. What is especially interesting is that there is also some evidence indicating that children mirror their parents' reaction to relocation (Brett, 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980). Negative parental adjustment can impede a child's adjustment; especially for young children (Schaetti, 2002).

Section III : The Peripheral & Civilian Literature

Since the research on military family relocation is very limited, it is important to consult the peripheral literature (largely related to civilian transience) to inform research. Although some of findings from this body of literature may not translate into the military environment, it can give some indication of what findings may be expected. It may also help to contrast the samples at a later stage. The empirical literature on relocation is spread across many research domains (e.g. management, human resources, and medicine) and is rarely united. The aim of this section is to discuss findings on relocation from all of these different areas. The main outcomes of relocation that have been identified will be discussed. Also, some of the potential mediators and moderators will be outlined. In addition, a critique of the area will be offered: Strengths and weaknesses will be highlighted.

1 Findings

The civilian relocation literature is fairly well developed and has made many important empirical contributions. To date, a fair bit of information is known about the consequences of relocation (outcome variables) and the factors that influence relocation (mediating/moderating variables). These variables will be discussed in sequence.

1.1 Consequences of Relocation

Relocation research commonly assesses which variables are influenced as a result of relocation (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1980). In other words, researchers often ask what effects relocation has on individuals. Although the literature has favoured the study of negative outcome variables, positive consequences of relocation have also been investigated (Brett, 1992). In order to facilitate clarity and flow, the consequences of relocation have been grouped into the following categories: Physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical outcomes. This organisation represents a comprehensive categorisation of outcomes and in no way attempts to alter the results presented. The evidence supporting each type of outcome are reviewed below.

Physical Outcomes

The least amount of evidence in the literature exists for physical relocation outcomes. For example, Brett & Werbel (1980) found no effect on physical health. Brett (1980) also found no effect on spousal physical health. However, others have found a negative effect (Lee, 1990; Lu & Cooper, 1995). Examples of negative health effects include more spousal headaches (Brett, 1982) and greater risk of coronary heart disease (Syme, Hyman, & Enterline, 1964; cited in Lu & Cooper, 1995). Additionally, some evidence that relocation impedes children's development exists (Glueck, 1974). However, positive physical health effects have also been reported. These include reduced shortness of breath, less dizziness, fewer nightmares, and less weight loss in spouses (Brett, 1982).

Although there is some evidence for physiological effects of relocation, this evidence is very limited. This may be due to the fact that physical effects are more difficult to assess than other effects because of their objective nature and thus often go unmeasured. Another reason could be that physical outcomes are only indirectly caused by relocation as result of psychological, social, behavioural, or practical consequences. The physical effects may thus not be as strong, not manifest themselves until much later, or only develop in chronic movers.

Psychological Outcomes

Psychological effects were most commonly mentioned in the literature. Based on her review, Brett (1980) found that one-third of women found their last move difficult or very difficult. In addition, Glueck (1974) reported that two-thirds of those who relocated were unhappy with the way the organisation had planned the relocation and one-third were unconvinced that relocation was the best for themselves and the company. Indeed most managers seem to experience some symbolic or relational dissatisfaction / detriment (Flynn, 1996; Glueck, 1974).

Similarly, 20% of respondents felt that relocation was a negative experience (Glueck, 1974). This number seems relatively low and may be due to the fact that individuals evaluated the entire relocation experience. In other words, weighing benefits and costs may have resulted in that percentage. Had

the researcher asked individuals whether they experienced any difficulties with relocation, the number would likely have been much higher.

Indeed, relocation studies commonly report stress and other negative outcomes (Anderson & Spruill, 1993; Cornille, 1993; Feldman & Brett, 1983; Hill & Miller, 1981; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997). Forster (1990) observed that over fifty percent of recently relocated managers described their move as very stressful (Forster, 1990); a number significantly different from that suggested by Glueck (1974). This could have several explanations. First of all, Forster (1990) asked about one specific outcome variables, not the relocation experience as a whole. Secondly, societal and attitudinal changes will have occurred in the fifteen years between the research projects.

Forster (1990) concluded the relocation could lead to employees and their families experiencing significant levels of stress and strain. Stress could be a result of a number of factors such as location dissatisfaction (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997), job dissatisfaction (Stroh, 1999), increased life challenge (Lu & Cooper, 1995), and job challenge (Brett & Werbel, 1980).

Relocatees also report incomplete decision-making (Anderson & Spruill, 1993), living life in episodes (Justen-Horsten, 2004), reduced coping resources (Munton & Forster, 1990), a loss of control (Lu & Cooper, 1995; Feldman & Brett, 1983), general sense of loss (Munton & Forster, 1990; Feldman & Brett, 1983), lower levels of satisfaction (Orthner, 2002), adjustment problems (Glick, 1993; Orthner, 200; Pinder, 1977), psychological disorders (Pinder, 1977), lower self-esteem (Munton & Forster, 1990), identity disruption (Altman, 1991), identity difficulties (Munton & Forster, 1990), and feelings of being a 'chronic mover' (Bach & Smith, 1977).

Neighbourhood and friendship satisfaction are also negatively affected. Just less than half of the women surveyed were satisfied with their neighbours and one-third were very satisfied with their friendships (Brett, 1980). Nonetheless results surrounding well-being have been somewhat contradictory. While Forster (1990) and Martin (1995) report a negative effect, similar studies report no effect (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Moreover, no effect on satisfaction with quality of life (Brett, 1980) and role strain (Anderson & Spruill, 1993) have been found. It appears that the psychological response relationship is more complex than expected (Martin, 1995).

Psychological researchers have begun to focus on the positive aspects of change; this can be well illustrated with the establishment of positive psychology as a discipline. The increasing number of studies researching and reporting positive effects of mobility demonstrates that positive outcomes have also gained prominence in relocation in recent years. Studies have found evidence for positive effects on personal growth (Feldman & Brett, 1985; Lu & Cooper, 1995), development of a broader perspective (Feldman & Brett, 1985), low amount of motivating pressure (Feldman & Brett, 1983), self-esteem (Feldman & Brett, 1985), confidence (Brett & Werbel, 1980), and satisfaction (Bach &

Smith, 1977) - Specifically marital (Brett, 1982; Brett & Werbel, 1980; Feldman & Brett, 1985) and familial satisfaction (Brett, 1982; Brett & Werbel, 1980).

In addition, respondents reported more interesting lives, felt more capable, perceived greater opportunity, were intrinsically motivated, and more self-efficient (Brett, 1982). They also learnt new skills (Cornille, 1993) and felt both adequate and flexible (Glick, 1993).

Social Outcomes

Negative social consequences of relocation are perhaps not surprising, considering that support systems need to be rebuilt (Cetron et al., 1987; Forster, 1990). Here studies have found evidence of increased distance from family (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997), greater isolation of individual family members (Munton & Forster, 1990), living in 'cultural enclaves' (Glick, 1993), loss of community (Glueck, 1974), loss of social networks (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Forster, 1990; Justen-Horsten, 2004), and the costs of rebuilding relationships (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997).

Those recently relocated may also feel homesick (Forster, 1990), have reduced contact with friends and relatives (Munton & Forster, 1990; Forster, 1990), carry transitory friendships (Glueck, 1974), are indifferent to strangers (Glueck, 1974), have problems in establishing social (Munton & Forster, 1990) and work relationships (Forster, 1990), and tend to be less satisfied with all aspects of social relationships (Brett, 1982). This includes friendship (Brett & Werbel, 1980), neighbourhood relations (Feldman & Brett, 1985), general community satisfaction (Bach & Smith, 1977; Feldman & Brett, 1985), and satisfaction with non-work activities (Brett & Werbel, 1980).

To my knowledge, no positive social outcomes were listed in the literature. This may be due to the fact that (A) the focus of studies is seldom on social outcomes; or (B) negative effects are more prominent in respondents' minds and thus more likely to be observed and reported.

Behavioural Outcomes

Behavioural outcomes were reported fairly early on. For example, Seidenberg (1972) reported mobile wives' maladjustment problems, which exhibited themselves through alcohol and drug abuse (Pinder, 1977). Alcohol dependence (Brett, 1980; Lee, 1990) and drug dependence (Brett, 1980) have been mentioned repeatedly in the literature since. Few positive behavioural outcomes have been observed. Again, this could be because (A) negative outcomes are more salient to participants or because (B) participants have difficulty observing and expressing changes in their own behaviour.

Practical Outcomes

Relocation also has practical consequences. Increased restrictions (Bach & Smith 1977), economic hardship (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Cetron et al., 1987; Feldman & Brett, 1985; Flynn, 1996; Glick,

1993; Peterson, 2001; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Segal & Harris, 1993), increased cost of living (Brett, 1992; Cetron et al., 1987; Forster, 1990; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997), and problems with housing (Forster, 1990; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Segal & Harris, 1993) are among the outcomes cited.

Additionally, moving is associated with a great number of chores, most notably regaining access to medical facilities and schools (Altman, 1991; Flynn, 1995). Other tasks include but are not limited to: Obtaining documents, notifying new location of special requirements, moving pets, looking into private housing, seeking spousal employment, applying for removals, obtaining local information, pre-move visit, packers survey, cleaning, address confirmation, change of address, obtaining transit accommodation, arranging travel, researching and applying for entitlements, preparing for packers, packing essentials, clearing fridge/freezer, purchasing moving day refreshments, providing emergency contacts, checking the house, unpacking, and organising (SFTF, 2003).

Further, it is less likely that individuals who frequently relocate will attempt home ownership (Buddin, Gresenz, Hosek, Elliott, & Hawes-Dawson, 1999; Haurin & Gill, 2002) and more likely that they will live in temporary accommodation (Forster, 1990; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997), at least in the United States. Although mentioned in the literature, the effect of this on quality of life is currently unknown. Additionally, the generalisation of American findings to a U.K. sample is problematic because of cultural differences.

Moreover, moves lead to spousal career disruption (Feldman & Brett, 1985; Flynn, 1996; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Sagie et al., 2001; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Segal & Harris, 1993), which translate into changes to spousal income (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997), spousal job involvement (Brett, 1982), spousal job security (Brett, 1982), and career development in general (Cetron et al., 1987). With increases to the cost of living, spousal employment is becoming a major issue in today's society (Flynn, 1996).

Spouses of relocators are severely disadvantaged in employment opportunities because of their high level of mobility (Cetron et al., 1987; Segal & Harris, 1993). The loss of employment relates to financial and psychological detriment (Flynn, 1996) and as a response, commuter marriages are on the rise. However, this brings other difficulties with it. For instance, many individuals identify adapting to long distance commutes as a major challenge and generally view one hour as psychological barrier (Green, 1997).

Relocation may also negatively influence work performance (Flynn, 1995; Forster, 1990; Stroh, 1999), opportunities to use skills (Forster, 1990), work motivation (Flynn, 1996), turnover (Hill & Miller, 1981), and perceptions of job security (Forster, 1990; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997). This is likely due to the added pressure at work (Flynn, 1995), which may in turn lead to excessive workload (Altman,

1991; Feldman & Brett, 1985). In reality, managers often find it difficult to move on and thus tend to retain some of their former duties when they move (Feldman & Brett, 1985).

Perhaps more serious consequences include added pressure at home (Flynn, 1995), disturbance / disruption (Altman, 1991; Feldman & Brett, 1983; Green, 1997; Lu & Cooper, 1995), reduced quality of family life (Forster, 1990), increased family separation (Forster, 1990; Litwak, 1960; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Segal & Harris, 1993), impeded family functioning (Flynn, 1995; Justen-Horsten, 2004; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Segal & Harris, 1993) and conflict (Lu & Cooper, 1995; Markham et al., 1983), family cycle disruption (Glick, 1993), marital dysfunction (Justen-Horsten, 2004), and finally family dissolution (Glick, 1993; Glueck, 1974; Munton & Forster, 1990). Cetron et al. (1987) even describe transfers as: "Perhaps the greatest disruption to a family's routine (p. 2)."

Also, some positive practical outcomes of relocation are thought to exist. There is some evidence that movement desire is learned and develops through relocation (Veiga, 1983). Although managers are initially neutral about transfers they find them valuable for themselves and for the company after relocation (Glueck, 1974). Spouses report higher degrees of authority (Brett, 1982) and better schooling for their children (Brett & Werbel, 1980). In addition, increased experience (Feldman & Brett, 1985), responsibility (Feldman & Brett, 1985), skill development (Feldman & Brett, 1985), closer family ties (Munton & Forster, 1990), better marriages (Munton & Forster, 1990), greater income (Sell, 1983), and overall financial gain (Feldman & Brett, 1985) were reported. A summary and note of the nature of these effects follows.

Summary

It is possible to categorise all of the findings from the literature into five categories: Physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical. This supports the validity of the suggested taxonomy utilised in this dissertation. However, it is observed that the existence of some categories is better support than that of others. For instance, psychological effects of relocation have been noted much more frequently than social or physical effects. Possible explanations were offered in the text.

In addition, the results reported in the literature tend to be short-lived: The long-term effects of relocation are largely unknown. Indeed there are some researchers who deny their existence entirely (e.g. Cornille, 1993). Despite the denial of long-term effects, there are some who argue that relocation produce 'chronic movers' who move without decision-involvement and consequently cannot achieve community satisfaction (Bach & Smith, 1977). However, no real evidence of such phenomena exists.

1.2 Mediating & Moderating Factors

Many factors unquestionably influence relocation. Numerous studies from the body of relocation literature have explored possible mediator/moderator relationships. In order to facilitate the summarising nature of this section, these variables have been assigned to the following categories: Move variables

CHAPTER 2. RELOCATION LITERATURE REVIEW

(nature of the move, environmental variables, moving history); personal characteristics (demographics & personality); employment factors (work characteristics & work attitudes); attitudinal factors; family variables; coping; support; and additional stressors. All of these studies may be reviewed in table format in the appendices section (Appendix A).

Move Variables

Research has aimed to investigate whether or not variables related to relocation may actually also impact upon it. The most commonly studied factors include the nature of the move, environmental variables, and moving history. A review of each one of these follows.

Nature of the Move   It has been found that relocation stress is negatively related to family adaptation (Segal & Harris, 1993). Where an inability to retreat from relocation stressors exists, adjustment is poorly affected (Brett et al., 1992). Financial cost also influenced both actual relocation and relocation satisfaction negatively (Bach & Smith, 1977). Eustress, a form of mild positive pressure, increased motivation (Feldman & Brett, 1983). Promotion through transfer had no relationship with transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977) but was related to positive post-move attitude (Fisher & Shaw, 1994) and spousal satisfaction (Brett, 1982), and both increased willingness to move (Stroh, 1999) and actual transfer acceptance (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Similarly, increased pay positively influenced transfer acceptance (Brett & Werbel, 1980) but showed no influence on transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977).

Negative change in financial status was positively related to stress (Wickham, 1983). Appeal of the new job increased willingness to move (Feldman & Brett, 1985) but marketability decreased rate of moving (Veiga, 1983). Also, job opportunities increased transfer likelihood (Brett & Werbel, 1980). The notice given by the company before transfer was not related to transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977), negatively influenced adjustment (Feldman & Brett, 1985), and was associated with transfer smoothness (Mason, 1996) and positive family adaptation (Bowen, 1989). Those who view relocation as part of their personal development are unlikely to withdraw their names from transfer opportunities (Brett, 1992).

According to West et al. (1987), newly created jobs are negatively related to adjustment sources, informational support, and predictability. They are positively related to material job rewards, job discretion, promotion opportunities, work challenge, accomplishment, innovation, and motivation for personal growth (West et al., 1987). Individuals simply changing job rather than being newly hired need less support and help but are more likely to try and control/change their job situation (Feldman & Brett, 1983).

Intra-organisational moves are positively related to organisation size and rule orientation but negatively related to pre-transfer anxiety, personal change, self-concept, novelty, moving likeliness, and the

ability to predict employer changes (West et al., 1987). Objective change in rank was unrelated to time to proficiency in work performance, while objective change in function increased the time (Pinder & Schroeder, 1987).

Whether the transfer had been requested did not influence transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977). However, anticipated transfers were often smoother transfer (Bach & Smith, 1977; Brett & Werbel, 1980). However, anticipation of transfer alone, did not lead to relocation satisfaction (Bach & Smith, 1977). Decision-making discretion was much more important. It was positively related to spousal satisfaction (Brett, 1982) and smooth spousal transfer (Brett & Werbel, 1980). The degree of choice/control increased adjustment (Lee, 1990; Moyle & Parkes, 1999), post-move attitudes & behaviour (Bolan, 1997), housing satisfaction (Bolan, 1997), benefits (Sell, 1983) and family adaptation (Bolan, 1997). It was found to ameliorate difficulties (Glueck, 1974) and negative outcomes (Sell, 1983). Involvement in relocation decision increased spousal adjustment (Brett & Werbel, 1980); and tied movers experienced greater sacrifices and were upset about these (Green, 1997).

Whether a move was convenient was only related to relocation success in certain cases (Lee, 1990). However, whilst smoothness of the move was not related transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977), it increased employee (Stroh, 1999) and spousal willingness to move (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Disruption strength and length decreased adjustment (Brett, 1992) and influenced neighbourhood attachment (Bolan, 1997). The personal change that was experienced resulted from job novelty, pre-transfer anxiety, perceived employer change, job discretion, and external locus of control. Self-concept adjustment, predictability, and post-transfer satisfaction had a negative effect (West et al., 1987).

Those who establish new routines quickly and easily experienced a relatively stress free (Forster, 1990) and smooth spousal transfer (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Job success within a month was also conducive to a smooth transfer (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Individuals found adjustment more difficult after an international move (Fisher & Shaw, 1994). This was likely to due cultural factors (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Stroh, 1999), which are known to decrease adjustment (Brett et al., 1992). Similarly, a large difference in the organisational culture can influence adjustment negatively (Feldman & Brett, 1985).

Both formal and informal organisational relocation support positively influenced adjustment (Feldman & Brett, 1985). Specifically, support from supervisors and training increased adjustment and decreased stress (Forster, 1990). Logistical support such as information and communication were positively related to adjustment (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992) and having a smooth transfer (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Mason, 1996). Employment assistance programmes decreased the amount of personal and family stress that was experienced and improved employee attitudes toward the organisation (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997). The importance of good transfer policies cannot be underestimated, since these lead to the acceptance of transfers (Brett & Werbel, 1980).

Environmental Factors   External environmental influences influence willingness to move (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997) and relocation success (Bodenhoefer, 1967; Lee, 1990). Distance travelled is not conducive to future neighbourhood attachment (Bolan, 1997). The greater the differences between locations, the lower the adjustment (Brett, 1992; Lee, 1990), transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977), location satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983), willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992) and transfer smoothness (Brett & Werbel, 1980). The direction of change also influences relocation success (Lee, 1990).

Preference for new location over old location increases transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977). Similarly confidence in new community improves spousal adjustment (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Unsurprisingly a negative attitude toward a location makes individuals more unwillingness to move (Stroh, 1999). Pre-move community satisfaction reduces the likelihood of relocation (Bach & Smith, 1977; Gould & Penley, 1985). Pre-move community satisfaction negatively influences pre-move attitude (Fisher & Shaw, 1994). Post-move satisfaction reduces pre-move anxiety but increased discretion, predictability, and work-life fit (West et al., 1987). Satisfaction with current location reduced the rate of transfer acceptance (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Rives & West, 1993) and the degree of attachment to one's past home also predicts relocation success (Lee, 1990).

Organisational factors further influence relocation stress (Lu & Cooper, 1995). Job similarity increases adjustment speed (Brett, 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980), time to proficiency (Pinder & Schroeder, 1987), and transfer acceptance (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Functional change reduces adjustment (Brett, 1992). Subjective change in job difficulty increases time to proficiency in work performance (Pinder & Schroeder, 1987). Change of work task, change in responsibility, change in work hours, change in work conditions, and trouble with supervisor were all positively associated with stress (Wickham, 1983).

Positive changes in standard of living improve transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977), while reducing both spousal adjustment (Brett & Werbel, 1980) and stress (Forster, 1990). If the new location is central, relocation is more likely (Green, 1997). Prior familiarity with the location also positively affected post-transfer satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983) and post-move attitudes and behaviours (Bolan, 1997). Community perceptions (Veiga, 1983) and tenure reduces willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992; Markham et al., 1983; Munton & Forster, 1990), which is unrelated to relocation decision (Rives & West, 1993).

Other more objective environmental factors have also been assessed. Air quality does not influence location satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983) but accessibility to employment opportunities at the new location increases the chance of relocation (Green, 1997). Civic participation opportunities improve spousal location satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983), while climate, crime, cultural opportunities, missing persons, growth rates and health care are unrelated to location satisfaction

(Carruthers & Pinder, 1983). Motorlinks and rail networks at the new location made relocation more likely (Green, 1997), and education improved spousal location satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983).

Ethnic diversity increases spousal location satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983), while crowding was related to willingness to move & actual mobility (Bach & Smith, 1977). Housing can also affect willingness to move (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997). Cost of housing improved location satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983) and quality of new home / neighbourhood improved relocation success (Lee, 1990). Social relationships also influence relocation success (Lee, 1990), willingness to move (Bach & Smith, 1977) and actual mobility (Bach & Smith, 1977). However, this finding has been challenged by Brett & Werbel (1980), who produced contradictory results for actual mobility.

Distance from family reduces family contact (Litwak, 1960), parks increases spousal location satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983), and a semi-rural new location increases the chance of relocation (Green, 1997). Police efficiency and vacancy rate are not related to location satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983), while population turnover improves it (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983).

Moving History   Moving History influences a number of factors important in relocation, including neighbourhood attachment (Bolan, 1997). Problems with the last move increase negativity about future moves (Brett, 1980), and reduce pre-move attitudes and willingness to move (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Adaptation to past moves is positively associated with willingness to move (Stroh, 1999). Rate of previous transfers is associated with transfer satisfaction but amount of time elapsed has no such effect (Pinder, 1977).

Total number of transfers, inside and outside of the company are unrelated to transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977) but positively related to adjustment for domestic movers (Fisher & Shaw, 1994) and relocation as a positive experience (Glueck, 1974). In addition, the number of prior moves does not determine willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992; Brett et al., 1993). While prior moving is negatively related to time in an area (Martin, 1995), post-move well-being (Martin, 1995), and feeling closeness / belonging within a larger group (Fedor, 2003); it neither affects the actual relocation decision (Stroh, 1999) nor the ability to develop and maintain dyadic relationships (Fedor, 2003).

Frequency of transfers is unrelated to time to proficiency (Pinder & Schroeder, 1987), positively related to pre-transfer anxiety and personal change (West et al., 1987). It is negatively related to adjustment (Feldman & Brett, 1985), career satisfaction (West et al., 1987), and supervisor feedback (West et al., 1987). Inexperienced and frequent movers experienced more difficulties (Martin, 1995). Length of stay increased chance of home ownership (Haurin & Gill, 2002), feelings of anxiety, work-related depression, and work related anxiety (Martin, 1995); it reduced relocation stress (Martin, 1995).

The expected length of stay also make home ownership more likely (Haurin & Gill, 2002), whilst transaction costs reduce home ownership (Haurin & Gill, 2002). A feeling of transience, which may turn into anomie especially if moves are frequent, was negatively related to adjustment (Brett et al., 1992). The rejection of job transfer has no relationship to future willingness to relocate (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Finally, the time in first position reduces rate of moving (Veiga, 1983).

Personal Characteristics

Personal characteristics such as demographics and personality have also received a fair bit of attention in the literature. Indeed, personal characteristics have been linked to psychological distress after relocation (Moyle & Parkes, 1999). As can be seen from the segment below, both demographics and personality appear to influence how relocation is experienced by individuals.

Demographics   Several personal factors have been linked to relocation stress (Lu & Cooper, 1995), willingness to move (Munton & Forster, 1990), and relocation success (Lee, 1990). Gender is one of the most frequently researched demographic variables. Although several studies have shown that being male increases the willingness to move (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992; Markham et al., 1983), some demonstrate no effect (Brett et al., 1993; Stroh, 1999). Males are also more likely to withdraw from transfers, perhaps because they are given more transfer opportunities (Brett, 1992). Men are also less susceptible to family factor (Stroh, 1999), experience less family conflict, and are generally more likely to actually relocate (Markham et al., 1983). However, no relationship between gender and social intimacy (Bonjean & Corder, 1983) or loneliness (Fedor, 2003) could be found.

The stage of life someone is at, influences job changing decisions (Hill & Miller, 1981) and may reduce willingness to move (Veiga, 1983). Undeniably, age is one factor that is often found to reduce willingness to move (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992; Brett et al., 1993; Brett & Werbel, 1980; Gould & Penley, 1985; Sagie et al., 2001). However, at times no effect could be found (Stroh, 1999) and two studies even demonstrate a negative effect on actual mobility (Justen-Horsten, 2004; Glick, 1993). Another consideration is whether children are present in a household or not (Eby & Allen, 1998). One study found that those with children rate certain support services (i.e. real-estate assistance, dependent care assistance, educational information) as more important than those without children (Eby & Allen, 1998).

Race is another factor often incorporated. Although non-Caucasians have been found to be less willing to move (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992), several studies have been unable to replicate this effect (Brett et al., 1993; Glick, 1993). Intelligence has also been implicated for its role on relocation success (Lee, 1990). This effect is likely to be indirect: Education was found to be positively related to willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992; Markham et al., 1983) and voluntary moving (Glick, 1993) in several studies. However, it was also found to be unrelated to willingness to move in some research projects (Brett et al., 1993; Stroh, 1999).

Related variables such as skills also increase the likelihood of voluntary moving (Glick, 1993). Economic position positively influences post-transfer satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983). Home ownership increases the negative outcomes of relocation; it was positively associated with stress (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997) and negatively with willingness to move (Bach & Smith, 1977; Markham et al., 1983). Transitional objects also played a role on relocation success (Lee, 1990).

Factors such as cultural flexibility, communication skills, having a stability zone, ambiguity tolerance and attributional flexibility were positively related to adjustment (Brett et al., 1992; Brett, 1992). Ethnocentrism was found to be negatively related to adjustment (Brett et al., 1992) or demonstrated no effect (Brett, 1992). Being conflict-prone reduced adjustment (Brett et al., 1992; Brett, 1992).

Personality Factors Another category of factors often discussed in relocation research is personality (Lu & Cooper, 1995). Type A personality has been linked to increased stress (Lu & Cooper, 1995); degree of extraversion has not been linked to transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977); and sociability and exploratory tendencies, characteristic of openness to experience, are related to relocation success (Lee, 1990). Having an external locus of control increases stress (Lu & Cooper, 1995) but hardiness decreases stress (Lu & Cooper, 1995). Confidence increases adjustment (Brett et al., 1992), while self-esteem increases personal change and decreases role innovation (Munton & West, 1995).

Employment Factors

More often than not, transience is driven by an individual's employment. It is thus perhaps not surprising that employment factors such as work characteristics and work attitudes have been examined in connection with their influence over relocation outcomes. The subsequent section offers a review of these factors and their impact.

Work characteristics Another influential category of variables is work factors. Different factors carry different effects. For instance, work characteristics influence adjustment strategy (Munton & West, 1995). Work demands specifically, were also associated with psychological distress (Moyle & Parkes, 1999). Despite the mounting evidence some researchers continue to claim that career factors have no influence on willingness to move and related factors (Stroh, 1999). A discussion of some of the findings from the field of relocation follows.

It has been found that career options increase rate of moving (Veiga, 1983), while the job involvement of the employee was unrelated to transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977). Lateral job changes decreased willingness to move (Brett & Werbel, 1980) and annual promotions (Brett & Werbel, 1980) increase willingness to move. Organisational tenure has produced contradictory results, in some cases demonstrating a positive effect on willingness to move (Munton & Forster, 1990; Rives & West, 1993) and in some cases illustrating no effect (Brett et al., 1992; Brett et al., 1993; Stroh, 1999). Further, Brett & Werbel (1980) found organisational tenure to be negatively related to relocation decisions.

Job tenure is also an interesting variable, sometimes illustrating a negative effect on willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992) and sometimes demonstrating a positive effect (Gould & Penley, 1985). Rank and status are generally thought to increase willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992; Markham et al., 1983) but some studies fail to generate this effect (Brett et al., 1993). Job tenure also decreases transfer withdrawal (Brett, 1992), while increasing the opportunity of relocation being a positive experience (Glueck, 1974). Level of visibility increases moving rate (Veiga, 1983) and functional areas of employment also influence willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980).

Income is another commonly studied variable. It has been linked to increased (Gould & Penley, 1985; Bielby & Bielby, 1992) and decreased (Brett et al., 1993) willingness to move. At other times it has failed to demonstrate any effect (Brett et al., 1992). Income has also been linked to spousal post-move satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983), relocation & relocation satisfaction (Bach & Smith, 1977), and transfer withdrawal (Brett, 1992). Further, negative effects on actual moving (Stroh, 1999) have been reported.

Finally, long working hours have been linked to increased levels of stress (Forster, 1990). High degree of role overload and possessing few technical skills reduces adjustment (Brett et al., 1992), while possessing the necessary skills leads to positive adjustment and smooth transfers (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Fear of stagnation (Veiga, 1983), career impatience (Veiga, 1983), and high ambitions (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1993) have also been linked to increased willingness to move. Competence (Brett, 1992) and prior contact with the new supervisor are conducive to adjustment (Brett & Werbel, 1980).

Work Attitudes   Career attitudes and expectations positively influence willingness to move (Brett et al., 1993), while low motivation toward career advancement reduced willingness to move (Stroh, 1999). Similarly, beliefs that transfers are related to career development and opportunity for personal growth are positively related to willingness and spousal willingness to move (Brett & Werbel, 1980).

Overall satisfaction with company's transfer policy was found to have no relationship with transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977), whereas company identification demonstrated a negative relationship with willingness to move (Brett & Werbel, 1980). However, no relationship with willingness to move was found in a repeat study (Brett et al., 1992). Organisational commitment was found to have no relationship with transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977) or willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992). Loyalty also showed no correlation with willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992; Brett et al., 1993).

Job involvement was either not related to willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992) or negatively related willingness to move (Brett et al., 1993; Brett & Reilly, 1988). Job satisfaction was unrelated willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992) but negatively influenced transfer withdrawal (Brett, 1992) and increased rate of moving (Veiga, 1983). Job benefits reduced willingness to move (Veiga, 1983). Pre-move job satisfaction negatively affected pre-move attitudes (Fisher & Shaw, 1994) and transfer

acceptance (Bretter & Werbel, 1980).

Stability was negatively correlated with willingness to move (Veiga, 1983), whereas perceived job security reduced both willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992) and rate of moving (Veiga, 1983). Concern about job security also reduced willingness to move (Veiga, 1983). Labour force continuity, on the other hand, increased willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992). Distance from career goal had the opposite effect on willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992) and slowed down actual moving (Stroh, 1999), while opportunities for career develop again increased willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980).

Job/career commitment has found to be positively related to willingness to move by Brett et al. (1992) but unrelated by Stroh (1999). Career stage and importance of success reduce willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992), while the belief to be qualified for promotion improves willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992). The length of time someone wants to do job is positively related to willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992; Sagie et al., 2001). Equally, believing in career (Brett et al., 1993) and organisational (Brett, 1992) future is positively related to willingness to move. Believing in a bright organisational future also reduces chances of actual transfer withdrawal.

Fear of career consequences if a transfer is not accepted increases willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992). Also, seeing moving as a prerequisite of success increased willingness to move (Brett, 1992). Expected job satisfaction is positively related to pre-move attitudes but unrelated to post-move attitudes (Fisher & Shaw, 1994). Actual job satisfaction is related to positive post-move attitude (Fisher & Shaw, 1994); and achievement satisfaction also increases the rate of moving (Veiga, 1983).

Attitudes

Studies on relocation have repeatedly highlighted the importance of attitudinal variables. For example, traditional male gender roles in employees are associated with unilateral decision-making (Gill & Haurin, 1998), a reduced impact of economic consequences (Gill & Haurin, 1998), and lower influence of spousal career change (Gill & Haurin, 1998; Stroh, 1999). The belief that spouses should be willing to move (employee & spouse) is positively associated with willingness to move for both employee and spouse (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Female spouses with a traditional gender role demonstrated lower willingness to move than untraditional females and much lower willingness to move than males (Markham et al., 1983).

Further, willingness to move was positively associated with actual moving decisions (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Brett & Reilly, 1988; Markham et al., 1983; Stroh, 1999). Attitudes toward moving were positively related to willingness to move nationally (Brett & Reilly, 1988; Brett et al., 1993) and internationally (Brett, 1992) but have been found to be unrelated to relocation success (Lee, 1990). Pre-move attitudes were positively related to post-move attitudes (Fisher & Shaw, 1994).

In addition, the belief that moving does not damage marital relations in employee and spouse is positively associated with both employee and spousal willingness to move (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Believing that moving brings new challenges is positively associated with willingness to move and spousal willingness to move (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Viewing relocation as damaging for their children may lead to withdrawal from transfer opportunities (Brett, 1992), while confidence about child adjustment leads to smooth spousal transfer (Brett & Werbel, 1980).

Low motivation to adjust and reduce uncertainty translates into reduced adjustment (Brett et al., 1992). Realistic expectations lead to pre-move satisfaction (Fisher & Shaw, 1994) and adjustment (Feldman & Brett, 1985) but are negatively related to stress (Feldman & Brett, 1985). Also, realistic job expectations increase adjustment and decreased the need for sense-making (Feldman & Brett, 1983). Expectations in general were related to relocation success (Lee, 1990). Expected community satisfaction positively influenced pre-move attitudes but had no effect on post-move attitudes (Fisher & Shaw, 1994). Satisfaction with housing increased family adaptation (Bowen, 1989); and actual community satisfaction positively influenced post-move attitudes (Fisher & Shaw, 1994), and reduced moving difficulties (Bach & Smith, 1977).

Family Factors

Family factors are of great concern to employees. This is perhaps not surprising since family variables demonstrate a real effect on subjective and objective personal outcome variables. In addition, the research indicates that families have the potential to affect organisational outcome variables.

General family factors have been found to decrease willingness to move (Stroh, 1999), and increase both relocation stress (Lu & Cooper, 1995), and relocation difficulty (Glueck, 1974). Marital status reduces willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992; Markham et al., 1983) or has no effect (Brett et al., 1993; Stroh, 1999). It increases stress (Forster, 1990), transfer withdrawal (Brett, 1992), family conflict (Markham et al., 1983), and negatively influences relocation for women (Glick, 1993). Spousal gender is unrelated to spousal willingness to move (Brett, 1992), while spousal age is negatively related (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992).

Spousal marital satisfaction increases spousal willingness to move (Brett, 1992) and employee willingness to move (Brett et al., 1992). However, living with a spouse can influence relocation success (Lee, 1990). Non-traditional family groups such as single parents increase the likelihood of negative outcomes (Lu & Cooper, 1995); and female-headed households are less likely to relocate (Sell, 1983). The family's position in developmental lifecycle is sometimes negatively associated with willingness to move (Munton & Forster, 1990) but sometimes illustrates no effect (Gould & Penley, 1985). Additional responsibilities, such as those for elderly family members further reduce willingness to move (Stroh, 1999).

Close identification with family doesn't appear to influence relocation (Litwak, 1960); however psychological closeness positively influences willingness to move (Litwak, 1960). Family size is negatively related to willingness to move in employees (Brett, 1992; Brett & Reilly, 1988; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997) and spouses (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992). It affects the decision to relocate negatively (Rives & West, 1993), while being positively linked to post-move relocation stress (Martin, 1995).

Age of children was negatively related to willingness to move (Munton & Forster, 1990); it was also positively related to adjustment problems (Feldman & Brett, 1985). Having children at home was not related to willingness to move by Brett et al. (1993) and Stroh (1999); negatively by Brett & Reilly (1988); and also negatively related to spousal willingness (Brett et al., 1992). Spousal adjustment increased transfer satisfaction (Pinder, 1977) and worker adjustment (Flynn, 1996).

Spousal employment also demonstrated contradictory effects. Some studies found it to be negatively related to willingness to move (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992; Brett et al., 1993, Veiga, 1983), while others found a positive effect (Gould & Penley, 1985). Employment in some cases had no effect on spousal willingness (Munton & Forster, 1990; Stroh, 1999); in others it demonstrates a negative effect (Brett & Werbel, 1980). In addition, spousal employment decreased the likelihood of transfer acceptance (Brett & Werbel, 1980); increased post-transfer satisfaction (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983; Munton & Forster, 1990); increased negative outcomes (Forster, 1990); and increased stress (Rives & West, 1993). However, in other studies it demonstrates no effect on the actual relocation decision (e.g. Brett, 1992).

Job change or loss increases uncertainty, disruption, threat (Feldman & Brett, 1983), financial and psychological detriment (Flynn, 1996), and stress (Wickham, 1983). Career orientation did not influence spousal willingness (Brett, 1992) but job/career involvement reduced both employee (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Feldman & Brett, 1985; Gould & Penley, 1985) and spousal (Brett & Werbel, 1980) willingness to move.

Another factor that has been examined in recent years is dual-earner and dual-career status. Dual-career couples experience more separation, a traditional division of labour, and commuter marriages (Anderson & Spruill, 1993; Green, 1997). In addition, they tend to have a greater income, possess a home, drive to work by car, own two or more cars, and are in full time employment (Green, 1997). Spousal reluctance to leave a job increases likelihood to turn down transfer (Cetron et al., 1987); and employment value and status also decrease willingness to move (Feldman & Brett, 1985).

High spousal earnings reduce willingness to move (Bielby & Bielby, 1992) and actual relocation decision (Rives & West, 1993). The greater the proportion of the family income that spousal wage represents, the less willing individuals are to move (Feldman & Brett, 1985) and the less likely they will be to decide to relocate in favour of the employee's job (Rives & West, 1993). Primary providers, who are

generally male, are more likely to be willing to move (Markham et al., 1983).

Length of continuous spousal employment also reduces the chances of relocation (Rives & West, 1993). Availability of new employment in turn, improves spousal willingness (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Spousal training reduces willingness to move (Bielby & Bielby, 1992), likely because they will have a more professional job. Spousal attitude and willingness to move are linked (Munton & Forster, 1990). Spousal willingness to move increases employee willingness to move (Brett et al., 1993; Flynn, 1996) and transfer acceptance (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Children's reluctance is negatively related to transfer acceptance (Brett & Werbel, 1980).

Family (Sagie et al., 2001) and spousal support (Brett, 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980) improve willingness to move. Additionally, perceived family stress negatively affects work performance, work satisfaction, work mood, and absenteeism (Munton & Forster, 1990). Family conflict reduces willingness to move (Markham et al., 1983) but breaks in face-to-face contact with family do not influence family identification (Litwak, 1960).

Coping

Another important factor in relocation is coping. Coping has been linked to positive individual and familial adjustment (Cornille, 1993). Here coping style is especially important since it, influences relocation success (Lee, 1990). One such coping strategy is preparation. The degree of preparation improves relocation success and adjustment (Lee, 1990; Martin, 1999), and also positively influences mental health, job-related contentment, and enthusiasm (Martin, 1999). Another form of coping, vigorous/combative coping is also positively related to adjustment (Lee, 1990). Coping in the form of long working hours, attempting to change work procedures, and redefining the job reduced work adjustment (Feldman & Brett, 1983).

Innovative coping also enhanced adjustment (Munton & West, 1995). Other coping methods with varying degrees of success include emotional distortion, stimuli blocking, palliation, seeking out information, cognitive appraisal, the delegation of responsibility, getting others to provide task help, and seeking out social support (Feldman & Brett, 1983). In addition, individuals may engage in maintenance behaviours such as e-mail, reciprocity, annual Christmas cards, and rekindling of old friendships (Finchum, 2003).

Social Support

Social support is important in the relocation process. At times it produces positive effects and at times it produces negative effects. For instance, social factors have been linked to stress (Lu & Cooper, 1995) and an increased effect of relocation (Cornille, 1993). However, social support has also been linked to reduced stress (Forster, 1990), while support from interpersonal relationship has been positively

linked to adjustment (Brett, 1992) and negatively to distress (Lu & Cooper, 1995). Friends at the new location improve pre-move attitudes and initial adjustment (Fisher & Shaw, 1994). Perceived support at new location reduces time to proficiency in work performance (Pinder & Schroeder, 1987).

Community support positively influences family adaptation (Bowen, 1989), while community ties (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992; Veiga, 1983) and community involvement reduce willingness to move (Stroh, 1999). Finding friends within three months translates into a smooth spousal transfer (Brett & Werbel, 1980); and personal, supervisory, and organisational support reduces stress (Lu & Cooper, 1995). A positive and supportive organisational culture has the potential to reduce stress as well (Lu & Cooper, 1995).

Additional Stressors

Additional stressors such as finding housing leads to distress (Forster, 1990) and reduced spousal adjustment (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Living in temporary accommodation also increases stress (Forster, 1990) and negatively affects adjustment (Brett, 1992). Similarly, family separation is stressful (Forster, 1990; Wickham, 1983) but unrelated to family orientation (Litwak, 1960). Finally, illness reduces relocation success (Lee, 1990) and transfer acceptance (Brett & Werbel, 1980).

Summary

Move variables, personal characteristics, employment factors, attitudinal factors, family variables, coping, support, and additional stressors have all been shown to affect relocation. However, one must be cautious when interpreting findings since the effect of each variable's influence varies from study to study. Please review the critique below for more insight into why this may be.

2   Critique: Problems in Relocation Research

The literature on relocation can be criticised on various grounds. Concerns about the spread of the research, improper citations, lack of sophistication, variables of study, appropriateness of sample, measurement and design issues, result consistency, conceptual issues, and outdated research have been voiced.

Several authors have raised concerns about the spread and breath of relocation research. This is due to the fact that studies on relocation have been conducted in many different fields. Studies are scattered across various literature bodies including but not limited to management, medical, military, family, and counselling research (Brett, 1980). In addition, cross-disciplinary collaborations have been rare and researchers remain largely unaware of advances made in other disciplines (Brett, 1980). Currently no one theoretical framework exists that combines them all in one comprehensive manageable model (Lu & Cooper, 1995). Lu & Cooper (1995) cite the reviews by Brett (1980) and Munton & Forster (1990) as notable exceptions and praise their attempts to combine the different literatures.

In addition, some authors have been careless in providing citations. For example, Altman (1991) refers to a recent study failing to find any adverse consequences of frequent relocation on military families but unfortunately provides no reference for his readers.

Relocation research has also been challenged on the basis of its lack of sophistication. Markham et al. (1983) criticise the literature stating that it is not developed enough to allow for the creation of a complete causal relocation model. As a matter of fact many authors are surprised at the modest amount of research that has been done on this topic and express the need for more research in the area (Feldman & Brett, 1983; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Stroh, 1999). Often, researchers elect to study monotonic relationships (Martin, 1995), which makes model development more difficult. Munton & Forster (1990) believe that systems approach, family stress theory, and a family-oriented multi-dimensional approach could usefully guide research in the future (Munton & Forster, 1990).

A vast number of factors have been examined in relation to relocation. However, mostly due to practical considerations, the number of variables tested together tends to be relatively small. This has further challenged the development of a complete relocation model. For instance, Brett & Werbel (1980) state that relocation could have implications for the quality of life that individuals' experience but fail to assess this variable (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Similarly, Forster (1990) only assessed financial and logistical aspects of support and neglected to measure more social-psychological-emotional types of support. In fact, some literature branches ignore psychological relocation factors altogether (Bodenhoefer, 1967).

Researchers have lobbied for the inclusion of a number of factors in relocation studies and models. The career cycle (Levinson, Darrow, Klein, Levinson, & McKlee, 1978; Schein, 1978; Veiga, 1983) and lifecycle (Hill & Miller, 1981) are two such factors. Evidence that lifecycle position influences job changing decisions exists (Hill & Miller, 1981). It influences how major decisions are made (Hill & Miller, 1981) and is thus likely to influence relocation behaviour and outcomes. In addition, the lack of research on coping (Feldman & Brett, 1983) and the exclusion of a number of potentially important work and non-work factors, including family factors (Munton & Forster 1990) have been challenged by researchers.

The samples employed in transience research have been diverse and largely unjustified. The field of relocation research is dominated by American samples (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997) and without a doubt male white-collar workers, usually managers, constitute the most commonly employed sample (e.g. Gould & Penley, 1985; Forster, 1990; Rives & West, 1993). However, recent years have seen an explosion of research with vastly different groups. Some samples consists of movers who had little or no experience of moving as a child (Green, 1997), individuals moving in groups (Rives & West, 1993), partially military samples (Sell, 1983), and children (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Despite the fact that studies with diverse samples add to the existing knowledge and expand our picture of relocation,

opponents might argue that the degree of diversity makes these groups unique and incomparable (Brett & Reilly, 1988; Martin, 1995).

Take for instance the study by Rives & West (1993), which was conducted on individual who had faced a group move. The move was under investigation was brought about by exceptional circumstances, plant closure, in a location in which few alternative and suitable employment opportunities existed. In addition, only one organisation was studied. Therefore, it is conceivable that the situation may be unique and findings cannot be generalised to other samples.

Also, in spite of the increase of research on different groups of samples, some subgroups have largely been excluded. For example, children are often ignored in the study of family adjustment to mobility stress (Stroh, 1999). Most researchers focus on the employee and possibly their spouse but very rarely study the entire family as a system (Stroh, 1999). Thus to date many questions have been left unanswered.

In addition, low response rate has plagued research. The study by Hill & Miller (1981) only achieved a response rate of 15%, challenging the representativeness of the sample. West et al. (1987) acknowledge that even a response rate of 40% could have affected representativeness. Further, most studies use relatively small sample size (Martin, 1995) and suffer from range restriction (Brett, 1992).

Another issue of contention is research design and measurement. There are a lot of questions about the role of extraneous variables and causality in transience studies (Lee, 1990). This is perhaps not surprising since, aside from a few notable exceptions (e.g. Martin, 1995), British longitudinal studies are a rarely. Studies tend to be cross-sectional, offering correlation rather than causation (Martin, 1995; Munton & Forster, 1990). Studies also frequently employ dubious one-item measures (Martin, 1995).

There is also dispute about when measurement is best taken. Generally, it is expected that individuals will be able to accurately recall relocation even if considerable time has passed (Smith & Thomas, 2003). Because of this assumption, as well as the viability of other methods, retrospective tools are often used in relocation research. The validity of this retrospective approach has attracted relatively little attention despite the fact that several similar moves may merge in one's memory and not be recalled easily or accurately (Smith & Thomas, 2003). Brett (1992) condones the use of retrospective tools and warns that measures taken at the time of move are without value, since uncertainty is extremely high and response consistency tends to be low. While some individuals support this notion, others challenge its validity (Martin, 1995).

The subjectivity of stress measurement has also attracted critics. Some claim that findings are also confounded by the fact that individuals may deny that they are experiencing stress and responses

thus exhibit a social desirability effect (Lee, 1990).

An additional challenge is the result consistency that investigations have produced. Some factors have failed to produce consistent significant results and researchers should continue to test these variables (Brett, 1992). Indeed, the field of relocation research is plagued by contradictory and mismatched findings (Rives & West, 1993). Some of these perceived contradictions could be explained by conceptual / definitional problems. Constructs by the same name have been defined in many different ways. This has brought about different measurement methods which have undoubtedly influenced results. One common conceptual concern is the definition of stress. It has been defined in an infinite number of ways, ranging from psychological response to external force. This lack of conceptual definitions has made it difficult to make important distinctions such as the difference between normal and excessive demand in relocation stress research (Lee, 1990).

Finally, much of the relocation research is outdated. Some of the data was collected as early as 1960. Even studies published quite recently, can use data from years before. For example, Bolan (1997) uses a data set from the 1970s. Therefore caution should be used when interpreting results. This becomes apparent through statements such as: "The typical corporate move involves a male employee with a nonworking wife and two children" (Brett, 1982, p. 451). Due to societal changes, this is unlikely to be true today since more spouses than ever before are working. Fertility rates are lower; women are attaining higher educational qualifications, and take fewer breaks from the labour force (Green, 1997). Dual-career households thus represent a growing trend and are now becoming an important consideration (Green, 1997). Empirical and theoretical approaches need to embrace this change (Green, 1997).

Also, a significant amount of time has passed since most major reviews and findings. They thus need to be updated and promising trends should be followed up (Lu & Cooper, 1995). For example, studies should examine in which way familial and social factors impact upon relocation (Lu & Cooper, 1995). The face of relocation is changing: Whereas employees used to accept relocation as part of their work responsibility, they expect personal development and financial compensation in turn for their flexibility today (Feldman & Brett, 1985). The relocation environment has become greatly restricted for companies (Feldman & Brett, 1985) and organisations now often have to try to entice reluctant employees to move (Feldman & Brett, 1985; Gould & Penley, 1985; Veiga, 1983).

Interestingly, organisations are also starting to move away from their over-reliance on hard relocation services (e.g. real estate assistance, physical removal, trips); they are now beginning to discover the value of soft services such as psychological support and are increasingly shifting their focus toward the provision of these (Rushing & Kleiner, 2003). Overall, more recent studies incorporating these changes need to be conducted and published.

Summary

The spread of the research, improper citations, lack of sophistication, variables of study, appropriateness of sample, measurement and design issues, result consistency, conceptual issues, and outdated research all constitute weakness in the body of relocation literature.

Section IV : A Note On The Expatriate Literature

This section reviews the relevance of research on another special group of participants, namely expatriates. The significance of the literature to the current research is discussed: The section will argue that while studies utilising child and military samples are immediately relevant to the current research, expatriate studies are not.

1 Introduction to Expatriates & International Relocations

An aspect of relocation that is often addressed is international mobility. Though international moves differ from domestic moves in a number of ways, the two bodies of literature are related since domestic and international movers face similar issues. Both types of individuals tend to be motivated by their employer to move, and thus simultaneously change job and location. For both types of individuals failure to perform adequately is often a consequence of the demands placed upon them by the move (Borstorff, Harris & Giles, 1997; Punnett, 1997). Due to these similarities, it is not surprising that researchers targeting both groups of individuals tend to be interested in similar variables.

Changes in societal and working norms have facilitated an increasing number of domestic relocations for both individuals and families (Borstorff et al., 1997; Navara & James, 2002). Similarly, the globalisation of the world market has led to a dramatic increase in the number of international assignments and expatriates in recent years (Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991). Expatriates, also called sojourners, may be defined as "individuals who leave their home culture and live in another country for an extended period of time" (Navara & James, 2002; p. 695).

2 The Nature of Expatriate Assignments

Expatriates are employees sent overseas and are likely to become of increased importance in society as globalisation continues (Guzzo, 1996). It is important not to overlook the cultural element of international relocations, since it dominates and complicates the process. Indeed international moves likely create distress over and beyond that produced by domestic moves (Black et al., 1991).

Expatriates normally go to a foreign country for a set number of years, generally two to three years,

and expect to return to their home country after this position (Church, 1982; Guzzo, 1996). Many expats are male managers in their 40s that have families (Guzzo, 1996), consequently most trailing spouses continue to be female and not employed outside of the home (Tung, 1998). Nevertheless, societal changes are beginning to be reflected in the sample.

3 Findings

Outcomes of expatriation and repatriation are similar to those of domestic relocation and can be physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical in nature. The relationship between relocation and outcome variables is complicated by a number of mediating and moderating factors. Some of these are discussed below. In order to simplify the presentation, they have been grouped into: Moving features, type of relocation, attitudes, coping, social support, information and training, personal characteristics, family factors, personality factors, environmental factors, and moving experience.

3.1 Consequences of Relocation

Outcomes of expatriation and repatriation are similar to those of domestic relocation and can be physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical in nature. Though only limited research on the physical effects of international relocation has been conducted, expatriation has been linked to increased medical expenses (Punnett, 1997).

Psychologically-speaking, relocation is frequently a negative experience (Borstorff et al., 1997) and can have important long-term effects (Baker Cottrell, 2002). Positive psychological effects of expatriate assignments include: Improved attitudes towards host culture, appreciation of home culture, broader worldview (Church, 1982), changed worldview (Pearce, 2002), reduced ethnocentrism (Church, 1982; Finn Jordan, 2002), reduced stereotypes, and increased tolerance (Church, 1982). Increased cognitive complexity, greater confidence / self-esteem, increased self-awareness, and creativity (Church, 1982) have also been reported.

However, international relocation also has negative consequences and has been described as a stressful time of uncertainty for individuals and their families (Black, 1992; Borstorff et al., 1997; Navara & James, 2002). In addition, individuals experience job dissatisfaction (Punnett, 1997), obtain psychological damage (Punnett, 1997), experience culture shock (Punnett, 1997; Borstorff et al., 1997), depression (Borstorff et al., 1997), feelings of loss (Borstorff et al., 1997), uncertainty (Borstorff et al., 1997), and a lack of control (Borstorff et al., 1997).

Social effects include lost relationships and isolation (Borstorff et al., 1997). Behaviourally, research by Shaffer & Harrison (1998) argues that expatriates who fail to properly adjust will likely produce lower job performance, withdraw from their assignment psychologically, and likely terminate their assignment early. They are also more reluctant to accept transfer and more likely to interrupt behaviours

(Borstorff et al., 1997).

Practical effects are those most commonly noticed by organisations and cited in the expatriate literature. Indeed, depending on the study one consults, it is reported that between 15% and 70% of expatriate assignments are unsuccessful, i.e. result in premature terminations and relocation reluctance (Borstorff et al., 1997). Failure can often be traced to lack of or poor preparation (Borstorff et al., 1997). The cost of a failed expatriate assignment ranges from US$ 150,000 to US$ 200,000 (Punnett, 1997). However, there are many other "hidden" cost associated with loss of productivity (Punnett, 1997). Beside financial loss in terms of relocation assistance and retraining, costs may include lost business, poor public relations, employee dissatisfaction, psychological damage, possible medical expenses, and poor performance (Borstorff et al., 1997; Punnett, 1997). In the armed services where productivity is equated with combat readiness, a loss in productivity can translate into breached security, injury, and even death.

In addition, disruption and dysfunction related to family, spousal career, school, and routine may occur (Borstorff et al., 1997). Restriction of personal freedom (Borstorff et al., 1997) and lack of choice for spouses/children (Pearce, 2002) are also associated with relocation. Positive effects include strong academic (Finn Jordan, 2002) and linguistic skills (Tung, 1998).

3.2 Mediating & Moderating Factors

Moving Features such as type of transfer, stage in assignment/adjustment cycle, duration of stay, involvement in decision making, willingness to move, information, training, relocation assistance, and role factors influence adjustment (e.g. Black et al., 1991; Borstorff et al., 1997; Church, 1982; Copeland & Norell, 2002; Feldman & Tompson, 1993; Punnett, 1997; Tung, 1998).

The type of relocation is also important. Most participants were satisfied with expatriation but were less satisfied with repatriation (Tung, 1998). This indicates that it is more difficult to return to the home culture than it is to enter a host culture (Tung, 1998). The role of expectations of expatriates should be taken into consideration when interpreting these findings. It might be that expatriates have relatively low expectations of the host country, whereas they have high expectations of the country they are returning to (Tung, 1998). Similarly, expatriates may have over-adapted to the host country and may find it difficult to revert to their original states (Tung, 1998).

One study found that international variables had a relatively small impact on adjustment: A comparison in adjustment of expatriates, repatriates, and domestic relocators yielded no differences between groups (Feldman & Tompson, 1993). However, Borstorff et al. (1997) found that individuals moving into an unfamiliar, international environment are likely to experience more stresses than those normally encountered.

Attitudes such as job fit, expectations, commitment, satisfaction, moving attitudes, culture, and acculturation attitudes affect adjustment (e.g. Black, 1992; Borstorff et al., 1997; Church, 1982; Tung, 1998; Feldman & Tompson, 1993; Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001; Navara & James, 2002; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998, Stierle et al., 2002).

Coping techniques like assimilation, proactive/preventative coping, avoidance, withdrawal, being a free agent, going native, heart-at-the-parent company, dual citizenship, and positive reappraisal all influence adjustment (e.g. Feldman & Tompson, 1993; Navara & James, 2002; Tung, 1998; Stierle et al., 2002; van Oudenhoven, van der Zee & van Kooten, 2001).

Social support represents a special and well-researched form of coping. Perceived support, family support, spousal support, organisational support, family cohesiveness, satisfaction with friendship, amount of support from local sources, depth of relationship, number of social support functions met, availability of support, need for support, use of support, and number of friends lost were related to adjustment (e.g. Black et al., 1991; Borstorff et al., 1997; Copeland & Norell, 2002; Guzzo, 1995; Kraimer et al., 2001; Moyle & Parkes, 1999; Navara & James, 2002; Stierle et al., 2002).

The most commonly dissatisfied aspects of expatriation were the lack of information and training provided (Tung, 1998). Having mentors and challenging job assignments were especially beneficial (Feldman & Tompson, 1993). However, realistic job previews (Feldman & Tompson, 1993) also improved adjustment. Those with over- and undermet expectations had lower levels of adjustment and did not perform as well at work (Black, 1992). However, individuals adjusted and performed better when job demands were overmet (Black, 1992). The opposite relationship was found for job constrained expectations (Black, 1992).

Personal characteristics such as gender, age, education, status, job success, income, individual skill, knowledge, social/gender role, martial status, number and age of children, and finally spousal characteristics and employment also matter (e.g. Black, 1992; Black et al., 1991; Borstorff et al., 1997; Church, 1982; Feldman & Tompson, 1993; Guzzo, 1995; Navara & James, 2002; Punnett, 1997; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; Tung, 1998; van Oudenhoven et al., 2001). Both work and non-work factors influence adjustment and decisions to withdraw from international assignments (Shaffer & Harrison, 1998).

Family was found to have a positive effect on international assignments by bringing some stability to the situation (Tung, 1998). Individual family members influence each other's state of well-being and adjustment (Borstorff et al., 1997). Indeed it's been reported that met expectations in the private domain lead to better adjustment and better work performance (Black, 1992). The importance of spouses and families in relocation is becoming ever more apparent. Punnett (1997) argues that many organisations would benefit from including these in the expatriation process since a significant

percentage of expatriates reject a foreign assignment because of family and spousal reasons (Punnett, 1997).

The growing reluctance to accept an international job transfer largely comes from family disruption and stress (Borstorff et al., 1997; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). Familial stress can include employment problems for the spouse (short and long-term), school disruption, loss of relationship ties, restriction of personal freedom, boredom, isolation, and culture shock (Borstorff et al., 1997). Evidence of work-family interface has also been obtained (Black, 1992). Personality factors such as self-esteem, extraversion, openness, and neuroticism have additionally been implicated (e.g. Navara & James, 2002; Stierle et al., 2002).

Another category of factors frequently researched includes environmental factors. Perceptions, amount of change, differences between locations, status change, amount of organisational change, organisational cultural novelty, culture novelty, standard of living, housing, facilities, weather, economy, and politics should be considered (e.g. Black, 1992; Borstorff et al., 1997; Church, 1982; Feldman & Tompson, 1993; Navara & James, 2002; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; van Oudenhoven et al., 2001).

One of the most commonly cited mediators in the relationship between international relocation and adjustments is the difference between home and host country (Navara & James, 2002). Differences can occur in the standard of living, housing, facilities for health, education, and shopping, friendships, weather, economic and political systems, and values (Navara & James, 2002). These factors also influence domestic moves, though likely to a lesser degree. Not only work factors influence adjustment (Black et al., 1991). Non-work factors such as physical environmental factors play an enormous role in adjustment (Black, 1992).

The final group of factors that has been investigated in relation to international relocation can be termed 'moving experience'. This includes previous experience abroad as child and as adult (Black et al., 1991; Church, 1982; Tung, 1998).

4 Critique

International relocation research suffers from the same criticisms domestic research does. For instance, their retrospective cross-sectional self-report nature is frequently challenged. Also, often only one data source exists (e.g. Shaffer & Harrison, 1998) and measures are entirely subjective (e.g. Stierle et al., 2002). Researchers make little reference to psychological states when measuring adjustment and focus solely on objective variables (Church, 1982). Many issues, including spousal and familial issues, are under-researched and not addressed by policy frequently enough (Punnett, 1997).

The research area still lacks theoretical sophistication (Church, 1982) and is plagued with definitional problems that restrict measurement. Sampling issues include: The utilisation of American

samples, male respondents, management and student samples, small samples, and homogeneous samples. Response rate is sometimes also low and cultural issues in questionnaire development are rarely considered. All of these factors limit validity and generalisability.

5 Evaluation

Although various parallels between national and international relocations exist, these two bodies of literature are significantly different from each other. The cultural factors that act to complicate the picture in international relocations make it difficult to employ findings from either setting in the other. The researcher will thus focus on the more appropriate national relocation literature and not offer a thorough discussion of the expatriate relocation.

Summary

The nature of expatriate relocations makes them fundamentally different from domestic relocations. Overseas assignments involve numerous cultural factors that may act to confound findings and make cross-sample comparisons difficult at best. It was therefore assessed as more appropriate to orient the present study on the domestic rather than the international literature on relocation.

Section V : Conclusion

This chapter introduced the topic of relocation and summarised empirical literature in the area. Generally, the research recognises that geographic mobility can be destructive for individuals, families and organisation (Forster, 1990; Mason, 1996; Wickham, 1983). The effects seem to be cumulative and become more severe over time (Wickham, 1983). However, some studies also provide evidence indicating that individuals can learn to move and actually benefit from it (Bolan, 1997).

The outcome variables tested with regard to relocation can be categorised into physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical consequences. Evidence for each category was provided. Mediating and moderating factors such as move variables, personal characteristics, employment factors, attitudinal factors, family variables, coping, support, and additional stressors were also described.

In addition, the section critiqued current relocation research and highlighted some of the challenges in the field: The spread of the research, improper citations, lack of sophistication, variables of study, appropriateness of sample, measurement and design issues, result consistency, conceptual issues, and outdated research. Finally, the author lobbied for the inclusion of military and child studies while arguing against the need for a detailed consideration of the expatriate literature. Although many of the issues in domestic relocation also apply to expatriate relocation (and vice versa), the expatriate

literature also addresses a number of additional cultural variables. Since the consideration of cultural variables is not appropriate or relevant for the current study of domestic relocation, the expatriate literature has largely been excluded from this dissertation.

The next chapter will examine the theoretical backdrop against which the current study operates. It will present the theoretical framework guiding the research, review the research objectives of the current study, and begin to suggest an appropriate design.

Chapter 3 : Theoretical Framework

The research presented in this dissertation is defined by and framed around theoretical literature from three main sources: Stress, relocation and work-family interaction. These literature bodies were chosen since they best represent the area of research, in other words family relocation. The contribution of each collection of literature to the work will be discussed in sequence. First, an examination of stress theory is undertaken in the aim of explaining why and how stressful life events such as relocation can causes negative consequences. The relocation literature will allow the investigator to complement previous writing by demonstrating some of the processes associated specifically with relocation. The consideration of the work-family interaction research is intended to demonstrate the link between work and family domains, as well as highlighting the importance of the family in occupational research. System theory strengthens the argument of work-family interaction. Finally, a short summary is presented.

Throughout the text, an argument for the research and its design will be developed. Additionally, assumptions will be made on past theory and research. Based on these assumptions, research aims will be delineated. In exploratory qualitative research it is much more useful to speak about project aims rather than hypotheses, since it is largely acknowledged that qualitative data cannot test hypotheses (King, 1994; Symon & Cassell, 1998). Rather, the goal is to investigate a number of aims with the goal of later formulating specific and testable hypotheses (Woolgar, 1996).

Section I : Stress Literature

Stress is a concept, which is difficult to define (Cox, Griffith, & Rial-Gonzales, 2000). However, there appears to be a general consensus in the field that stress is *any demand, which exceeds one's available resources* (e.g. Cox, 1987; Delongis, Folkman, & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, Delongis, & Gruen, 1986a; Lazarus, 1991a). It is therefore commonly acknowledged that stress refers to the environmental factor(s) producing the demand, rather than the negative outcomes often associated with it. These outcomes are normally referred to as distress (Lazarus, 1991b).

Stress is generally described along the dimensions of intensity and duration. It can be a chronic or acute manifestation, meaning that it can occur at low levels of exposure over a long period of time or at high intensity over a short time period (Britt, Adler, & Bartone, 2001; Motowidlo, Manning, & Packard, 1986; Day & Livingstone, 2001; Johnson & Hall, 1996). Although no doubt exists that relocation is a stressor, one gap in the current relocation literature is that no research or theoretical work on the classification of relocation stress is available. One possible explanation for this is that it is difficult to place frequent relocation among these dimensions since, though it is an acute stressor, it may also occur continuously over long periods of time.

The stress literature is important to this research, since relocation may be viewed as both occupational and life stressor. As such mobility is expected to exert considerable influence over the private and working life of relocated individuals and their families. However, very little theory has actually examined family processes and consequences of relocation. Although spousal studies are becoming more common and theory is beginning to incorporate findings from these studies, the effects of moving on children are rarely assessed and as such have not been significantly integrated into existing theory. Similarly, little research and no theory of military relocation stress have been published to the author's knowledge. The current study aims to readdress this oversight by investigating military family mobility with the aim of contributing to existing theory.

1 Theory on Stress

Lazarus & colleagues (Monat & Lazarus, 1977; Lazarus, 1977; Lazarus, 1991a; Lazarus, 1991b; Folkman & Lazarus, 1988) have carried out much theoretical and empirical work on stress. One of the most profound contributions arising from this work is Lazarus' *Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory of Emotion* (Lazarus, 1991b). As the name suggests, the theory integrates three elements: Relation, motivation, and cognition. Lazarus argues that each of these features must be present in order for an individual to be emotionally affected by a situation and experience distress. According to Lazarus, *cognition* consists of two parts: Knowledge and appraisal. Knowledge is conceptualised as any information an individual holds about an event or situation. Appraisal, on the other hand, is an evaluation of the personal significance an event carries.

Emotions are functions of appraisal and thus reactions to the status of personally relevant goals. The identification of an actor's *motivation* is essential when aiming to establish personal relevance, and thus his/her appraisal of threat or harm. The theory is *relational* since it suggests that emotions are affected by person-environment relationships. Therefore, the stress-response is seen as a result of person-environment interaction rather than either factor alone.

One of the fundamental premises of Lazarus' theory is that emotion is a product of nature and nurture (Lazarus, 1991b). He believes that humans have a biological predisposition to evaluate their

relationship with the environment as it affects their well-being. Lazarus further suggests that any person evaluating his/her relationship in a given way will experience a specific emotion. Therefore any two individuals making the same appraisal about their person-environment relationship should experience the same emotion regardless of the actual situation. This adds an element of stability to emotion. Emotional variability is explained through differences in the way individuals appraise their person-environment relationship. These differences are thought to be due to social and cultural factors.

Lazarus believes that situations can be assessed, or appraised, in a number of different ways. Each type of appraisal (*core relational theme*) corresponds to an emotion. For example, if an individual evaluates a situation as demeaning, s/he will experience anger. If this situation is alternatively viewed as a threat to existence, the individual will experience anxiety. The subjective assessment of the situation is therefore central to this theory. According to Lazarus' theory, emotions can be positive, negative, borderline, or non-emotions.

Importantly, Lazarus also identifies two types of appraisal: Primary and secondary appraisal. Primary appraisal concerns the investment one has in the outcome and consists of goal relevance (what is at risk), goal congruence (whether the situation is appraised as harmful, threatening or beneficial), and goal content (which objective is at stake). Secondary appraisal concerns the options of coping and consists of blame/credit (whether any attribution of responsibility has been made), coping potential (whether and in which direction the individual feels empowered to influence the person-environment relationship), and future expectations (predicted outcome of the event). Coping follows as a reaction to emotion and then acts to shape subsequent cognition and emotion.

The two well-known categories of coping introduced by Lazarus, in collaboration with Folkman and others (e.g. Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al., 1986a; Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, Delongis, 1986b) are: Problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. *Problem-focused* coping is any action designed to affect the person-environment relationship, while *emotion-focused* coping is an attempt to alter the mental state of the affected person by directing attention away from the event or changing the way the event is appraised. Both forms of coping aim to change the way in which the person-environment relationship is appraised - Either through direct action or emotion-focused techniques.

Coping is a major variable in relocation research, since it influences the way relocation is experienced. By definition, effective coping changes the way in which the person-environment relationship is evaluated and thus whether a situation is appraised as stressful. If an individual views relocation as a positive experience and focuses on the advantages, it is less probable that s/he will experience stress and associated negative consequences. On the other hand, relocation will be very challenging for someone who is overly focused on the negative consequences and views the move as at odds with

their personal preference. The theory also permits for individual variation in coping success.

The *Cognitive-Motivational-Relational Theory of Emotion* is a sophisticated theoretical conceptualisation of the stress-process that incorporates recent empirical findings. The model is sufficiently complex and advanced to acknowledge both objective and subjective factors in stress: It ascertains that it is not simply the objective condition but also the subjective interpretation of that condition that creates stress. The idea that stress arises out of interactions between person and environment is additionally significant to relocation research where the novel environment is considered the main stressor.

Additionally, the role of individual factors (i.e. motivation) is highlighted, accounting for individual variability and differences. At the same time the model retains stability by assuming that two individuals making the same judgements about a situation will experience the same emotion. The model is therefore not only clear and concise but also well-balanced. The one aspect of the theory that may be criticised by family researchers is that the model currently does not include any mention about family and their influence on each other. In fact, the theory does not explicitly acknowledge the influence of any one person on another. Nonetheless, this appears to be a minor oversight.

Finally, one cannot deny the importance of the coping categories developed by Folkman, Lazarus and their colleagues. This part of the theory is so renowned and well-respected that it has virtually become accepted as textbook fact over the years. It is undoubtedly the main and most frequently utilised conceptualisation of coping. Due to the above considerations, the subsequent work described in this dissertation will conceptualise stress according to Lazarus' theory and is guided by it.

2 Relocation as a Stressor

The stress literature is comprised empirical and theoretical work in the areas of life stress and work stress. Both of these areas are important since the topic (relocation) presented in this doctoral thesis, stretches into the two domains. This section will substantiate the theoretical claim that geographical relocation can be conceived as stressful by individuals and as such may call forth negative consequences.

Since relocation is often motivated by an individual's employer, it can be viewed as an occupational stressor. However, relocation also affects many aspects of an individual's life and may thus also be viewed as a life stressor. Regardless of whether one chooses to classify relocation as an occupational or life stressor, it is clear that relocation causes major change and thus constitutes a stressor (Brett & Werbel, 1980). As such, relocation represents *demand that exceeds one's available resources* and has the potential to bring about negative stress-associated consequences as a result (Mandler, 1990).

- ***Assumption 1:*** *Relocation is stressful and carries negative consequences with it.*

- **Research Aim 1**: *Determine whether Royal Air Force personnel experience negative consequences of relocation.*

3 Family Stress Theory

However, employees do not exist in isolation and work-related mobility often affects their families. It is not only important for us to consider family members because they are influenced by the employee but also because family members influence the employee (Orthner, 2002).

- **Assumption 2**: *Relocation will cause changes in the lives of the employee and members of his/her (immediate) family.*

- **Research Aim 2**: *Investigate the negative consequences of relocation families (spouses & children) of Royal Air Force personnel experience.*

This assumption is best illustrated using family stress theory such as that by Burr (1973; Burr & Klein, 1994). Burr (1973) was the first to create a comprehensive and sophisticated model of family stress and conceptualised it as a process (Hansen & Johnson, 1979). The *General Systems Family Theory* (Burr & Klein, 1994) puts forward that families operate according to typical routines and procedures, which are laid out in a predictable and repetitive pattern, when no stress is present. During these processes, the family takes inputs and converts them into outputs, all the while reviewing whether the outputs are appropriate and fall within the family rules and regulations.

Burr & Klein (1994) believe that any stressful event introduces crisis and disorganisation into the family system. The result of this crisis is that routines and rituals are disrupted or not performed at all, since attention is directed away from these processes toward the stressful situation. In essence, the family will go through a stress and recovery cycle. They are thrust from a *normal state* into a phase of *stress recognition*; from there the family begins *coping attempts*, which if successful leads to a period of *recovery* and finally the return to a *normal state* of functioning. See figure 3.1 below:
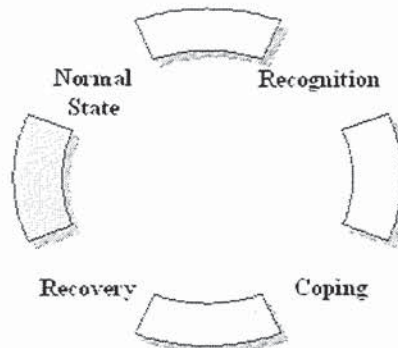
Figure 3.1: Depiction of the Stress & Recovery Cycle of Burr's *General Systems Family Theory*

Burr (1973; Burr & Klein, 1994) additionally hypothesises that families have a certain degree of vulnerability to stressors, which influences the amount of crisis experienced by families (Burr & Klein, 1994). The more vulnerable families are to stress, the greater the degree of crisis and negative consequences that they will experience. Further, the degree of change experienced influences the family's vulnerability. The greater the change is, the greater the vulnerability and thus the more powerful the effects of stress will be (Munton & Forster, 1990). Burr & Klein (1994) also maintain that stress from simultaneous and consequential stressors could *pile-up* to have an additive negative effect on the family.

In this theory, a number of factors influence the family's stressor vulnerability and ability to recover from the stressful event. These include the degree of control the family has over the stressor, the sources the stress is attributed to, the length of the anticipation period, familiarity with the stressor, intensity and duration of the stressor, the level of family integration, family response to the stressor, quality of the marital relationship, consultation in decision-making, amount of activity external to the household, and family adaptability (Burr & Klein, 1994; Munton & Forster, 1990).

- **Assumption 3**: *A number of mediating and moderators factors act to complicate the relationship between stressor (relocation) and distress (negative outcome).*

- **Research Aim 3**: *Identify some of the factors that mediate / moderate the relationship between relocation and negative outcomes for Royal Air Force families.*

Family stress theory is interesting since it denotes that family members influence each other in their response to stress. Thus studying family members in isolation of each other appears inappropriate. Burr & Klein's (1994) conceptualisation sees the family passing through various stages of adjustment when faced with stress before regaining a stable state. This model can be applied to relocation with ease. Relocation, constituting a stressful event, would introduce change and thus disruption into the family. Leaving a familiar environment is associated with a great degree of change, which prevents normal routines and rituals from being performed normally (or altogether).

Consider the scenario of an engineer informing his family of an upcoming relocation. Prior to the receipt of the news, the family would be in a *normal state*, operating according to tested rules and routines. Once the information is received and processes, the family would move into a phase of *stress recognition*. The family would begin to think about the consequences and changes associated with relocation. Assuming that the family has not been to the new location previously, additional uncertainty would be associated with the idea of relocation. A state of stress would ensue. Since stress is not a pleasant state, the family would then begin engaging in a series of *coping attempts*. These could include gathering information, preparing for the move, and re-establishing routines. If these attempts are successful, the family begins to *recover* from stress. The recovery lasts until the family has adjusted and fully reestablished routines. In other words, until a *state of normality* returns.

The model is simple to work with and easy to apply to a range of scenarios. However, it is too simplistic in parts and does not operationalise all theoretical aspects. At times the theory can seem vague and incomplete. For instance, the family is thought to go through four general stages in the recovery process, allowing for little individual variation. Additionally, there is no mention of partial adjustment and negative consequences of stress are not discussed in-depth enough. However, the theory raises many interesting ideas that are worth noting.

Summary

The preceding section argued that relocation is stressful for individuals and their families. Stress was conceptualised as a relatively stable phenomenon that originates from the interaction between objective and subjective factors. In addition, the idea that family members interact and influence one another was presented. As a consequence of the review, three assumptions were made: (1) Relocation is stressful; (2) relocation causes change in the lives of families; and (3) mediating and moderating factors between relocation and negative outcomes exist. Several research aims were formulated from these assumptions: (1) Determine whether Royal Air Force personnel experience negative consequences of relocation; (2) investigate the negative consequences of relocation that families (spouses & children) of Royal Air Force personnel experience; and (3) identify some of the factors that mediate / moderate the relationship between relocation and negative outcomes for Royal Air Force families.

Section II : Relocation Theory

The next body of literature relevant to this doctoral project and its theoretical model is relocation. The relocation literature is scattered with rather than connected by theory. Some examples of proposed conceptual models for transience include: Anderson, Milkovich, & Tsui's (1981) *Model of Intra-Organizational Mobility*; Fisher's (1990) *Environmental Change, Control & Vulnerability Model*; Fried's (1977) and Weiss' (1990) *Models of Losses Associated with Mobility*; Lee's (1990) *Isomorphic Space Model*; Mandler's (1990) *Interruption Theory*; Oatley's (1990) theory about *Roles in Transition*; and Louis' (1980) *Surprise & Sense-Making*. Most of these models constitute brief ideas rather than full conceptualisations; operationalisation is rare. Despite this, the relocation literature has made some notable theoretical contributions: Brett's (1992) *Disruption Theory* and Nicholson's (1990) *Transition Cycle Model* represent complete theoretical piece of work. Each of these will be reviewed in detail below.

1 Disruption Theory (Brett, 1992)

Disruption theory describes moving as a physical, social, and psychological disturbance (Lee, 1990). This disturbance resulting from geographical relocation is an event requiring major change and ad-

justment because it affects three major parts of adult life including: The environment, e.g. housing & facilities; relationships, e.g. help & support; and working life, e.g. role change (Brett et al., 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980). Job transfers are viewed as unruly periods during which routines are disturbed and taken out of the environment in which they were created and tested (Brett 1992; Brett et al., 1992).

Feelings of anxiety and uncertainty develop (Brett, 1980). This is experienced as stressful and may translate into psychological, physical, and behavioural consequences (Brett, 1980; Brett & Werbel, 1980). Individuals aim to reduce uncertainty by re-establishing routines (Brett & Werbel, 1980). If uncertainty in the environment is reduced and predictability and control return, then individuals will become adjusted and eventually habits will return or new ones will be formed (Brett, 1992). Adjustment depends on the degree of differences between old and new location in these respects (Brett et al., 1992; Pinder & Schroeder, 1987).

- *Assumption 4: Consequences of relocation can be physical, psychological, and behavioural.*

- *Research Aim 4: Determine whether the consequences of relocation that RAF personnel and their families experience are physical, psychological, and behavioural.*

Familial relationships may suffer if adjustment is difficult for any or all family members because of the increased tension experienced (Brett et al., 1992). Family members are interdependent and thus influence each other throughout their adjustment (Brett, 1992). Many studies have illustrated this relationship (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1982); especially the effect of spouse on transferee has been well demonstrated (Brett, 1992).

- *Assumption 5: Family members are part of a system and influence each other. As such, if any member of the family experiences negative relocation consequences, every member of the family will be affected.*

- *Research Aim 5: Investigate whether individuals are aware of the negative consequences their family experience as a result of relocation. Determine whether individuals feel influenced by their family's adjustment / difficulties.*

In addition, moves may be more disruptive for teenagers because their identities are developed but not stable enough to withstand strong disruption like that caused by relocation (Brett et al., 1992). It must, however, be noted that Brett (1992) does not view transfers as an inherently negative phenomenon. She believes that moves have the potential to stimulate personal growth and innovation.

- *Assumption 6: Relocation also carries positive consequences with it.*

- *Research Aim 6: Investigate the positive consequences of relocation Royal Air Force personnel and their families experience.*

Brett's (1992) model is very popular in the relocation domain. One possible reason for this is that the theory is based on some of the most rigorous and complete work ever conducted in relocation. In the seminal study for the Employee Relocation Council, Brett & Werbel (1980) assessed the impact of relocation on employees and their families. For this purpose, five hundred employees from ten companies were selected to participate in the longitudinal research study. The study consisted of three phases: Baseline Survey I, Movers Study, and Baseline Survey II. In phase one, a questionnaire was mailed to all selected families - Three-hundred and fifty completed questionnaires were returned.

Phase two consisted of a series of three telephone interviews with one hundred family units (parents and children over seven). The initial interview gathered data with respect to pre-move expectations and feelings, while the next two interviews gathered post-move adjustment data. The third and final stage consisted of another questionnaire, which aimed to provide a final measurement of mover's adjustment. The study is thus one of the only ones to offer both qualitative and quantitative longitudinal data.

Another justification for the popularity of the disruption theory is its comprehensiveness. It alludes to individual variability and offers explanations for it, describes outcomes of relocation in detail, conceptualises relocation as a process, and underlines the importance of family members. The theory is also attractive in its simplicity - Variables are not unnecessarily complicated with abstract labels and the ideas are basic enough to make common sense. Additionally, parallels to Burr & Klein's (1994) family system theory are striking. Both theories centre on routines and disruption, adjustment and reestablishment. The family is also focus in both.

2 Transition Cycle Model (Nicholson, 1990)

A second frequently cited relocation theory is Nicholson's *Transition Cycle Model* (1990). According to this theory, the results of transition are dependent upon a number of factors including organisational socialisation practices, individual characteristics, and role requirements. Transition is viewed as a cyclical process consisting of four phases: Preparation, encounter, adjustment, and stabilisation.

The cyclical model is guided by three principles: Recursion, disjunction and interdependence. *Recursion* is the assumption that progression through the phases of the cycle is continuous and that an individual is always at one stage in the cycle. *Disjunction* is where experiences are separated into distinct stages because of the unique qualities that accompany them. *Interdependence* means that each stage affects the next stage and each transition cycle affects the subsequent cycle.

The Transition Cycle Model also has a taxonomic quality, which allows the classification or categorisation of different types of relocations. The model aims to combine three major taxonomic approaches: Boundary crossing; temporal location in life span; and motivation and career pattern. The *transition cycle model* proposes nine interdependent dimensions of transition (see Table 3.1).

Table 3.1: Dimensions of Transition (adapted from Nicholson, 1990, p. 98)

The transition cycle model has attracted support for various reasons. The elements of the model are very well defined and even have a taxonomic quality, which make its application simple and consistent. It enables individuals to categorise relocation and, at least theoretically, determine its degree of difficulty. For instance, it seems plausible that highly complex and system-propelled relocations will be more difficult than simple self-propelled acts of transience. The nine dimensions in essence represent mediating and moderating factors.

However, the stringent categorisation also gives the model limited flexibility and restricts the user in its application. Additionally, it does not make mention of some of the new discoveries in relocation research: Nicholson (1990) does not utilise a system's approach and does not make mention of family factors. Nonetheless the theory is impressive and the sheer depth of descriptive detail that is offered makes it noteworthy.

Summary

This section summarised the most important theoretical work on relocation. As a consequence of the discussion, three further assumptions were made: (4) Relocation can have physical, psychological, and behavioural outcomes; (5) family members influence one another; and (6) relocation can have positive outcomes. Several additional research aims were formulated from these assumptions: (4) Investigate whether individuals are aware of the negative consequences their family experience as a result of relocation; (5) determine whether the consequences of relocation that RAF personnel and their families experience are physical, psychological, and behavioural; and (6) investigate the positive consequences of relocation Royal Air Force personnel and their families experience.

In conclusion, transfer theory has almost exclusively been used to explain post-move adjustment. In

other words, the focus has been on the return from a state of stress and disarray to normality. Although the theories incorporate some of the recent developments in the field (e.g. including both objective and subjective elements), are commonly cited, and apply well to the topic of change and transience there continue to be some major gaps. Despite the theoretical existence of long-term consequences (at least in samples of *chronic movers* who are frequently exposed to relocation over long periods of time), these types of effects have completely been ignored. For these reasons we investigated the following:

- **Assumption 7**: *Consequences of relocation may have a long-term effect.*

- **Research Aim 7**: *Determine whether RAF personnel and their families experience long-term consequences of relocation.*

Section III : Work-Family Interaction

The interaction between work and family are central to this thesis. Like the section on family stress, this aspect of the dissertation will be concerned with the interconnectedness between family members. The argument that family members should not be studied in isolation will be supported by research from the work-family domain and systems theory.

1 Work-Family Literature

Although work and family have traditionally been studied separately, there is a growing body of literature concerned with the relationship between these two domains (Frone, Russell, & Barnes, 1996). The evidence so far seems to indicate that work and family are interconnected and thus each domain exerts influence over the other (Adams, King, & King, 1996). This collection of work illustrates that the home and family domains are related and thus furthers the earlier argument that it is not enough to study the employee in isolation. This not only validates but also necessitates the inclusion of family members in occupational research.

Work and family realms play central roles in adults' lives (Frone et al., 1992a; Werbel & Walter, 2002). However, these two domains are not always harmonious, creating the possibility of conflict (Netemeyer, Boles, & McMurrian, 1996). It is the work-family interface literature that has highlighted the importance of integrating work and family research (Frone et al., 1992a). Studies from this domain have shown the potential of examining work and family stress in conjunction with each other (Frone et al., 1992a). Overall the research provides support for separate notions of work-to-family and family-to-work conflict (Crouter, 1984; Frone et al., 1996; Adams & Jex, 1999). Job factors predict

work-to-family conflict, while family factors predict family-to-work conflict. This provides evidence for the idea that each construct possesses distinctive antecedents (Frone et al., 1992a).

Work-family conflict (WFC) refers to the condition where attempts to fulfil demands of work interfere with an individual's capability to fulfil the demands of family life and visa versa (Frone et al., 1996). Since work and family represent central aspects of adult identity, the experience of either of these types of conflict is likely to be stressful (Frone et al., 1996).

Given the changes, including the emergence of modern families and the frequent employment of spouses outside of the home, society and the workforce have seen over the last two decades, it is likely that work family conflict will become an even more prominent and pertinent issues in occupational research (Netemeyer et al., 1996; Stoeva, Chiu, & Greenhaus, 2002; Glass & Finley, 2002; Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2001). The potential of the family to negatively affect an employee's working behaviour after relocation also makes it a legitimate concern for organisations (Behson, 2002). For instance, Orther states: "Since relocations are potentially stressful for families and this stress may impact on the readiness of the soldier and his/her unit, it is in the best interest of the Army to promote positive relocation adjustments among spouses and children (2002; p. 1)."

Although studies on work-family interaction have made significant contributions, changes in the nature of work and changes to the structure of the family have rendered much of the research in this area outdated (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). Past research has been plagued by conceptual and methodological problems. WFC is often measured as a unilateral construct, despite acknowledgements that family and work influence each other bi-directionally (Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002). In other words, family influences work and work influences family.

Furthermore, many studies resort to global measures of work-family interaction, which confound the influence of work on family with the influence of family on work (Frone et al., 1996). Despite these criticisms, recent research has confirmed the propositions set forth by earlier studies (e.g. Frone et al., 1996): Family and work influence each other and should be studied in conjunction with one another.

2 Family Systems Theory

Systems theory asserts that it is necessary for researchers to choose a systems approach, which accurately reflects the nature of their research. Although based on positivism, systems theory deviates from the scientific model: Elements of systems are studied in combination, with a clear focus on interaction, and pure reductionism is strongly discarded (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Von Bertalanffy (1968) is generally credited with being the founding father of general systems theory (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

There are two prominent approaches in systems theory. Systems can be viewed as *closed*, meaning

that they are isolated from their environment, or *open* (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Open systems theory focuses on the exchange between the system and its environment. Instead of the mechanical analogy that is often used in closed systems approaches, open systems are compared to biological organisms (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). Open systems are viewed as much more fluid and are characterised by continuous change.

General principles of this theory are: 1) The system is distinct from its environment and separated through boundaries; 2) systems are process-oriented; 3) system processes consists of input, throughput, output, and feedback; 4) the system directs its efforts toward survival; 5) the system consists of equally interdependent subsystems, which are distinct from each other and separated by boundaries; 6) the way the system operates can be observed through its subsystems; and 7) any critical activity involves transaction across boundaries, either between subsystems or with the external environment (Burrell & Morgan, 1979).

Systems theory is intriguing because it permits psychologists to look past the individual level of analysis (Katz & Kahn, 1966). According to Katz & Kahn (1966), in order to take environmental factors into account, analysis must occur at the collective level. However, they believe that the characteristics of the system are also observable at the individual level. Thus the systems level informs researchers about which kind of individual data to collect. With this approach is possible to obtain a wonderful balance between breadth and depth of research. Researchers are not distracted by excessive detail and equally not ignore important variables because of a broad focus (Katz & Kahn, 1966).

The seminal work by Katz & Kahn (1966) is usually recognised as having brought systems theory to industrial/organisational psychology. Katz and Kahn (1966) viewed social systems as having a functional rather than physical structure. Further, they believed that psychological bonds hold social systems together. Roles are seen as fundamental to social systems; they capture the requirements the system places on each individual member. Additionally, systems theory has been applied to families.

Family systems theorists conceptualise families as consisting of two types of systems: An internal system and an external system (Lee, 1990). The internal system governs the relationships within the family, while the external system governs interaction with the external non-family environment (Berardo, 1981). This permits researchers to investigate the relationship between family and the external systems, e.g. education system, work system etc., as well as the interplay between internal family subsystems, i.e. the parent dyad & sibling group (Schvaneveldt & Ihinger, 1979; Berardo, 1981).

The family is seen as a distinctive system, which is composed of different individuals with various roles and objectives (Munton & Forster, 1990; Schvaneveldt & Ihinger, 1979). The family is fluid

and constantly subjected to change, reform, and deviance (Munton & Forster, 1990). The family is thus viewed as an open system with a permeable boundary, which is sensitive and reactive to external influences (Munton & Forster, 1990). However, the influence is not unidirectional. The family impacts on the external environment as the external environment impacts on the family (Broderick & Smith, 1979). Similarly, family members influence each other (Schvaneveldt & Ihinger, 1979). This strengthens *Assumption 5* and validates the corresponding *Research Aim*.

Systems theory has been gaining increasing attention in psychology over the past 50 years and is now recognised as a valuable method of analysis. It gains much of its value from being able to transcend disciplinary boundaries (Burrell & Morgan, 1979). This theory is also valuable in advancing the argument that family members are interconnected and thus should be researched together. Due to these considerations, the theoretical framework employed in this research is based on systems theory. More specifically, the framework is based on systems theory as applied to families: Family systems theory. The contemporary research hopes to address some of the shortcomings currently present in the literature by creating a family model of relocation based around this theory, while also incorporating recent advances in the field.

Summary

A vast amount of research supporting the interaction between work and family exists. It is clear that work can affect family and family can affect work; the relationship is symbiotic and the influence bidirectional. In addition, this section used systems and family systems theories to supports the existence of interconnectedness between family members. On the basis of the theoretical and empirical work presented, the argument that family members should not be studied in isolation was put forward.

Section IV : Conceptual Framework

In the conceptual framework developed for this research, the family is seen as a system. In addition to the theoretical literature mentioned earlier, it is also based on empirical work in the areas of relocation, family, and stress. Appendices B-E are graphical depictions of the conceptual model guiding this research. Appendix F represents a summary table describing all of the variables and their origins.

Appendix B depicts society as a system that is made up of various subsystems. Whilst only the military system is of interest in this research, it acknowledges the existence of other systems. These other systems (e.g. governmental system) can influence and be influenced by the Armed Forces system. The military system consists of the Army, the Navy, and the Royal Air Force (RAF), which often work in collaboration and thus affect each other. Since this research is primarily concerned with the

RAF, this system is described more in-depth (Appendix C).

As can be seen, the RAF is conceptualised as consisting of different communities, which are represented by bases. Each base has its own unique society, which is composed of a number of different family systems. Families are conceived as an integral part of any RAF community and as such affect one another. A good example to illustrate this would be the moving of one family away from a base (or community). Although the family moving would experience the greatest change, other families may also be affected (e.g. losing a friend, teacher, colleague). Similarly the move of the family to a new base provides other family units with an opportunity for friendship.

Each family unit consists of several members (personnel, spouse, children), whom all affect one another (Appendix D). For example, if a child is going through difficult times at school, his/her parents may become distressed. It is this system that the research concerns itself with. More specifically, the research addresses a particular condition within the family system: Geographical relocation. In this case, relocation refers to the transfer from one military unit to another. Relocations (or postings) are common occurrences for RAF families, who can move as frequently as every eighteen months.

The full conceptual model is displayed in Appendix E, which illustrates that geographical relocation affects two aspects of individuals' lives: The physical environment and working life (or education in the case of children). It is these changes that are hypothesised to affect the outcome variables (physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical consequences). Physical outcomes are related to physical health, while psychological outcomes include well-being, mental health, satisfaction, and attitudinal variables.

Behavioural outcomes consist of things such as work performance, absence, turnover, smoking, and alcohol/drug abuse; social outcomes comprise changes in and losses of friendship losses; and practical outcomes include loss of employment and distance from doctors as examples. Although social and practical outcomes are often acknowledged in the literature, currently no theoretical model that incorporates them exists. They have been added by the author.

- *Assumption 8: Consequences of relocation can also be social and practical.*

- *Research Aim 8: Determine whether RAF personnel and their families also experience social and practical consequences of relocation.*

On the individual family member level, the relationship between geographical relocation and these outcome variables is hypothesised to be moderated and mediated by a number of factors. Moderators are generally conceived as "extraneous variables that affect the strength and/or direction of the relationship between independent and dependent variable" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, p. 1174). These include demographics, personality factors, and move history. Mediators can "actually account for or explain the relationship between independent and dependent variable" (Baron & Kenny, 1986, 1176).

These include support, coping style, relocation attitudes, differences between old and new location, and factors related to old and new location. Moderators and mediators were drawn from both the empirical and the theoretical literature. More detailed descriptions are given in Appendix F.

Summary

The conceptual model utilised in this research study, views geographical relocation as affecting two main spheres of individuals' lives: The physical environment and working life. Change in either or both of these spheres is expected to influence a series of outcome variables or consequences. Documented consequences of relocation include physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical effects. A number of mediating and moderating factors (demographics, personality variables, move history, support, coping style, relocation attitude, differences between locations, and factors related to the locations) have also been incorporated into the model.

Section V : Summary & Original Contribution

This chapter introduced the theoretical model used to guide the work undertaken in this Ph.D. dissertation. The model draws largely on stress, relocation and work-family interaction literature to outline the backdrop against which the research was conducted and to develop an argument for its validity. The contribution of each collection of literature to the model was discussed. The stress literature was used to illustrate that relocation is stressful and carries negative consequences with it.

Family stress theory helped to show that relocation has the potential to cause changes in the lives of the employee and members of his/her (immediate) family. As such relocation can be perceived as stressful and carries negative consequences with it for both employee and family. Family stress theory also suggested that a number of factors act to mediate / moderate the relationship between relocation and outcome variables.

Relocation theory demonstrated that consequences of relocation can be physical, psychological, and behavioural. Though only relocation theory was initially used to develop the argument that the family is a system and family members thus influence each other, work-family literature and system theory were later injected to support and strengthen that premise. Theory and research about mobility could also usefully demonstrate that relocation can carry positive consequences with it. Finally, the theoretical model itself was used to suggest that relocation could additionally carry social and practical consequences with it.

As a result of the above arguments, the following project aims were established:

- **Aim 1**: Determine whether Royal Air Force personnel perceive relocation as stressful by investigating the negative consequences of relocation they experience.

- **Aim 2**: Determine whether the families (spouses & children) of Royal Air Force personnel perceive relocation as stressful by investigating the negative consequences of relocation they experience.

- **Aim 3**: Identify some of the factors that possibly mediate / moderate the relationship between relocation and negative outcomes for Royal Air Force families.

- **Aim 4**: Determine whether the consequences of relocation that RAF personnel and their families experience are physical, psychological, and behavioural.

- **Aim 5**: Investigate whether individuals are aware of the negative consequences their family experience as a result of relocation. Determine whether individuals feel influenced by their family's adjustment / difficulties.

- **Aim 6**: Investigate the positive consequences of relocation Royal Air Force personnel and their families experience.

- **Aim 7**: Determine whether RAF personnel and their families experience long-term consequences of relocation.

- **Aim 8**: Determine whether RAF personnel and their families also experience social and practical consequences of relocation.

These can more neatly be categorised into six distinct objectives:

- **Objective 1**: Explore the existence of negative consequences

- **Objective 2**: Match effects to existing outcome categories & create new ones

- **Objective 3**: Explore the existence of positive consequences

- **Objective 4**: Explore the existence of long-term consequences

- **Objective 5**: Explore which factors could influence relocation

- **Objective 6**: Explore whether individuals are aware of family consequences

1   Original Contribution

Using systems theory, the researcher has drawn up a theoretical model of how individual family members respond to moving stress (micro-level analysis). These individual models are drawn together to create a model, which assesses how the family responds to moving stress as a system (macro-level analysis). The research conducted as part of this doctoral enterprise will include employees and family members as participants. To my knowledge, although suggested in the literature, this type of design

has not been employed in past qualitative military relocation research. The use of the familial sample should be considered a major strength of the study.

The project also utilises a Royal Air Force sample, which represents one of the rare attempts to use a British military sample. This is despite the fact that soldiers, sailors, and airmen frequently move and thus constitute an excellent *extreme case* on which to study relocation and extend existing empirical knowledge. It is especially interesting, since aside from the frequency of the transience, the duration is also admirable. This offers the potential of discovering previously undetermined long-term effects of transfers.

Finally, this project will attempt to create a theory that clearly identifies the effects of relocation and also aims to develop a taxonomy to categorise these. It also hopes to add to existing theory in general.

Chapter 4 : Methodology

This chapter will be divided into three sections: Research strategies, research methodology, and conclusion. Section one introduces and evaluates potential research strategies in light of the current research topic, research objectives, methods in the literature, practical considerations, instructionality of approach, and preference. The subsequent section (Section II) will define the work strategy chosen for this project, offer a thorough sample description, delineate the research methodology in replicable detail, evaluate the research plan, and discuss reliability and validity. The final section offers a brief conclusion.

Section I : Research Strategies

The section focuses on the evaluation of existing research strategies. Such an evaluation is necessary before the commencement of any scientific endeavour in order to assure that the most appropriate research method is chosen. A solid and justifiable research methodology unquestionably adds to the value attributed to the findings. While a design that is not well researched and implemented may attract inaccurate results, a design that is too rigid may lead to absence of any results. Therefore this section outlines and evaluates commonly used research methods in relocation. Possible research designs are presented, compared with those used in the literature, and assessed in terms of their limitations.

1 Introduction to Research Methodologies

When determining the validity of a given methodology, one must trace the tool back to its epistemological roots: The quantitative and qualitative paradigm. The distinction between qualitative and quantitative methodology has been a discussion that the social sciences have pursued for the past 30 years (Hammersley, 1996). While some contend that qualitative and quantitative methods represent opposing paradigms with fundamentally different assumptions about the world and thus cannot be consolidated, others argue that qualitative and quantitative methodologies are simply different tools for data gathering and therefore complement each other (Hammersley, 1996).

1.1 The Quantitative Approach

Occupational research has become well recognised over the past few years. This is mainly due to the use of positivist epistemology and quantitative methods (King, 2000). Quantitative methods have advantages, which at the same time place restrictions upon them.

Quantitative methodologies have a long-standing history in research; they are well recognised and well tested (Griffiths, 1999). Results from quantitative data tend to be consistent and allow us to explain and predict phenomena by engaging in generalisability (Baum, 1995). Quantitative methods further allow researchers to reduce experiences and other complex phenomena to numbers (Baum, 1995). This simplifies the data and adds a degree of objectivity to analysis. It also permits a range of statistical analyses to be carried out quickly, which in turn lets researchers use a larger sample size (King, 1995; Smith, 1996).

However, quantitative methodology also carries disadvantages with it. By their very nature, these types of methods cannot be used to investigate all research questions (King, 2000). Psychological constructs and processes are neither concrete nor directly observable. They are concepts that do not exist in the physical world and are thus not always quantifiable (Finch, 1986). Indeed, quantitative investigations are often criticised for lacking real world value because variables in everyday settings cannot be neatly separated (King, 2000). It is often extremely difficult, if not impossible, to replicate laboratory effects in the outside world (Dachler, 2000; Woolgar, 1996).

Furthermore, the rigorous theory testing advocated by empiricism may act to reduce theory generation (Symon & Cassell, 1998). Finally, since quantitative methods are based on science, they are quite narrow and restrictive (Keen, 1975; Smith, Harr, & Van Langehove, 1995). They are conservative and flawed methods that only slowly bring the field forward (Baum, 1995; Smith et al., 1995).

1.2 The Qualitative Approach

Qualitative research is one of the oldest instruments humans use to learn about their physical and social environment, and has been existent for in excess of one thousand years. However, qualitative research has only been organised into a unified paradigm in terms of structure and design much more recently. In fact, the approach was developed in response to the limitations faced by quantitative research and as such commonly challenges the taken-for-granted assumptions of the positivist paradigm (King, 2000). For this reason, the qualitative approach has faced opposition from the beginning and continues to do so in the 21st Century. A host of advantages and disadvantages are connected with this methodology.

One of the major advantages of qualitative approaches is that the tools they employ are quite flexible and produce a great amount of data (King, 1994; King, 2000). Social phenomena are recognised as being complex and resulting from a blend of social, economic, political, and environmental factors.

Qualitative researchers do not believe that these factors can be teased out and studied in isolation (Baum, 1995), they therefore resort to fieldwork. The emphasis in qualitative work is much more on understanding than measurement (Symon & Cassell, 1998). In fact, qualitative methods allow researchers to approach a problem from a much more contextual perspective (Symon & Cassell, 1998), which has led to breakthroughs in many fields (King, 2000).

On the other hand, qualitative methods are often dismissed on the basis of their focus on the subjective. They are viewed as "soft" alternatives to quantitative research that cannot contribute to scientific knowledge (Baum, 1995; Richardson, 1996). Additionally, research is often evaluated by positivistic standards and the use of non-positivist methods is sometimes seen as a threat to the status of research - There is a general unfamiliarity with qualitative methods (Symon, Cassell, & Dickson, 2000).

In actual fact, one of the main drawbacks of qualitative methods is their recency (Richardson, 1996). The qualitative design is simply not as well organised and formulated as its quantitative opponent. Additionally, scientists are concerned that qualitative methods cannot satisfy the positivistic criteria of reliability, validity, and generalisability (Symon & Cassell, 1998; Dachler, 2000). Notwithstanding the rejection of statistical analysis, qualitative research is not easy (Richardson, 1996). Qualitative analysis is often said to be very time-consuming and as challenging as quantitative analysis (Johnson & Cassell, 2001). However, some researchers continue to view it as illegitimate, non-scholarly, non-rigorous, and invalid (Kerlin, 2000).

1.3 Methodological Selection

Clearly both methods have their strengths. It seems apparent that, despite their differences, qualitative and quantitative methodologies offer complementary tools for data collection (Hammersley, 1996). Therefore the debate should not simply be which type of methodology to employ but rather which type of methodology is most appropriately under which conditions. Indeed, the use of qualitative or quantitative methods generally depends upon six factors (Punch, 1998): (1) The research topic, (2) the research question, (3) methods found in the literature, (4) practical considerations, (5) which approach will be more instructional, and the (6) personal preference for the approach. Each of these considerations will be discussed in turn.

The Research Topic

The general research topic is relocation. More specifically, this study investigates the effects that relocation has on Royal Air Force (RAF) families. The goal is to elicit a clearer understanding of RAF relocation and its consequences on individual family members. Since the emphasis is evidently on understanding, qualitative methods appear most appropriate (Hammersley, 1996).

Indeed, quantitative methods would limit the freedom of response that is necessary in order to encour-

age participants to provide in-depth contextual information. Relocation is a complex topic (Brett & Werbel, 1980) and this detailed information is required to extend the understanding of the area. It is believed that qualitative methods will provide the necessary flexibility to uncover trends and themes otherwise hidden (Leary, 2001).

In this study, the overarching research purpose is the identification of trends in the consequences that geographical relocation has on Royal Air Force (RAF) families. For this purpose, qualitative research is best suited for various reasons. First of all, limited amount of previous research that could guide quantitative methods exists in this area: Very little work is directly related to military families and qualitative studies are rare. It would be naive and simplistic to expect military families to encounter the same problems during relocation as their civilian counterparts, since this would deny the role of individual and situational factors.

Again, not enough qualitative information exists about this sample to form the basis for an outcome check-list or questionnaire approach to relocation research. Furthermore, quantitative assessment has no direction without a solid basis of qualitative work (Felce & Perry, 1995) and exploratory research will allow the researcher to uncover issues not previously accounted for in the literature. Finally, researchers in the field are calling for more qualitative research (e.g. Sullivan & Bhagat, 1992; Parasuraman & Greenhaus, 2002).

The Research Questions / Objectives

This research project aims to identify the effects relocation has on Royal Air Force families. After a review of the literature, the study was narrowed to address the following aims:

- **Objective 1**: Explore the existence of negative consequences

- **Objective 2**: Match the effects to existing and new outcome categories

- **Objective 3**: Explore the existence of positive outcomes

- **Objective 4**: Explore the existence of long-term consequences

- **Objective 5**: Explore which factors could influence relocation

- **Objective 6**: Explore whether individuals are aware of family outcomes

As can be seen, these objectives do not take the form of questions and they cannot simply be achieved by answering yes or no (or even to which degree). These objectives represent qualitative inquires which often take the form of statements rather than questions, as is the case with empirical hypothesis (King, 1994; Symon & Cassell, 1998). In qualitative research, hypotheses tend to be the result rather than the starting point of investigation (Woolgar, 1996). Each research objective will now be assessed on the basis of its compatibility with qualitative vs. quantitative methods.

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

Objective one is to explore the existence of negative relocation consequences in a military sample. Since we cannot reliably say that military and civilian relocations are similar, we cannot transfer civilian outcomes onto military settings (King, 2000). Thus we cannot ask military personnel whether they have experienced those consequences cited in the largely civilian-based literature (i.e. one cannot produce and employ a quantitative 'symptom checklist'). Also, the creation of such a checklist may act to influence participants' responses, adding unnecessary bias (Symon & Cassell, 1998). It is thus necessary to adopt an open qualitative approach in order to address the research objectives appropriately.

Additionally, it is important to remember that many of the outcomes are subjective to the respondent's experience (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Thus the most appropriate strategy is to ask individuals directly what negative consequences they have experienced. In this case, the semi-structured interview (a qualitative instrument) would provide the most appropriate research tool. Objective three follows a very similar logic, though it is noteworthy that even less research on positive relocation consequences exists (Brett, 1992). This strengthens the necessity for further qualitative research in the area.

The matching of relocation consequences to existing categories and the creation of new categories where these are not deemed suitable, represents objective two. This objective refers largely to the creation of a theoretical taxonomy of relocation outcomes. The construction of such a framework, although undoubtedly partially influenced by existing theory and data, corresponds to an act of theory formation (Nicholson, 1990). In qualitative research, theory is thought to be more receptive and creative (Symon & Cassell, 1998).

Quantitative methodology, on the other hand, restricts theory generation by forcing theories into existing moulds and subjecting them to extensive testing (Symon & Cassell, 1998). This process limits the number of competing theories available at any one time (Symon & Cassell, 1998). Further, the process of falsification is difficult and does not allow any theory to be accepted with a high degree of certainty (Smith, 1996). Objective four, the exploration of long-term relocation consequences, also denotes an attempt to formulate theory. Therefore, similar arguments apply.

The exploration of factors which could influence relocation corresponds to objective five. The reasoning behind the appropriateness of qualitative research in this instance stems from similar arguments as objective one and three: Little research on military family relocation has been conducted. As a result, no comprehensive list of factors that mediate and/or moderate military relocation exist, necessitating the employment of a qualitative approach (Symon & Cassell, 1998). If potential mediating / moderating factors have not been identified, it is impossible to test these quantitatively with any degree of certainty (Symon & Cassell, 1998).

Therefore the most fitting strategy would be to openly query individuals about relocation in interviews. Undoubtedly, throughout the process of interviewing, individuals would reveal factors that could potentially influence the relationship between relocation and its consequences (Woolgar, 1995). The advantage of this approach is that individuals will not only reveal those factors that they consciously believe to influence the relationship but also inadvertently discuss factors of which they are only subconsciously aware (Leary, 2001).

Objective six explores whether individuals are aware of family consequences of relocation and how this impacts upon them. In order to gain a complete picture of family relocation, all members of the family must be involved in the research process. It is also important to compare RAF personnel with families to those without families in order to identify what (if any) influence the family has on the relocation experience. Since no precedent or template for such research currently exists, it is best to approach the research question from an exploratory and qualitative angle.

Qualitative methodology can be used to communicate with RAF employees and their families (spouses and children) regarding their moving experiences and the role of family in the relocation process. This will also allow the researcher to qualitatively compare the responses from RAF personnel with families to those without families.

The general consensus appears to be that qualitative methods represent valid tools for the exploration of a relatively novel research topic (Hammersley, 1996). Additionally, these methods are formative when the matter of investigation is at least partially subjective (Woolgar, 1996). Since one could argue that relocation is a highly individualised process, qualitative research appears most appropriate (Bauer, 2000). In other words, this research attempts to study qualitative aims regarding the nature of relocation rather than simply investigating facts which can be quantified (Symon & Cassell, 1998).

With the aid of qualitative methodology it will not only be easier to address the specific research objectives; theory development will also be more appropriate and less difficult (Symon & Cassell, 1999). Quantitative methods, on the other hand, could potentially restrict the study since they provide too much structure for the researcher to accomplish the research aims (King, 2000).

Methods in the Literature

Research in the area of relocation tends to be quite applied, since the traditional experimental research design is difficult to implement (Keen, 1975). Due to the wealth of variables involved, it is simply not possible to simulate transience in an unnatural environment such as a laboratory. Even if it was possible to simulate relocation, the ethical concerns and high cost arising out of replication would make it highly unlikely. The consequence has been a host of studies conducted in the field.

Despite fieldwork commonly being seen as a more liberal representation of science (Woolgar, 1996;

King, 2000), research in this area remains largely quantitative. Relocation researchers heavily rely on questionnaires and sophisticated statistical analysis (e.g. Anderson & Spruill, 1993; Carruthers & Pinder, 1983; Peterson, 2001). When qualitative methods are employed, they tend to be utilised in exploratory phases of research and are commonly combined with quantitative methods (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1980; Forster, 1990). Please review Appendix G for a summary of methodology employed in past relocation studies.

Few research studies utilise refreshing or novel approaches to relocation. The most commonly used methods in this area are undoubtedly questionnaires and interviews (in that order). Though often used in isolation, these tools have also been used in combination (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1980). Despite much criticism about the value of cross-sectional research (King, 2000) the literature encompasses few longitudinal designs. This means that many studies cannot report cause-effect relationships.

In addition, most studies utilise a self-report approach. Self-report has been challenged on many grounds but receives most fierce opposition because of its subjectivity. The nature of self-report prevents it from being objective and relies entirely on the interpretations of respondents (Cohen, Towbes, & Flocco, 1988). This has led to claims that research employing this method is invalid and unreliable since responses may be falsified by participants (Spector, 1994).

Conversely, self-report methodology can be justified with the conceptualisation of relocation as a subjective experience (Spector, 1994; Symon & Cassell, 1998). When a construct is conceptualised as an individual experience, it means that by definition it can only be measured subjectively and thus any method that does not utilise self-report becomes invalid because it cannot accurately reflect the construct it is aiming to measure (Spector, 1994). Additionally, under conditions of confidence and anonymity, no motive for individuals to falsify their responses exist.

In summary, the two most common research tools employed in relocation research are questionnaires and interviews. Since questionnaires do not fit the nature of the research topic or objectives, the researcher proposes the use of semi-structured interviews. These are best suited to the exploratory research objectives and will enable the expansion and extension of existing knowledge about relocation. There are no objections to the use of such methodology, since it has frequently and successfully been used in the relocation studies (e.g. Pinder, 1977; Fisher & Shaw, 1994).

Practical Considerations

In order to completely answer all research objectives, it is necessary to research RAF employees, their spouses, and their children. The research tool employed must therefore be flexible enough to adapt to all of these sub-sample categories. Especially when considering doing research with children, interviews appear necessary. Children often cannot complete instruments alone, get distracted, and find it more difficult to understand (Leary, 2001). Questionnaires are non-responsive and cannot react

to the questioning or clear up the misunderstanding of a child. Semi-structured interviews are much more flexible and adaptable research tools, which can be modified to suit the needs of different groups of participants (King, 1994).

Instructionality

Qualitative methods have a wider scope than quantitative methods (Symon & Cassell, 1998). Instead of simply answering a research question, they obtain a vast amount of descriptive information about a topic (King, 2000). This enables the expansion of knowledge and theory development (Symon & Cassell, 1998). Arguably then, at least in this instance, qualitative methods are more instructional and informative than quantitative methods.

Preference

Although having been trained largely on quantitative methodology and being more comfortable with statistical than qualitative approaches, in this particular instance qualitative methodology is most suitable. Thus, qualitative tools are the author's objective and subjective preference for this research project. Despite the acceptance and appropriateness of a qualitative approach, some of the elements of this report may nonetheless appear positivistic due to the author's background and training in quantitative methodology.

Summary

In close, qualitative methods are most appropriate to this research topic. Qualitative methodology offers a wide range of investigative techniques that possess the flexibility necessitated by the research objectives. Another advantage of the qualitative approach is that it has repeatedly been used successfully in the relocation context. The final methodological design is outlined below.

Section II : Research Methodology

This section delineates the actual research design utilised in this doctoral study in light of the research aims and objectives previously set out. The report of the procedures will include a detailed sample description, in addition to providing a thorough account of the methods and measures utilised.

1 Sample Description & Demographics

29 RAF personnel without families, 33 RAF personnel with families, 33 RAF spouses, and 15 RAF children participated in the research (N = 110). All respondents were based in the United Kingdom and volunteered to participate. This section will define and present the demographics for each subgroup of

the sample. Demographic information regarding the gender, age, rank, number and ages of children, spousal employment, accommodation, rank, military tenure, number of postings, number of moves, time since last move and expected time until next move was collected where appropriate. Please review the respective sections below for details.

1.1 RAF (Single)

RAF personnel without families, also called RAF (single) or RAF (S), were those participants who declared themselves to be without family. They *were not* legally (through marriage) or emotionally (through long-term commitment) bound to a partner of the same or opposite sex. This category includes single parents and divorcees. A description of the demographics for this subgroup follows.

Twenty-nine single RAF personnel were interviewed for the purpose of this research. The consent of the interviewee was obtained prior to the interview (Please review Appendix H). Fifteen participants were male, while fourteen were female. The age of interviewees ranged from 19 to 47 years, with an average age of 30.1 years. 7 of the single RAF personnel were parents. The number of children ranged from 0 to 2, with an average number of 0.3. The ages of children in this group ranged from 1 to 16 years with an average age of 9.0.

Well over half of the single RAF personnel that were interviewed lived on base (18). Individuals living off base either resided in their privately owned home (9) or lived in privately rented accommodation (2). The ranks in the sample ranged from LAC to GP CPT and included 1 Group Captain, 4 Flight Lieutenants, 1 Flying Officer, 2 Flight Sergeants, 5 Sergeants, 3 Corporals, 1 Junior Technician, 10 SACs, and 2 LACs. Please see Appendix I for a list of ranks and abbreviations.

In the military it is necessary to distinguish between a posting and a move. A *posting* is an appointment or position; thus to *be posted* means to be appointed to a new position (i.e. a posting occurs when an individual is transferred from one job to another). This, however, does not always necessitate geographical relocation since the new position may be at the same site or in close proximity to that site. A *move* is synonymous with geographical relocation and does not always (but tends to) entail a job transfer.

The amount of military moving experience service personnel had varied from a single move to thirteen moves. Interviewees had on average moved 5.9 times with the RAF. Likely due to moves associated with rank change (i.e. through entitlement to a larger quarter), the number of postings was slightly lower. It ranged from one to thirteen, with an average of 5.7 postings. The shortest period of time for which an individual had experienced the RAF lifestyle was six months and the longest was twenty-six years. The average number of years spent living the RAF lifestyle was 10.6 years. The time since the most recent move and until the next move varied widely among respondents. See tables below for more detail.

Time since last move	Frequency
Less than 6 months since last move	7
6 months or more (not including or exceeding 1 yr) since move	4
1 year or more (not including or exceeding 1.5 yrs) since move	6
1.5 years or more (not including or exceeding 2 yrs) since move	5
2 or more years since last move	7
Total	29

Table 4.1: RAF (S) Interviews: Time Elapsed Since Most Recent move

Time until next move	Frequency
Less than 6 months until next move	6
6 months or more (not including or exceeding 1 yr) until move	3
1 year or more (not including or exceeding 1.5 yrs) until move	1
1.5 years or more (not including or exceeding 2 yrs) until move	8
2 or more years until next move	8
Never	1
Don't know	2
Total	29

Table 4.2: RAF (S) Interviews: Time Until Next Move

1.2 RAF (Family)

RAF personnel with families, also called RAF (family) or RAF (F), were those participants who declared themselves to be with family. They *were* legally (through marriage) or emotionally (through long-term commitment) bound to a partner of the same or opposite sex. Though children were present in many cases, this was not a precondition for acceptance. Although this category explicitly included long-term partnerships, most respondents were married. This is perhaps unsurprising considering the benefits associated with marriage in military life (e.g. increased financial rewards and the right to a military quarter). A demographic description is provided next.

Thirty-three married RAF personnel were interviewed for the purpose of this research. The consent of the interviewee was obtained prior to the interview. Thirty participants were male, while three were female. The age of interviewees ranged from 23 to 52 years, with an average age of 36.6. A large proportion (26) of the interviewed RAF personnel had employed spouses. Weekly working hours for spouses ranged from eight to sixty hours. The average working week for RAF spouses consisted of 23.7 hours.

Most RAF (family) personnel were also parents (26). The number of children ranged from 0 to 3, with an average number of 1.4. The ages of children in this group ranged from 6 months to 22 years with an mean age of 12.2. The average number of children actually residing at home was slightly lower at 1.3. Children lived outside of the parental home for a number of reasons including: Having grown-up and moved out of the home, attending university, residing with their other parent, and attending boarding school.

More than half of the RAF personnel that were interviewed lived on base (20). Most of the individuals living off base resided in their privately owned home (11). Other options included living in military accommodation located on a married patch outside of the base (1) and in privately rented accommodation (1). The ranks in this sample ranged from SAC to GP CPT and included 2 Group Captains, 4 Wing Commanders, 4 Squadron Leaders, 2 Flying Officers, 1 Flight Sergeants, 6 Sergeants, 8 Corporals, 1 Junior Technician, and 2 SACs.

The amount of military moving experience service personnel had varied from no moves to an impressive eighteen moves. Interviewees had on average moved with the RAF 7.3 times. Likely due to re-touring, the number of postings was slightly higher. It ranged from two to eighteen, with an average of 7.5 postings. The shortest period of time for which an individual been employed by the RAF was three years and the longest was twenty-nine years. The mean number of years spent living the RAF lifestyle was 16 years. The time since the most recent move and until the next move varied widely among respondents. See tables below for more detail.

Time since last move	Frequency
Less than 6 months since last move	5
6 months or more (not including or exceeding 1 yr) since move	3
1 year or more (not including or exceeding 1.5 yrs) since move	9
1.5 years or more (not including or exceeding 2 yrs) since move	6
2 or more years since last move	10
Total	33

Table 4.3: RAF (F) Interviews: Time Elapsed Since Most Recent Move

Time until next move	Frequency
Less than 6 months until next move	5
6 months or more (not including or exceeding 1 yr) until move	5
1 year or more (not including or exceeding 1.5 yrs) until move	2
1.5 years or more (not including or exceeding 2 yrs) until move	2
2 or more years until next move	9
Never	4
Don't know	6
Total	33

Table 4.4: RAF (F) Interviews: Time Until Next Move

1.3 Spouses

Spouses were defined as individuals, regardless of gender, whom were legally (through marriage) or emotionally (through long-term commitment) bound to a partner employed in the RAF. However, it should be noted that all respondents were legally married to someone in the RAF. This is likely due to the previously mentioned advantages of married military life but could also have resulted from the way in which participants were solicited (through the Airwaves Families Association). The readers should

take notice of two additionally details. Firstly, since personnel and spouses were solicited separately, spouses who participated in the research were not necessarily involved with the RAF (F) personnel that were interviewed. Also, spouses could also be serving in the RAF themselves. An account of their demographic characteristics follows.

Thirty-three spouses of RAF personnel were interviewed for the purpose of this research. The consent of the interviewee was obtained prior to the interview. Twenty-nine of the participants were females, while four were male. The age of interviewees ranged from 25 to 52 years, with an average age of 38. A large proportion (27) of the spouses was employed with weekly working hours ranging from one to fifty-five hours. The average working week for RAF spouses consisted of 16 hours.

Most of the interviewees were parents (29). The number of children spouses had ranged from 0 to 5, with an average number of 1.9. The ages of children in this group ranged from 0 to 25 with an average age of 7.1. The number and ages of children actually residing at home was slightly different. The number of children living at home ranged from 0-5 and achieved a lower average of 1.5. The age of children living at home ranged from 0 to 13 with a mean age of 4.7.

More than half of the spouses that were interviewed lived off base (18). Of these individuals, 11 lived in military accommodation located on a married patch outside of the base while 7 resided in their privately owned home. The ranks of the interviewees' spouses ranged from SAC to GP CPT, and included 3 Group Captains, 3 Wing Commanders, 9 Squadron Leaders, 7 Flight Lieutenants, 2 Flight Sergeants, 4 Sergeants, 2 Corporals, 2 Junior Technicians, and 1 Senior Aircraftsman.

The amount of moving experience spouses had varied from a single move to an impressive twenty-four moves. Spouses had on average moved with the RAF 6.7 times. Likely due to moves into new accommodation (e.g. as the result of promotion), the number of postings was slightly lower. It ranged from one to twenty-one, with an average of 6.5 moves. The shortest period of time for which an individual had experienced the RAF lifestyle was three years and the longest was thirty years. The average number of years spent living an RAF lifestyle was 12. Ten of the interviewed spouses had moved less than six months ago. See tables below for more detail.

Time since last move	Frequency
Less than 6 months since last move	10
6 months or more (not including or exceeding 1 yr) since move	7
1 year or more (not including or exceeding 1.5 yrs) since move	3
1.5 years or more (not including or exceeding 2 yrs) since move	6
2 or more years since last move	7
Total	33

Table 4.5: Spousal Interviews: Time Elapsed Since Most Recent Move

Time until next move	Frequency
Less than 6 months until next move	5
6 months or more (not including or exceeding 1 yr) until move	3
1 year or more (not including or exceeding 1.5 yrs) until move	2
1.5 years or more (not including or exceeding 2 yrs) until move	4
2 or more years until next move	10
Never	1
Don't know	8
Total	33

Table 4.6: Spousal Interviews: Time Until Next Move

1.4 Children

Children were considered suitable if either of their parents was in the RAF. Further, only children between the ages of 5 (on grounds of memory and comprehension) and 17 (on the grounds that legal adulthood starts at 18) were interviewed. Greater detail regarding the demographics of the sample follows.

Fifteen children of RAF personnel were interviewed for the purpose of this research. The consent of both the child and the parent were obtained prior to the interview (see Appendix H-2 to review the design of the consent form). Six of the participants were females, while nine were male. The age of the interviewees ranged from 5 to 17 years, with an average age of 9. All children were born into RAF life, meaning that their parents joined the Royal Air Force before having children.

Six of the children were living at home at the time they were interviewed, while nine were attending boarding school. The number of moves the children had experienced ranged from a single move to eleven moves. The average number of times a child in this sample had moved was 5.2. It is interesting to note that six of the children had moved less than six months prior to the interview. Eight of the interviewed did not know when to expect another move.

Time since last move	Frequency
Less than 6 months since last move	6
6 months or more (not including or exceeding 1 yr) since move	0
1 year or more (not including or exceeding 1.5 yrs) since move	0
1.5 years or more (not including or exceeding 2 yrs) since move	3
2 or more years since last move	6
Total	15

Table 4.7: Child Interviews: Time Elapsed Since Most Recent Move

Time until next move	Frequency
Less than 6 months until next move	0
6 months or more (not including or exceeding 1 yr) until move	0
1 year or more (not including or exceeding 1.5 yrs) until move	0
1.5 years or more (not including or exceeding 2 yrs) until move	1
2 or more years until next move	1
Never	0
Don't know	8
Total	15

Table 4.8: Child Interviews: Time Until Next Move

Summary

Single RAF personnel were largely male (52%), without children (76%), living on base (62%), and on average 30.1 years old. The rank make-up consisted of enlisted personnel (45%), non-commissioned / junior officers (52%), and senior officers (3%). The average number of moves was 5.9, while the average number of postings was 5.7. RAF tenure consisted of 10.6 years.

RAF personnel with families were largely male (91%), had children (79%), living on base (61%), and on average slightly older at 36.6 years old. In addition, most of the individuals representing this sample had employed spouses (79%) with an approximately part-time working week (average 23.7 hours / week). The rank make-up consisted of enlisted personnel (9%), non-commissioned / junior officers (51%), and senior officers (30%). The average number of moves was 7.3 times, while the average number of postings was 7.5 times. RAF tenure was on average 16 years.

Spouses were largely female (88%), had children (88%), lived off base (55%), and were on average 38 years old. Most of the spouses were in employment (82%) and had an average working week of 16 hours. The rank make-up of their RAF spouses consisted of enlisted personnel (9%), non-commissioned / junior officers (45.5%), and senior officers (45.5%). The average amount of moving experience of spouses was 6.7 times, while the average number of postings was 6.5 times. Spouses had been living the RAF lifestyle for an average of 12 years.

Children were largely male (60%), on average 9.5 years old, and had all been born into RAF life. The average number of moves within the group was 5.2 times. There are some differences between the sub-samples. However, these differences are expected and easily explained.

In close, the sample is distinctive from the samples commonly utilised in the literature. Past research has largely focused on managerial samples and seldom been expanded to include family members. The present study adds to the literature by investigating relocation with a relatively unexplored sample of frequent movers, in other words, Royal Air Force personnel and their families.

2 Population Statistics & Representativeness

Statistical information obtained from the Defence Analytical Services Agency (DASA) indicates that the total strength of the British Armed Forces is currently at 187 970 individuals (DASA, 2005a). Of these, 30 670 are officers and 157 300 enlisted personnel. By service, the Army employs the greatest proportion of staff with 102 440 members (14 020 officers, 88 420 soldiers). Conversely, the Royal Air Force currently has 49 210 individuals in its service (9 770 officers, 39 400 airmen), while the Navy has 36 320 (6 870 officers, 29 450 sailors) uniformed personnel on staff.

In order to establish the degree to which the current sample is representative of the RAF population in general, a series of comparisons were conducted based on the demographic information available for the current sample and demographic characteristic available through DASA (DASA 2005a, 2005b, 2005c, 2005d). The comparison between the current sample and the population is limited since the information available was restricted. Despite repeated requests by the researcher for additional information from DASA, this could not be obtained. Therefore, the comparison of sample and population is limited to RAF personnel only. For tables containing the available demographic information for the population, please consult Appendix J.

In terms of gender, the sample deviated only slightly from the population. The study somewhat over-sampled female RAF personnel. Out of 62 individuals (33 persons with families and 29 single persons), 45 were male and 17 were female. This translates into a sample proportion of 73% male, 27% female. In the RAF population, the percentage of male employees is slightly higher at 88% male (43 305 individuals) vs. 12% female (5 905 individuals). However, the proportions are still comparable.

Additionally, the average in the sample was slightly above that presented in the population. The mean age of respondents in this study was equivalent to 33.6 years, whilst the mean age of members of the RAF in general lies at 32.5 years. Nonetheless, the sample can be considered fairly representative in terms of age. Review the table below for more insight into the age make-up of the sample.

Age	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
19	4	6.5	6.5	6.5
21	1	1.6	1.6	8.1
22	1	1.6	1.6	9.7
23	5	8.1	8.1	17.7
24	2	3.2	3.2	21.0
25	1	1.6	1.6	22.6
26	1	1.6	1.6	24.2
27	2	3.2	3.2	27.4
28	1	1.6	1.6	29.0
29	2	3.2	3.2	32.3
30	1	1.6	1.6	33.9
31	1	1.6	1.6	35.5
32	4	6.5	6.5	41.9
33	3	4.8	4.8	46.8
34	2	3.2	3.2	50.0
35	2	3.2	3.2	53.2
36	4	6.5	6.5	59.7
37	3	4.8	4.8	64.5
38	4	6.5	6.5	71.0
39	2	3.2	3.2	74.2
41	5	8.1	8.1	82.3
42	3	4.8	4.8	87.1
43	3	4.8	4.8	91.9
44	1	1.6	1.6	93.5
46	1	1.6	1.6	95.2
47	1	1.6	1.6	96.8
48	1	1.6	1.6	98.4
52	1	1.6	1.6	100.0
Total	62	100.0	100.0	

Table 4.9: Age of Interviewed RAF Personnel

The one demographic characteristic that is reversed in the sample in comparison with the population is the rank structure. The sample utilised in the present study, is top-heavy consisting of 72% (or 42) officers and 28% (or 16) other ranks. In the population of RAF employees, however, officers only represent 20% (or 9 700) of the composition, whilst other ranks represent 80% (39 400). Review the table below for more insight into the rank make-up of the sample.

Rank	Number of Respondents
GP CPT	3
WNG CDR	4
SQ LDR	4
FLT LT	4
FL OFF	3
FLT SGT	3
SGT	11
CPL	11
JT	2
SAC	12
LAC	2
Missing	3
Total	58

Table 4.10: Rank Make-up of Interviewed RAF Personnel

NB. Ranks falling into the shaded area represent "other ranks". All ranks in unshaded areas represent "officer ranks".

3 Procedures

Semi-structured, approximately one-hour long interviews were conducted with all participants. The interviews were carried out by a single interviewer who followed a general interview guide that allowed for some probing. The interview questions were tested on a small sample of RAF families, critically evaluated by occupational psychologists and the RAF Families Association (Airwaves), and amended before being employed in this study.

Access to RAF families (spouses & children) was negotiated through Airwaves, the RAF Families Association. Calls for volunteers were published on the RAF Community Support Website, at the bi-annual Airwaves conference, in the Airwaves magazine, and through individual Airwave representatives. As a result, spouses from all over the U.K. contacted the researcher to participate in interviews. Interviews were generally arranged via the telephone and, in order to save the respondents' time and make participation more convenient, conducted in the family home.

Access to RAF personnel was negotiated through RAF Innsworth, Headquarter Personnel & Training Command (HQ PTC) of the Royal Air Force. Four U.K. units were selected for this research; two of the units were strike stations, while the other two were personnel & training units. Strike stations are stations used for the detachment and deployment of troops. In reflection of their operational nature, they tend to host a greater proportion of pilots and ground staff. Training units, on the other hand, have the preparation for operations as their primary mission and thus tend to have a high number of administrators on staff. HQ PTC provided the researcher with a contact person, who was in charge of organising volunteers for this research, at each of the units. Generally volunteers were solicited through base bulletins, round letters, personal contact, and/or e-mail. Interviews with RAF personnel were conducted in a closed room at the work unit during working hours.

Interview questions were based on a thorough literature review. This review revealed six major themes in

relocation: General change, new tasks, difficulties, coping, outcomes, and assistance / support (consult the adjoining section for a detailed discussion on the development of these themes). Since the interviews were exploratory in nature and aimed at collecting a vast range of data about the entirety of the move, questions were phrased to capture all of these themes. Please view Appendix K for an overview of the questions used in adult and child interviews.

Additionally, some demographic data was obtained (review sample description above). Adult participants were asked about their gender, age, spousal employment (hrs/week), number and ages of children, accommodation status, number of military postings, number of military moves, military tenure, time of last move, and time of next move. Children were only asked to provide information about gender, age, and number of moves. Further, questions included two quantitative queries. The first related to how individuals felt about moving on a scale from 1 - 5, while the second assessed the perceived quality of RAF relocation support on a similar scale. It was expected that children would struggle to answer the question regarding RAF support; it was thus excluded from their question set. Interviews ranged from 20 minutes to 2 hours and were on average approximately one hour long. Meetings were tape-recorded if participants were in agreement; since no participant refused, all interviews were recorded.

Although none of the interviews ended prematurely, three spousal interviews were disrupted. In one instance, the interviewee had to repeatedly leave the room in order to tend to one of his/her children. The child was ill. Another interview was interrupted by a neighbour ringing the doorbell and wishing to visit the interviewee. The final and most profound instance of disruption occurred when the researcher asked one specific individual how they felt about moving. The response of the interviewee was to break out in tears and leave the room. The person returned approximately fifteen minutes later, still sobbing and very apologetic. S/he was informed that s/he did not have to complete the interview or answer any questions s/he was uncomfortable with. The respondent chose to continue with the interview.

Research with children always requires an additional degree of vigilance. In anticipation of the upcoming interviews, the researcher familiarised herself with child research and read several ethic guides on the use of children in psychological studies. Additionally, a criminal record check was conducted in order to ensure that the person interviewing children did not constitute a threat to children. Also, both parents and children were asked to sign a consent form after it had been read aloud and understanding was confirmed.

As a final precaution, in order to prevent the researcher being alone with children at any point in time, the parents were asked to be present during the meeting. Regardless of the fact that parents were asked not to become involved in the interview, their influence cannot be ruled out. However, the ethics of the researcher, in this case safety of the researcher and participant, come before the research objectives and justify the use of this technique. Moreover, one may also argue that parents actually facilitated the interviewing process by creating a comfort zone in which the child could answer questions honestly without fear of consequence.

Despite extensive preparation by the researcher, some of the child interviews proved difficult. Especially young children appeared to be confused at times and were unsure of their answers. Others struggled to describe phenomena or lost concentration. One interview in particular was a challenge. The respondent suffered from

attention deficit disorder (ADD) and had a very difficult time concentrating. His/her focus was so poor that s/he even went to play in the middle of interview. In future projects, it may be advisable to work with slightly older children that do not suffer from attention disorders or obtain detailed interview training from a specialist in the field.

Interestingly, none of the interviews with RAF employees was interrupted. Then again, this is perhaps not surprising, considering that the sessions took place in a closed meeting room at their place of employment: Fewer distractions would be expected.

3.1 Themes

As previously mentioned, the six major themes according to which the text was coded were: Change, new task, difficulty, coping, outcome, and support. It may be of relevance to state that these themes are not exclusive but rather have been chosen to represent the entirety of the relocation process by capturing the major variables involved in transience and inquiring about them in the questions. It is the aim of this segment of the report to adequately explain the origins of these themes. First of all, it is important to understand the meaning of a theme. A theme refers to a pattern in the data; it is a way in which segments of texts may usefully be grouped together to facilitate later analysis.

There are two common forms of theme derivation: Inductive and deductive. Inductive approaches lend themselves to the production of themes by the researcher during the process of coding and analysis (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). Deductive approaches base thematic codes on theoretical considerations drawn from the literature (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000). In other words, the research question guided by theory informs the categorisation of text material (Bauer, 2000).

Inductive theme creation is often seen as a more creative, more evolutionary, and less restrictive process (Miles & Hubermann, 1998). Despite its advantages, the in vivo (in process) establishment of themes for qualitative analysis also has some drawbacks. First of all, the approach operates on the premise that coders are not aware of the literature (Miles & Hubermann, 1998). This is a difficult condition to satisfy for those engrossed in the field: One must be aware of the changes in the field in order to develop it. Additionally, many researchers come from a positivistic background that endorses and trains the deductive approach; the application of deductive techniques may thus be subconscious.

The inductive process is highly subjective since researchers derive their answers purely on the basis of their own interpretations of the data (Bauer, 2000; Krippendorff, 1980). This has attracted fierce criticism (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000) and it is generally acknowledged that the deductive method offers a more objective or guided alternative (Krippendorff, 1980). Finally, deductionism is more established and more commonly used, leading to the view of this type of research as the ordinary and accepted approach (Bauer, 2000). Certainly in psychology it remains the dominant implement. Due to these considerations, the themes were created deductively on the basis of a thorough literature review.

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

Change

The first category, change, was defined as any factor highlighted by the participant that was altered as a result of moving. The origin of this theme lies largely with objective relocation research. A host of studies conducted by Pinder and his colleagues (Pinder, 1977; Carruthers & Pinder, 1983; Pinder & Schroeder, 1987) indicated that environmental change can have significant consequences on the way relocation is experienced.

In an attempt to estimate post-transfer satisfaction, Pinder (1977) tested the predictive effectiveness of fifteen variables (psychological, economic, other). These variables were: Increase in salary, overall satisfaction with organisational transfer policy, transfer rate at the company, ease of the move, spousal adjustment, time since move, job involvement, company commitment, total number of work-related moves, degree of extraversion, preference for location, standard of living change, pre-transfer notice given by company, whether the transfer had been requested, and rank/status promotion accompanying the transfer.

196 employees, mainly managers, from three Canadian corporations responded to mail questionnaires. Two questionnaires, one for the employee and one for the spouse, were designed from interviews with personnel managers and transferees. Out of the fifteen variables tested, four attained significance. Combined, preference for the new location, spousal adjustment, rate of previous transfers, and changes in standard of living predicted 38% of the variance in transfer satisfaction.

Most of the variance was explained by families' reactions toward the new location, which was assessed using a number of different urban characteristics including: Cost of living, housing cost, food costs, health care facilities, sports and recreation facilities, restaurants, radio and television stations, housing availability, climate, crime rate, provincial government, city size, cultural environment, physical environment, pollution, and availability/quality of public transport. Of these factors, city size, living and housing cost, housing availability, and cultural environment were best predictors of spousal satisfaction with their most recent move.

Carruthers & Pinder (1983) looked at the role of urban geographic factors in post-transfer location satisfaction in a sample of 405 employees and their spouses. The urban characteristics investigated included: Air quality, civic participation, climate, crime, cultural opportunities, education, ethnic diversity, growth rate, health care, cost of housing, missing persons, parks, police efficiency, population turnover, and vacancy rate. The results suggest that employees prefer growing and dynamic cities (higher turnover rates, higher housing costs).

Spouses, on the other hand, were more concerned about the quality of education, availability of parks, existing ethnic diversity, and opportunities for community involvement. Indeed, research with spouses shows that economic position and prior familiarity with the location predicted post-transfer satisfaction. Employment status of the spouse also had an effect on satisfaction.

Pinder & Schroeder (1987) used mail questionnaires to collect data from a sample of 354 employees, mainly managers, within eight different companies in seven Canadian industrial sectors. The dependent variable, time to proficiency, correlated most strongly with subjective factors. These factors included differences between job as well as perceived support at the new location. If the transfer was accompanied by a change in function, which may increase required learning, time to proficiency increased. No general effects were found for promotions

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or transfer experience. Nevertheless, when occupational group tenure was entered as a variable, time to proficiency decreased with transfer experience.

The three studies lead to a single conclusion: Changes in the objective environment and their interpretation can change the way individuals feel about relocation. Environmental change is thus an important factor to consider in any relocation study. Even though some of the urban factors investigated in these studies may not be directly pertinent to RAF personnel and their families, they are expected to have some effect.

The influence of urban factors is likely to be reduced in the current sample since most RAF families move from one military community to another. These types of communities do not tend to vary as much as regular communities; however, they are still subject to differences. Bases at various locations may differ with respect to some of the above factors, including climate, crime, facilities etc. The area surrounding the base, which will possess all of the above features, may also play an important role.

Other variables, such as prior familiarity with the location, may also be important in the research study. In the RAF, there are limited posting opportunities. It may therefore very well occur that individuals are stationed at the same location several times. This has to be taken into account as it reduced uncertainty/ambiguity. It, however, does not presuppose greater satisfaction or easier adjustment to the new location as past experience at that location may have been negative.

Furthermore, theory strengthens the argument that environmental change can influence relocation. Brett's Disruption Theory (1982, 1984) is an excellent example and can be used to support the claim. According to the theory, geographical relocation disrupts the routines of both work and private life. This disruption can lead to anxiety and stress, which are a function of the degree of total life change. In other words, the distress experienced after relocation is dependent upon the difference between old and new location/life circumstances. The greater the difference, the greater the degree of life change, and the greater the consequences experienced as a result of relocation.

Louis' (1980) Model of *Surprise & Sense Making* offers similar insights by maintaining that it is in fact the objective difference between new and old settings that represent the major feature of a move. In this theory, it is also the novelty that requires adjustment. Therefore, the number of different elements from one location to another and the degree of difference between them determines adjustment.

New Tasks

A new task was defined as any activity associated with the move from one location and/or employment to another. The foundation of this category comes from a combination of studies that classify relocation tasks as stressful. These studies include Anderson & Spruill (1993); SFTF (2003); Hackman & Oldham (1975); and Harigopal (1995). Theoretical contributions by Nicholson (1990) and Lazarus (1991) further strengthen the claim for inclusion of relocations tasks in the current research project.

Anderson & Spruill (1993) found that the additional tasks associated with relocation can be stressful and require coping by illustrating that husbands usually provided active social support (e.g. delegating tasks,

helping with the house) in order to foster their partner's coping ability. The Service Families Task Force (2003) made similar observations when also recognising the task associated with moving as stressful. The task force identified in excess of thirty relocation tasks.

However, as documented by occupational researchers over thirty years ago, it is not only the number of tasks but also their nature that is important. The Job Diagnostic Survey (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) contains five core job dimensions: Skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback. Most of the relocation tasks especially in the final stages of transience, have little variety or significance, are difficult for an individual to identify with, and produce no feedback. Even autonomy is challenged. This is especially the case in military relocation, where the serving member has to sign off on all official paperwork. Thus, relocation tasks could be classified as monotonous and stressful.

Harigopal (1995) also supports the notion of task-related factors that induce stress. Relocation tasks may be difficult/complex tasks; under-stimulating; over-stimulating; conducted under strict/unrealistic deadlines; completed based on complex, unclear, incompatible information; accompanied by real/anticipated fear of performance failure; and accompanied by inadequate support. The results for individuals include the possibility of: Psychosomatic disorders, emotional exhaustion, reduced performance, anxiety, role stress, dysfunctional behaviour, alienation, frustration, and stress-related illness.

Theoretical support for the importance and inclusion of additional tasks in relocation research comes from Nicholson (1990) & Lazarus (1991). Nicholson maintains that the amount and complexity of relocation tasks invoke stress. He argues that simultaneously occurring tasks, which are placed in different functional domains, are most demanding. These types of tasks undoubtedly occur in the period surrounding relocation. Lazarus (1991) favours a slightly different approach and views tasks in general as stressful. Tasks are especially demanding if they are unfamiliar and challenging; or routine and under-stimulating.

All of these studies and theories support the idea that relocation tasks and stress are linked. Thus they provide valid support for the argument that relocation tasks are an important consideration in relocation research.

Difficulty

Difficulty was operationalised as any difficulty or problem arising from the posting or physical move. Relocation difficulty appears an obvious candidate for inclusion as a theme in the current project. Commonsense tells us that a difficult relocation is likely to carry more negative consequences with it than relatively eventless relocation. This notion is also supported by empirical literature.

In a seminal study, supported by the Employee Relocation Council, Brett & Werbel (1980) assessed the impact of relocation on employees and their families. For this purpose, fifty employees from ten companies were selected to participate in the longitudinal research study. The study consisted of three phases: Baseline Survey I, Movers Study, and Baseline Survey II. In phase one, a questionnaire was mailed to all selected families between winter 1977 and spring 1978. 350 completed questionnaires were returned to the authors, yielding a response rate of 70%.

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Phase two consisted of three telephone interviews. 100 family units (parents and children over seven) participated in the telephone survey. The first interview gathered data with respect to pre-move expectations and feelings. The next two interviews gathered post-move adjustment data. Of interest were adjustment to the new job (employee only) and the new community. However, Brett & Werbel (1980) only assessed community adjustment for spouses and children. Adjustment to work/school was completely neglected. The third and final stage consisted of another questionnaire. This questionnaire aimed to provide a final measurement of mover's adjustment. In this study, women who evaluated their last move as difficult tended to be negative about future moves. This indicates that the difficulty of the move had influenced their perception of relocation.

Fisher and Shaw (1994) used a sample of U.S. Air Force personnel to study pre- and post-relocation attitudes. The researchers also found that pre-move attitudes were affected by perceived difficulty associated with the most recent prior move. The finding thus corroborates Brett & Werbel's (1980) results.

Forster (1990) identified a series of relocation stressors, including housing (locating housing; price differences; finding solicitors; working long hours; lack of personal support; temporary living arrangements; and speed of relocation), social/communal aspects (leaving friends, relatives, neighbours, way of life; feeling homesick; and lack of information), and family commitments (spousal employment difficulties and periods of separation). He concluded that location changes can lead to employees and their families experiencing significant levels of stress and strain; this was found to be a direct function of the degree of difficulty experienced. This furthers the claim that difficulties constitute an important theme in relocation.

Finally, in his *Isomorphic Space Model* Lee (1990) defines moving as a physical, social, and psychological disturbance. He concludes that even though moves may at times fulfil a desired goal, they are plagued with difficulties and rarely 'smooth'. The difficulty of the move is thought to have a major bearing on the reactions towards it and the consequences following from it. This provides theoretical evidence for the value of difficulty in relocation research. Therefore, the variable must be included in both research and analysis.

Coping

Coping was defined along the problem- and emotion-focused dimensions set out by Folkman & Lazarus (1988) and Folkman et al. (1986a). These include confrontive coping, planful problem solving, distancing, self-control, accepting responsibility, positive reappraisal, escape-avoidance, and seeking social support.

Coping represents one of the most influential and researched variables in relocation. This alone should justify its inclusion in a relocation research project. Examples of studies employing coping exist of but are not limited to Ballinger (2002), Brett (1992), Cornille (1993), Feldman & Brett (1983), Finchum (2003), Lu & Cooper (1995), Munton & Forster (1990), Munton & West, (1995), Orthner (2002), and Peterson (2001). Relocation theories that embrace the variables consist of Fried (1977), Lee (1990), Louis (1980), Nicholson (1984; 1990), Vernberg & Field (1990), and the theories by Lazarus (1977, 1991) and colleagues.

Outcome

Outcome was defined as any positive or negative consequence arising from mobility. It is almost impossible to conduct a research study without reviewing outcome variables; thus every major investigation ever performed

on relocation or theory created about relocation proposes that moving has consequences. The very definition of relocation states that it causes change. This change must have consequences. As Newton's Third Law states: For every action there is a counteraction, equal in force and opposite in direction.

Depending on which study or theory is consulted, the outcomes of relocation change. Nonetheless, every single study reviewed in the process of this research project reports consequences of relocation. Similarly, theories conceptualise a variety of relocation consequences. Evidence now indicates that consequences of moving can be positive and negative (Brett & Werbel, 1980).

Support has been found for physical (e.g. Brett, 1980; Lee, 1990; Pinder, 1977; Siegrist, 2000), psychological (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1980; Fisher & Shaw, 1994; Forster, 1990; Munton & Forster, 1990), social (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1980), behavioural (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1980), and practical (e.g. Bach & Smith, 1977; Buddin et al., 1999; Markham et al., 1983) outcomes. It is therefore necessary to include *outcomes* as a thematic category in relocation research.

Support

The final category *support* refers to any assistance provided by the organization directly or indirectly, as well as any assistance provided by friends, family, or strangers. This theme should be included in the investigation for reasons similar to those including coping. Support has been a major point of interest in relocation research. A vast host of studies have incorporated the variable into their design. Examples include: Bowen (1989), Brett & Werbel (1980), Brett (1992), Cetron et al. (1987), Feldman & Brett (1983; 1985), Flynn (1995), Hill & Miller (1981), Lu & Cooper (1995), Mason (1996), Orthner (2002), Peterson (2001), Sagie et al. (2001), Saunders & Thornhill (1997), and Segal & Harris (1993). On this basis, support should be included in relocation research.

This section has argued for the incorporation of six themes into relocation research: Change, new task, difficulty, coping, outcome, and support. Theses themes were extensively employed in content analysis, directed coding, and offered a format for the presentation of results. Content analysis is the next topic of discussion.

3.2 Content Analysis

The interviews were transcribed and coded according to the six major relocation themes arising from the literature. The qualitative data analysis software "QSR NVIVO 2.0" was used to facilitate the process. Content analysis was utilised; it is a commonly used analytic tool in positivistic analysis, since it acknowledges that the researcher cannot be oblivious to the literature and thus also cannot derive answers purely on the basis of the data (Bauer, 2000). The analytic process is guided by theoretical / conceptual considerations and therefore is deductive rather than inductive (Krippendorff, 1980).

Content analysis has four important components: Data making, unitization, sampling, and recording (Krippendorff, 1980). Researchers must first decide what constitutes data: In this case, each interview represents one datum. The second step, unitization, is the segmentation or division of the text into separate units of analysis. In this case, text passages are divided by meaning. Each time a respondent voices a new idea (an idea qualitatively different from the idea they were previously discussing), a new unit of analysis begins. This is what Krippendorff (1980) would refer to as a *thematic unit* since it is established through the matching

of the text to a definition. These types of units are distinguished on theoretical grounds and are thus most preferable (Krippendorff, 1980).

Alternatives include physical, syntactical, referential, and propositional units. *Physical units* are those units that are objectively but not necessarily naturally separate (e.g. books, interviewees). Physical units can be created artificially by imposing an unnatural structure; e.g. dividing a video into five-minute units. *Syntactical units* do not require opinion because they represent natural segments of communication such as the division of text into words. *Referential units* are defined by an alternate to which/whom an expression refers. For instance, if you refer to the British Prime Minister, you are speaking about Tony Blair. The final unit Krippendorff (1980) outlined is the *propositional unit* which is defined by the researcher to contain a certain structure (e.g. chose only paragraphs where participants refer to work).

Krippendorff (1980) also notes that if the number of data units is too overwhelming for one researcher, s/he may chose to use a subgroup of that set for analysis. In this case, the researcher could have chosen to focus solely on RAF-F, RAF-S, spousal, or child data. Another way to reduce the data is to (statistically) select certain text passages randomly or simply omitting the irrelevant (Krippendorff, 1980). In this particular research study, no selection took place. Each unit that was included in the analysis was coded and recorded. Recording here refers to the description of a unit.

Before coding commenced, the interviewer read all transcripts in order to familiarise herself with the data (King, 1994). A master coding sheet, containing coding titles, variable descriptions, and example text passages was created to guide the process (available for review in Appendix L). The text, as is normative in content analysis, was only interpreted in light of the coding frame (Bauer, 2000). Thus the possibility of adding new thematic categories did not exist - It was decided that it would distract from the research question. However, it was acceptable to add unique emerging subcategories during the coding process. Indeed each example respondents gave formed a subcategory of the theme (please see the section on early results in Chapter 6 for a description of each theme and its subcategories). Nevertheless, these had to be validated and approved by a second coder. The nature of the categories, the type of coding variables, the way in which these were organised, and the way the data was to be coded were considered throughout the construction of the coding frame. Since in content analysis every unit of text must fit a thematic code and none can be left over, the researcher created a 'capture all category' such as *other* or *does not apply* for each overarching theme (Bauer, 2000; Krippendorff, 1980).

In order to ensure the quality of the coding scheme, the principles of coherence and transparency were adhered to (Bauer, 2000). Coherence means that any coding scheme should be internally coherent and all codes should flow from a single principle (Bauer, 2000). In order to encourage this coherence, modules / blocks of coding were used and repeated throughout (Bauer, 2000). Transparency means that the coding frame should be made explicit and reported (Bauer, 2000). In order to make coding replicable, the coding scheme should include: The code name, code short name (if one exists), definition, and an illustrative example of representative text (Bauer, 2000).

It is important that individuals developing the coding discuss these with colleagues and stakeholders (King,

1994; Krippendorff, 1980). Although lone methods can sometimes be justified through limited resources, their value must be questioned. Thus the coding scheme was developed and tested through discussions with several colleagues. The coding scheme was then piloted on two transcripts, which were each coded by the researcher and another occupational psychology student. Differences in coding and interpretation were discussed, resulting in slight revisions to the coding scheme. Some of the definitions were clarified, coding rules made explicit, and all coders sensitised to possible ambiguities.

For sake of even greater transparency, an excerpt from a coded interview transcript is presented in Appendix M. Aside from providing an example of both transcript and coding, this should also enable other researchers to retrace the coding steps taken in the present study and apply the template to their own work should they wish to do so.

3.3 Frequency Counts

Once all subcategories were identified, frequency counts were completed in order to provide an indication of how often each observation occurred in the sample (Witte & Witte, 2004). This is interesting, for instance, when one wishes to assess the extent and severity of consequences experienced by RAF families as a result of relocation. It also allows us to draw some tentative conclusions (hypothesis) about patterns in the data. Although frequency counts are valuable, one must not misunderstand them. Frequencies represent a summary of qualitative data and not an attributional shift from qualitative to quantitative data (Witte & Witte, 2004).

Each item in the coding scheme was represented by a yes/no response category. A positive response was recorded if a participant mentioned the given construct (each construct was represented by a single item); a negative response was recorded if the participant did not mention the construct. Frequencies based on how many respondents referred to each construct were then observed. This process transforms textual data into quantitative (numerical) data, which can be manipulated statistically and even used to test hypotheses (Bauer, 2000; Krippendorff, 1980). The two generally accepted methods of obtaining quantitative results are: Counting of repetitive occurrences and magnitude estimations (Krippendorff, 1980). While a *repetitive occurrence* is a measure that assesses how many times something has transpired, *magnitude* refers to the size or extent of something (e.g. how many lines of text are occupied by a certain theme). This doctoral research project utilises repetitive occurrences, since the approach is more clearly defined and requires less judgment (Krippendorff, 1980).

4 Evaluation of the Research Plan

This section aims to evaluate the research plan suggested for this project. After initial discussions surrounding the nature of the research, the methodology, and other considerations such as sample size, the debate will move toward validity and reliability. The main proposition is that the design is appropriate and defendable.

It was necessary to employ qualitative methodology due to the exploratory nature of the research. Without the use of this methodology, it would have been impossible to discover whether the findings presented in the literature could be transferred to military samples. Also, the discovery of novel factors and issues unique to military samples and/or families would have been prevented. Interviews proved an excellent tool for obtaining

rich in-depth data and were flexible enough for use with all participants.

However, interviews also bring certain limitations with them. They can be affected by social desirability, meaning that participants may answer questions in a way that will make them appear favourably to the interviewer (Leary, 2001). Similarly, they may attempt to provide answers they believe the researcher is looking for, rather than accurate and honest answers (Leary, 2001). Although this type of response bias is difficult to detect, there is no reason to expect it. Participants did not know the interviewer, making it less likely that they would wish to please her, and had nothing to gain from deception. Also, research aims were unknown and quite general, making it difficult if not impossible for participants to meet them even if anticipated correctly.

Since respondents were asked to recall their relocation experiences, memory effects could have occurred. These normally manifest themselves in the form of selective memory (remembering or presenting only certain information) or false memory (the unintentional representation of incorrect information). However, relocation is expected to be a quite memorable event and as such memory errors are expected to be minimised by the strength of the event. In addition, minor errors in recall should not affect research, since the purpose of the interview was the discovery of general trends.

It is also more difficult to have a large sample size when employing interviews, as these are very time consuming. Despite these considerations, the interviewer managed to conduct 110 interviews. This sample size is large enough to allow for the use of most statistical procedures, should their utilisation prove necessary. Also, with the exception of the relatively small child sample (N = 15), all other subgroups consist of around thirty members, again enabling the use of statistical tools.

Empirical quantification through an objective instrument such as a questionnaire would have been desirable. It would have acted to confirm findings from the qualitative part of the study and removed the reliance on a single methodology. It also would have added a positivistic element, which would have pleased more traditional methodologists. However, although the original design included a questionnaire stage, it was impossible to complete due to practical considerations (time, finance, access). In addition, the amount of data gained through interviews was overwhelming and more than satisfactory to answer the research aims originally set out.

Additionally, it would have been ideal to code each transcript twice (Bauer, 2000). Unfortunately this was not realistic bearing in mind the number of interviews that had been conducted. The time and resources available would not permit a more complete interrater assessment. Thus the less ideal but also acceptable alternative of coding 10% of the data, in this case 11 transcripts, was utilised (Bauer, 2000).

Finally, it also would have been beneficial to link the data from serving personnel to spouses and children. However, due to the nature of the sample, this was not possible. RAF personnel are bound by the National Secrets Act, restricting the information that they may provide at will, and therefore had to be approached via official channels. This marked a considerable delay in the process and necessitated the start of family interviews prior to personnel interviews. It was not possible to match these at a later date, making family-

level analysis unachievable. Therefore, all consequent analysis had to occur at the individual or subgroup level (RAF-S, RAF-F, spouse, and child).

4.1 Validity & Reliability

Reliability and validity have proven difficult for qualitative researchers working in largely positivistic disciplines such as occupational psychology (King, 2000). While some qualitative purists completely reject the notions of validity and reliability, most acknowledge the importance of both constructs and make some attempt to apply the idea to their own research findings (Symon & Cassell, 1998).

In response to criticism from positivists, some researchers have developed alternative criteria for the evaluation of qualitative research. For instance, Lincoln & Guba (1985) have designed the framework of trustworthiness, which consists of four categories: Credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability. The equivalents from the quantitative paradigm are internal validity, external validity, reliability, and construct validity respectively.

Credibility is determined by establishing causal relationships in the data but focuses more on the match between the respondent's constructions of the phenomenon and the researcher's representation of it. *Transferability*, on the other hand, is concerned with a contextualisation of the findings and their transferability to other contexts. However, it is measured by the relation of qualitative findings to their contextual uniqueness of the social world, rather than generalisation like external validity. Additionally, generalisation in the qualitative context implies analytical generalisation (generalisation to theoretical propositions) rather than statistical generalisation (generalisation about a sample to its population).

The dimension of *dependability* refers to the stability of the research process, in other words the constancy of the data and its explanations over time. Dependability is not as strict on the condition of the stability as reliability and for this reason introduces the concept of trackability. Trackability means that the data, questions and theories underlying the interpretations must be documented for the purpose of reproducing understanding. The final criterion, *confirmability*, implies that the demonstration how findings can be based on and confirmed through the data itself rather than the researcher's biased interpretations. Here it is the researcher's responsibility to be able to trace their conclusions, interpretations, and recommendations back to the data.

Since the research outlined in this dissertation falls between the positivistic and naturalistic paradigms, the consequent discussion around validity and reliability will consider notions from both approaches.

Validity

There are two types of validity that researchers must distinguish between: External validity and internal validity. External validity refers to the degree to which results obtained in one setting can be replicated in other settings and/or generalised to other samples; while internal validity refers to the degree to which accurate conclusions about the research can be drawn (Leary, 2001). Although both types of validity are important, they are also negatively related: The researcher generally has to compromise one type of validity in favour of the other (Leary, 2001). Generally, quantitative studies produce high external validity but tend to suffer from

low internal validity. Qualitative studies, on the other hand, produce high internal validity but struggle with low external validity.

Indeed, it is argued that the principles behind qualitative research make it internally valid since it is able to assess the subjective reality of participants rather than trying to force that reality into an objective but imposed format such as the questionnaire tick box (Bauer, 2000). Summarising someone's responses and presenting them back to them, will certainly create a high degree of *face validity* to that person (assuming that no major changes or interpretations that the participant may disapprove of have been undertaking). This type of approach was utilised in the current research project.

Additional ways used to ensure validity throughout this study included confirmation and peer examination. The first of these techniques, *confirmation*, refers to the clarification of a participant's intended meaning (Bauer, 2000). If ambiguities or contradictions appeared during an interview, the researcher would ask the participant to clarify using prompts such as: 'What do you mean by that?' or 'Could you give me an example of that?' This ensured that the meaning was provided by the participant rather than inferred by the researcher. The tactic for face validity and confirmation reviewed above, also aid to satisfy the condition of credibility set out by Lincoln & Guba (1985).

A final method to gain validity was *peer examination* (Bauer, 2000). Occupational psychologists and members of Royal Air Force families were asked to evaluate and comment on interview questions, coding scheme, and findings; decisions were made in round-table discussions. Almost all interview questions were approved by the evaluators immediately. However, there was some concern surrounding the wording of the child interview questions. The consensus was that children would not understand the meaning of the words (as presented in the adult interviews). The words were thus simplified and it was decided that examples should be given in the case that children were still unsure of the meaning of the questions. For instance, physical consequences of relocation were assessed by asking a child if they felt ill or experienced changes to their body after moving.

The coding scheme received similar attention from the panel. Overall appraisers were satisfied with the coding scheme, though it was deemed necessary to give relevant examples for each coding category in order to allow coders to more clearly distinguish between them. In consequence, a column with examples was added to the coding scheme. The final format can be viewed in Appendix L.

In order to further ensure the validity of the coding scheme, two coders coded the same transcript. Comparison of the thematic coding indicated that there was 95% overlap between the researcher and the second coder. In addition, the text was broken into virtually identical segments by both coders. Validity was thus found to be acceptable.

Finally, research reports including the findings from this project, as well as accompanying summaries were sent out to the following institutions: Airwaves Families Organisation, HQ PTC, and the four participating RAF units. None of the receivers challenged the data in the reports. Indeed, findings were deemed an accurate reflection of the circumstances and overall well received. In terms of qualitative criteria, *transferability* was achieved by focusing the aims of the study on theory creation, in other words, the generalisation to theoretical

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propositions from the data.

Reliability

It is generally acknowledged that interview analysis should be assessed in terms of interrater reliability (Krippendorff, 1980). In order to obtain a measure of interrater reliability, it was necessary to code a section of the data twice. Due to time and financial constraints, it was decided that 10% of the data (or 11 transcripts) should be coded. The principle of replicability demands that the coding process, including double-coding, is made explicit (Krippendorff, 1980). Thus details of the procedures are provided below.

The first coder was the researcher, a Ph.D. student at Aston University, while the second coder was a M.Sc. student at Aston University. The initial coder prepared the second observer for coding by writing and distributing an adapted version of the coding scheme (available for review in Appendix N) which was accompanied by two training sessions. The initial training session familiarised the coder with the nature of the data and the coding scheme, while the second coding session was used to supervise and direct coding. Each session was approximately two hours long and intended to ensure that the coder would be able to understand the coding categories and apply them reliably. Discrepancies were discussed and corrected. Before double-coding commenced, the second observer was asked to rely only on the coding master sheet and not to consult any other sources of information as these may contain irrelevant, ambiguous, or contradictory information.

Additionally, it was decided not to change coding instructions once double-coding commenced since it can negatively affect inferences made. Again, it was stressed that the second coder was to strictly adhere to the coding instructions. As can be seen from the coding scheme, verbal designations and magnitudes/scales were used (Krippendorff, 1980). A *verbal designation* occurs when a statement is coded according to a response category such as present vs. not present. *Magnitudes/Scales* are codes which are assigned on the basis of a scale (e.g. "5" indicates a rating where individuals love moving; they will say "I love moving").

Krippendorff (1980) argues that coding is most efficient and reliable when it is done according to simple and objective considerations. Accordingly, the most meaningful and relevant units, thematic units, are often also the most difficult to reliably recreate because they involve the most judgment. Thus it is not surprising that reliability values can be slightly lower than desirable.

The following variables were excluded from further analysis because they involved too much judgement and it was decided that not enough agreement between the raters could be obtained ($k \leq .10$): Community ties, familiarity with location, friends at location, nature of posting, number of children of school-age, personality, and quality of the last move. It is perhaps not surprising that these variables were excluded since they represented retrospective attempts of the researcher to obtain / structure data when no specific questions regarding the variable had been asked. The variables were constructed in hopes that the researcher would be able to extract this type of data retrospectively; unfortunately the attempt was unsuccessful.

The reliability of each variable was calculated with SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Scientists) 11.5. Cohen's kappa was chosen to assess rater agreement because (a) it is an accepted and frequently used statistic in the assessment of interrater reliability; (b) Kappa is easily calculated with SPSS software; (c) Kappa

statistics are appropriate for testing whether agreement exceeds chance levels (Lombard, Snyder-Duch, & Bracken, 2004; Uebersax, 1988).

Cohen's kappa for assessed variables ranged from .21 to 1.0. Predictably, the more objective demographic variables illustrated an extremely high kappa of 1.0. The qualitative coding variables tended to illustrate lower kappa levels but continued to be higher than expected by chance (k = .11 to 1.0) with several perfectly matched ratings. After discussions between rater 1 and rater 2, a moderate number of minor coding errors were discovered and the kappa values for some variables could be raised. In addition, all variables that did not reach a kappa of 1.0 (perfect agreement) were reviewed and recoded. Where disagreements continued to exist, discussions between the two raters ensued until a solution was discovered and perfect agreement attained.

After this procedure had been completed, the remainder of the transcripts was analysed. The naturalistic reliability factors *dependability* and *confirmability* were ensured by carefully documenting the research process. Data, questions, and theories underlying the process and consequent interpretations were recorded. This enables other researchers to trace conclusions, interpretations, and recommendations back to the data.

Summary

The preceding section outlined the research methodology employed in the present study and offered a rationale for the design. Semi-structured approximately one-hour long interviews were conducted with 29 RAF personnel without families, 33 RAF personnel with families, 33 RAF spouses, and 15 RAF children (N = 110). The interviews were then transcribed and content analysis was used to examine the data. A master coding sheet, containing coding titles, variable descriptions, and example text passages, was created to guide the process. The six major themes into which the text was coded were change, new task, difficulty, coping, outcome, and support. Frequencies were also observed. The section concluded with a brief evaluation of the research plan that included considerations of validity and reliability.

Section III : Conclusion

This chapter introduced and appraised prospective strategies for the examination of the research topic. A methodological design was chosen on the basis of its appropriateness to research topic and objectives, methods present in the literature, practical issues, instructionality of approach, and preference. The research strategy and procedures were then described in detail before being evaluated. Additionally, the coding scheme(s) and examples of an interview transcript were provided to increase procedural transparency. The next chapter will present the quantitative results obtained in this research.

Chapter 5 : Quantitative Results

This chapter will offer a series of descriptive statistics relating to a number of variables. Specifically, quantitative information regarding how individuals feel about moving and the perceived quality of RAF support will be presented here. Further, some correlation results are displayed. The chapter concludes with a brief review and summary.

Although this study was largely qualitative, some quantitative data other than demographic information was collected during interviews. This information aids to further describe the sample and where appropriate offer comparisons of the subgroups within it. Quantitative data were obtained regarding (I) how individuals feel about moving, and the (II) perceived quality of RAF support. These will now be discussed in turn. The final section of this chapter (III) uses correlations to explore additional patterns in the data and then reports on the findings.

Section I : Individuals' Moving Attitude

One point of interest for the researcher was whether or not single RAF personnel differ from RAF personnel with families. Respondents' moving attitudes, in other words the way they feel about relocation, provides one suitable indication of difference. It was not considered satisfactory to simply consult qualitative data in order to establish whether a difference exists between the two groups. Since quantitative assessments can more accurately establish whether moving is viewed positively or negatively (and to which degree this holds true), quantitative measurement and analysis were utilised. The procedures used to obtain a rating and the associated results are discussed below.

1 Procedures

Interviewees were asked how they felt about moving on a 5-point scale. On the scale, 1 represented hating moving, 2 was associated with disliking moving, 3 was assigned to neither disliking / nor liking moving, 4 was associated with liking moving, and 5 represented loving moving. All respondents (N = 110) provided valid data. The mean rating for the complete sample on this variable was M = 3.00 with a standard deviation of SD = .89.

2 Descriptive Statistics

When asked how single RAF personnel felt about moving on a five-point rating scale ranging from *I hate moving* (1) to *I love moving* (5), the mean rating of respondents was 3.1. This indicated that interviewees neither liked nor disliked moving. However, the rating was slightly positively skewed. RAF personnel with families produced an average rating of 3.1. This indicated that this group of interviewees also neither liked nor disliked moving. Again, the rating was slightly positively skewed.

When spouses were asked how they felt about moving on a five-point rating scale, the mean rating was 2.9. This indicated that interviewees neither liked nor disliked moving. However, the rating was slightly negatively skewed. Finally, when asked how they felt about moving, children provided the average rating of 2.9. This indicated that interviewees neither liked nor disliked moving. However, the rating was slightly negatively skewed again.

3 Differences Between Groups

In order to evaluate whether any of the differences between the subgroups were significant, a series of independent samples t-tests was conducted. This was appropriate since data were ratio, expected to be normally distributed, and assumed to have equal variances (Witte & Witte, 2004). T-tests compare the means of two samples and allow us to say with certainty whether or not a difference between the groups exists in terms of their moving attitude. All groups were compared with each other, yielding a total of six comparisons. Each will be reviewed below.

3.1 RAF (S) & RAF (F)

An independent samples t-test comparing RAF (S) and RAF (F) with regard to the way in which they rated moving was conducted. Table 5.1 and Table 5.2 below summarise the results of the analysis.

Sample Subgroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RAF (S)	29	3.0690	.84223	.15640
RAF (F)	33	3.0606	.82687	.14394

Table 5.1: Moving Quality: Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (S) & RAF (F)

	Levene		T-test for Equality of Means						95% C.I.	
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.		Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.008	.928	.039	60	.969	.0084	.21230		-.41630	.43302
Equal variances not assumed			.039	58.683	.969	.0084	.21255		-.41701	.43373

Table 5.2: Moving Quality: T-test Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (S) & RAF (F)

There was no significant difference between the RAF S and the RAF F group with regard to moving ratings (t = .039, df = 60, p = .5345, one-tailed). RAF S (mean = 3.07) and RAF F (mean = 3.06) individuals rated moving approximately equally. Levene's test achieved the minimum desired level of .05 (p = .928), indicating that the assumption of equal variance held.

3.2 RAF (S) & Spouse

An independent samples t-test comparing RAF (S) and Spousal ratings with regard to moving was also conducted. Table 5.3 and Table 5.4 below summarise the results of the analysis.

Sample Subgroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RAF (S)	29	3.0690	.84223	.15640
Spouse	33	2.9394	1.02894	.17912

Table 5.3: Moving Quality: Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (S) & Spouse

	Levene		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% C.I.	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.194	.279	.538	60	.593	.1296	.24089	-.35228	.61142
Equal variances not assumed			.545	59.722	.588	.1296	.23779	-.34612	.60526

Table 5.4: Moving Quality: T-test Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (S) & Spouse

There was no significant difference between the moving ratings of the RAF S group and the spousal group (t = .538, df = 60, p = .2965, one-tailed). The means for the groups were 3.07 (RAF S) and 2.94 (spouses) respectively.

3.3 RAF (S) & Child

An independent samples t-test comparing the RAF (S) sub-sample with the child sub-sample on the basis of their moving ratings was executed. Table 5.5 and Table 5.6 below the results of the analysis.

Sample Subgroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RAF (S)	29	3.0690	.84223	.15640
Child	15	2.8667	.83381	.21529

Table 5.5: Moving Quality: Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (S) & Child

Again there were no significant differences between groups (t = .758, df = 42, p = .2265, one-tailed). The RAF (S) group and the child group rated moving approximately equally. The mean for each group can be seen above.

	Levene		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% C.I.	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.105	.748	.758	42	.453	.2023	.26697	-.33648	.74107
Equal variances not assumed			.760	28.682	.453	.2023	.26610	-.34220	.74680

Table 5.6: Moving Quality: T-test Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (S) & Child

3.4 RAF (F) & Spouse

An independent samples t-test comparing the means of RAF (F) and Spouses with regard to the way in which they rated moving was conducted. Table 5.7 and Table 5.8 below summarise the results of the analysis.

Sample Subgroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RAF (F)	33	3.0606	.82687	.14394
Spouse	33	2.9394	1.02894	.17912

Table 5.7: Moving Quality: Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (F) & Spouse

	Levene		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% C.I.	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.509	.224	.528	64	.600	.1212	.22978	-.33783	.58026
Equal variances not assumed			.528	61.167	.600	.1212	.22978	-.33824	.58067

Table 5.8: Moving Quality: T-test Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (F) & Spouse

With regard to how individuals rated moving, there was no significant difference between the RAF F group and the spousal group (t = .528, df = 64, p = .300, one-tailed). The means for the groups were 3.06 (RAF F) and 2.94 (spouses) respectively.

3.5 RAF (F) & Child

An independent samples t-test was used to compare RAF (F) and child with regard to the way in which they rated moving. Table 5.9 and Table 5.10 below capture the results of the analysis.

There was no significant difference between the RAF F group and the child group with regard to how they rated moving (t = .751, df = 46, p = .228, one-tailed). The means for each group are presented above.

Sample Subgroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RAF (F)	33	3.0606	.82687	.14394
Child	15	2.8667	.83381	.21529

Table 5.9: Moving Quality: Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (F) & Child

	Levene		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% C.I.	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.169	.683	.751	46	.456	.1939	.25815	-.32568	.71356
Equal variances not assumed			.749	26.957	.460	.1939	.25897	-.33747	.72535

Table 5.10: Moving Quality: T-test Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (F) & Child

3.6 Spouse & Child

An independent samples t-test comparing RAF (S) and RAF (F) with regard to the way in which they rated moving was conducted. Table 5.11 and Table 5.12 below summarise the results of the analysis.

Sample Subgroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Spouse	33	2.9394	1.02894	.17912
Child	15	2.8667	.83381	.21529

Table 5.11: Moving Quality: Statistics for the Subgroups Spouse & Child

	Levene		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% C.I.	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.389	.536	.240	46	.812	.0727	.30321	-.53760	.68306
Equal variances not assumed			.260	33.142	.797	.0727	.28006	-.49696	.64241

Table 5.12: Moving Quality: T-test Statistics for the Subgroups Spouse & Child

The spousal group and the child group did not rate moving significantly differently (t = .536, df = 46, p = .406, one-tailed). The means for the groups were 2.94 (spouses) and 2.87 (children) respectively.

Summary

In summary, there were no significant differences between any of the groups when examined on the basis of their moving ratings. Therefore, we can conclude that single RAF personnel and RAF personnel with family

rate moving equally positively. This is interesting since it was expected that RAF personnel with families would experience more negative outcomes of relocation. This in turn would appear to make it more likely that they would rate moving as less positively. However, this does not appear to be the case. Additionally, RAF personnel rate moving in a similar way as family members (spouses and children). Despite the fact that relocation is often experienced differently by family members, there does not appear to be a difference between the ways in which the subgroups rate moving.

Section II : Quality of RAF Support

Another point of interest for the researcher was whether or not single RAF personnel differ from RAF personnel with families on the basis of their perceived quality of RAF support. Again, it was not considered satisfactory to solely consult qualitative data. In this case, it was also determined that a quantitative assessment would be able to more accurately establish whether a difference between groups exists. The procedures used to obtain such a quantitative rating and the subsequent analysis of results are discussed in detail below.

1 Procedures

Interviewees were asked to indicate the quality of RAF assistance they receive to support the relocation process. The question was: "How helpful do you find RAF support?" Respondents were asked to classify their answer on a scale from 1 - 5, where 1 was very poor, 2 was poor, 3 was adequate, 4 was good, and 5 was very good. Children were excluded from this question because it was considered unlikely that they would be aware of all of the support mechanisms that the RAF provides for relocation and thus unable to provide an accurate rating.

2 Descriptive Statistics

A total of 95 individuals qualified for this question. Of these, 90 respondents provided valid data. As can be seen from the tables below, the mean score for quality of support was 2.89 and all of the values on the 5-point rating scale were represented.

N	Valid	90
	Missing	5
Mean		2.8889

Table 5.13: Mean Quality of RAF Support

The results can further be divided into the sub-samples. Table 10c illustrates findings according to this breakdown. Single RAF personnel provided the lowest ratings for quality of RAF support with a mean score of 2.59. RAF personnel with families rated RAF support most positively providing a mean score of 3.28. Spousal assessments of the quality of RAF relocation support achieved a mean rating of 2.76.

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	V. Poor	13	13.7	14.4	14.4
	Poor	17	17.9	18.9	33.3
	Adequate	35	36.8	38.9	72.2
	Good	17	17.9	18.9	91.1
	Good	17	17.9	18.9	91.1
	V. Good	8	8.4	8.9	100.0
	Total	90	94.7	100.0	
Missing	System	5	5.3		
	Total	95	100.0		

Table 5.14: Perceived Quality of RAF Support

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
RAF (S)	29	1.00	5.00	2.5862	1.26822
RAF (F)	32	2.00	5.00	3.2812	.85135
Spouse	29	1.00	5.00	2.7586	1.21465
Valid N	26				

Table 5.15: Perceived Quality of RAF Support

3 Differences Between Groups

Independent samples t-tests were conducted in order to examine whether or not differences in quality of support ratings existed between groups. The data were ratio, normally distributed, and assumed to have equal variances. Each of the three subgroups studied with respect to this variable was compared against each group: Single RAF personnel [RAF (S)], RAF personnel with families [RAF (F)], and spouses. Differences between groups will be discussed below.

3.1 RAF (S) & RAF (F)

An independent samples t-test comparing RAF (S) and RAF (F) with regard to the way in which they rated the quality of RAF relocation support. Table 5.16 and Table 5.17 below summarise the results of the analysis.

Sample Subgroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RAF (S)	29	2.5862	1.26822	.23550
RAF (F)	32	3.2813	.85135	.15050

Table 5.16: Relocation Support: Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (S) & RAF (F)

There was a significant difference between the two groups (t = -2.534, df = 59, p = .007, one-tailed). Significance was achieved at the .01 level. RAF with families were more satisfied with RAF support (M = 3.28) than single RAF personnel (M = 2.59).

	Levene		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% C.I.	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	6.855	.011	-2.534	59	.014	-.6950	.27424	-1.24379	-.14629
Equal variances not assumed			-2.487	48.269	.016	-.6950	.27948	-1.25690	-.13318

Table 5.17: Relocation Support: T-test Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (S) & RAF (F)

3.2 RAF (F) & Spouse

An independent samples t-test was employed in order to compare RAF (F) and spouses with regard to their ratings on quality of RAF support. Table 5.18 and Table 5.19 below capture the results of the analysis.

Sample Subgroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RAF (S)	32	3.2813	.85135	.15050
Spouse	29	2.7586	1.21465	.22555

Table 5.18: Relocation Support: Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (F) & Spouse

	Levene		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% C.I.	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	1.733	.193	1.961	59	.055	.5226	.26657	-.01077	1.05603
Equal variances not assumed			1.927	49.602	.060	.5226	.27115	-.02211	1.06737

Table 5.19: Relocation Support: T-test Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (F) & Spouse

As can be seen from the tables, a significant difference between the groups exists (t = 1.961, df = 59, p = .0275, one-tailed). Significance was achieved at the .05 level. RAF (F) experienced greater support satisfaction (M = 3.28) than spouses (M = 2.76).

3.3 RAF (S) & Spouse

An independent samples t-test comparing RAF (S) and RAF (F) with regard to the way in which they rated moving was conducted. Table 5.20 and Table 5.21 summarise the results of the analysis.

No significant difference between the RAF S and the spousal group could be found (t = -.529, df = 56, p = .299, one-tailed); Significance was not achieved at the .05 level. It can therefore be concluded that the RAF support satisfactions of RAF (S) (M = 2.59) did not significantly differ from those of spouses (M = 2.76).

Sample Subgroup	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
RAF (S)	29	2.5862	1.26822	.23550
Spouse	29	2.7586	1.21465	.22555

Table 5.20: Relocation Support: Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (S) & Spouse

	Levene		T-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.	95% C.I.	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.711	.403	-.529	56	.599	-.1724	.32609	-.82565	.48083
Equal variances not assumed			-.529	55.896	.599	-.1724	.32609	-.82568	.48085

Table 5.21: Relocation Support: T-test Statistics for the Subgroups RAF (S) & Spouse

Summary

In synopsis, significant differences between the groups exist when comparing them on the basis of perceived RAF support quality. These differences exist between RAF personnel with families and RAF personnel without families; and also between RAF personnel with families and spouses. Personnel with family are significantly more satisfied with the quality of relocation support offered by the RAF than either single RAF personnel or spouses. This is interesting and may explain why no differences in the moving attitudes ratings have been found. It is possible that the difficulty of the move may be balanced out by the amount of RAF relocation support provided to RAF personnel with families. On a final note, the mean ratings of single RAF personnel and spouses on quality of support did not illustrate significant differences.

Section III : Correlation

The previous analyses indicated that although no significant differences in moving attitude ratings exist, personnel with family are significantly more satisfied with the quality of relocation support offered by the RAF than either single personnel or spouses. It was hypothesised that these findings may result from a relationship between moving difficulty (as indicated by moving attitude) and the perceived amount of RAF relocation support.

1 Procedure

In order to explore whether or not moving attitude and quality of support ratings were related, a correlation was run. Pearson's correlation for parametric tests was chosen because ratings represented ratio data. Since it was predicted that moving ratings and quality of support would be positively correlated (directional hypothesis),

the two variables were run against each other in a one-tailed test.

2 Results

Results indicated that there was no significant positive correlation between moving rating and perceived quality of support ($r = .017$, $n = 90$, $p = .44$, one-tailed). Please review tables below for details.

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Moving Rating	3.0211	.89892	95
Quality of Support	2.8889	1.14602	90

Table 5.22: Descriptive Statistics for the Variables

		Moving Rating	Quality of Support
	Pearson Correlation	1	.017
Moving Rating	Sig. (1-tailed)		.436
	N	95	90
	Pearson Correlation	.017	1
Quality of Support	Sig. (1-tailed)	.436	
	N	90	90

Table 5.23: Correlations Between the Two Variables

Summary

Results from the correlation provided no evidence for a positive correlation between moving rating and perceived quality of support. The hypothesis that there may be an association between moving ratings and quality of support thus has to be rejected. There appears to be no relationship between the two variables: Moving attitude is not related to the perceived amount of RAF relocation support.

Section IV : Conclusion

This chapter presented a range of quantitative findings arising from the current research. Information on the subject of how individuals feel about moving and the perceived quality of RAF support was presented. On a 5-point scale, the total mean rating for moving attitudes was 3.00, while the quality of RAF support achieved a mean of 2.89. There were no differences between any of the groups with respect to moving attitudes. However, when reviewing quality of support, significant differences between RAF personnel with families and single RAF personnel, as well as spouses were found. Findings indicated that RAF (F) individuals rated support significantly more positively than either of the other two groups. There were no differences between spousal and RAF (S) ratings.

Chapter 6 : Qualitative Results

This chapter presents the results of qualitative data analysis highlighted in the methodology chapter. Findings regarding (A) initial results will be offered first and the appropriateness of the themes discussed. The chapter will then (B) describe the purely qualitative results from the open questions. Then the chapter will continue to (C) outline thematic frequency counts and (D) debate the responses to specific questions. As part of the qualitative presentation, the various themes and their constituents (sub-themes or categories) will be outlined and explained where necessary. In addition, frequency counts for each constituent are provided in an attempt to quantify results and give an estimation of the distribution of each sub-theme among the participants. Finally, the discussion will turn to the specific questions concerning what participants perceived as the worst and best thing about moving.

Section I : Initial Results

As previously reviewed, the results from this research project can be roughly divided into six themes: Change, tasks, difficulties, coping, outcomes, and support. This section is devoted to the full delineation of the themes and their sub-themes as represented by the data. Diagrammatical depictions accompany thematic descriptions and act to further illustrate them. This should help the reader to more clearly organise their understanding of the themes and their categories. Additionally, a star (*) has been placed near themes and sub-themes that are unsupported by the data.

1   Change

Observed change was related to work and location factors. Employment factors such as type of job, detachment and deployment frequency, number of co-workers, workload, and the quality of management were voiced; while location factors consist of regional factors, type of station, and type of accommodation. Family factors consist of distance from family, spousal employment status, and the quality of family relationship.
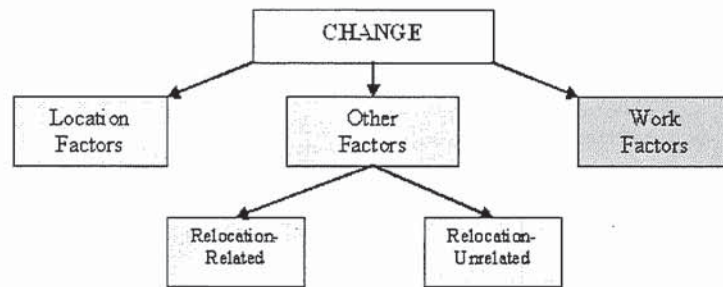
Figure 6.1: The Subcategories of the Theme "Change"

2 Tasks

Since relocation affects the two major domains of life (working life and personal life), relocation tasks were defined as either personal or work-related. These include logistical, administrative, physical, social/psychological, and other tasks. In addition, other relocation-related and relocation-unrelated tasks are included. Personal administrative tasks include official paperwork, timing and organising the move, changing personal details/address, finding a new nursery/school, finding spousal employment, finding doctors/dentists, changing organisational memberships, and buying/selling houses.

Personal physical relocation tasks consisted of packing, travelling, the march/move out, furniture arrangement, having a sort out, installing equipment and decoration. Social/psychological relocation tasks revolve around friendships: Making friends, settling in/becoming part of the community, and saying good-bye. Work-related tasks involved learning new skills, clearing out the desk, doing a handover/takeover, and building working relationships.
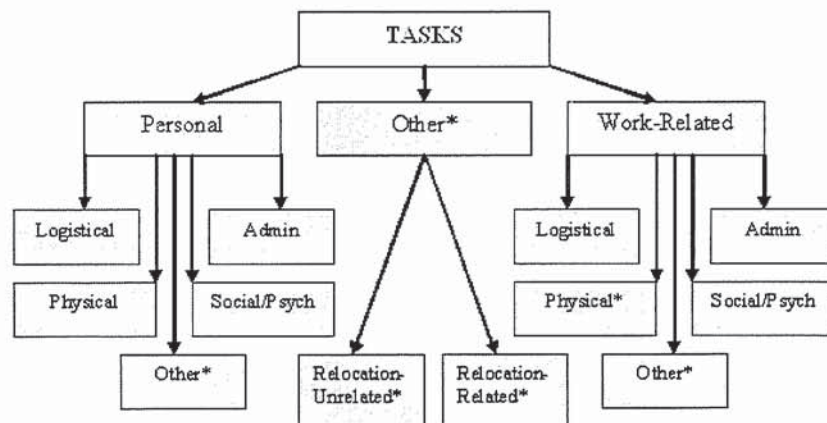
Figure 6.2: The Subcategories of the Theme "Tasks"

3 Relocation Difficulties

Relocation difficulties could be related to the posting or the physical move. There were also additional relocation and non-relocation related difficulties. Posting-related relocation difficulties included: Being given wrong

or misleading information, sudden changes to posting, not being expected at the receiving unit, being assigned inappropriately etc. Relocation difficulties with the physical move on the other hand comprised: Problems with the movers, inappropriate moving regulations lack of support, housing problems, not enough information, not having any official leave etc. Other relocation difficulties tended to be related to RAF regulations or RAF life, while other non-relocation difficulties included a host of personal problems, inconveniences, and illnesses. Since these were not related to relocation, these will not be discussed further.
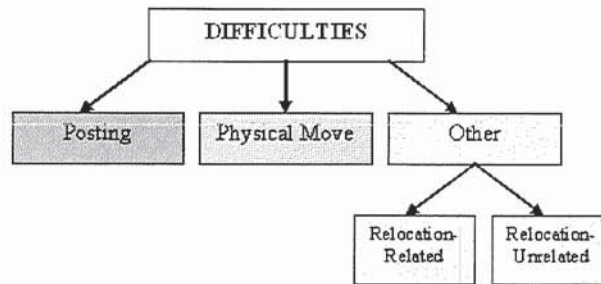
Figure 6.3: The Subcategories of the Theme "Relocation Difficulties"

4 Coping Method

RAF families employed a wide range of coping methods including: Self-control, distancing, accepting responsibility, positive reappraisal, escape-avoidance, seeking social support, confrontive coping, and planful problem solving. Respondents found ways to avoid relocation for themselves and/or their family; engaged in information gathering; stayed in alternative accommodation; relied on family support; utilised a cleaning service; arranged a pre-move visit; took leave; had form letters & lists; put increased effort into maintaining relationships; withdrew socially; adopted a positive/relaxed attitude; focused on the future etc.
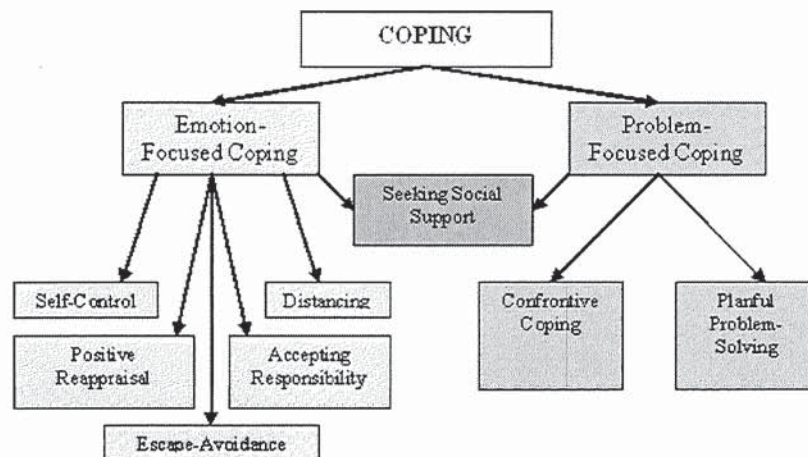
Figure 6.4: The Subcategories of the Theme "Coping"

5 Outcome Variables

Relocation outcomes that individuals mentioned could be personal, familial or additional. Outcomes could be positive or negative. Personal outcomes could be physical, psychological, social, behavioural, or practical. *Physical outcomes* are positive or negative outcomes related to one's physical health; they were comprised fatigue and exhaustion, stress-related illness, high blood pressure, weight gain, skin irritation, nose bleeds, vulnerability to infection and disease, insomnia, and moving injuries. Positive physical outcomes include good access to sports facilities and clubs, focus on an active lifestyle, and improved health through regular doctor/dental check-ups.

Psychological outcomes are positive or negative outcomes related to one's psychological well-being; these may include emotional states and attitudes. Negative psychological outcomes include increased emotional distance from extended family, preoccupation with mobility, no sense of belonging, loneliness, reduced confidence, sorrow/depression, anxiety, fear, guilt, emotional hardening, burnout, lowered tolerance, upheaval/disruption, lack of control, stress, and increased family dependence. Positive psychological outcomes include developing as a person, becoming more open-minded, broadening, increased resilience, flexibility, confidence, independence, adaptability, efficiency, maturity, gaining new skills, avoiding boredom, and being positive.

Social outcomes are positive or negative outcomes related to one's social well-being; these tend to be based around friendship, romantic and familial relationships. Negative social outcomes include losing friends, being far from friends, difficulties making new friends, difficulties integrating into the local community, and relationship tension and break-up. Positive social outcomes include meeting new people, forming very close relationships, improving social/personal skills, being able to quickly form relationships, coming to terms with losing friends quickly, and becoming more accepting of others.

Behavioural outcomes are positive or negative outcomes related to one's behaviour. Negative behavioural outcomes include nervous fidgeting, forming bad habits, impaired work performance, irritability, poor communication, and withdrawal. Positive behavioural outcomes include positive health-related behaviour and improved work performance.

Practical outcomes are positive or negative practical outcomes which include things such as work, financial factors, and status changes. Negative practical outcomes comprise problems with removers, breakages, being placed at the back of medical waiting lists, adjustment difficulties, inability to own a home, physical distance from family, and incurred financial costs. Positive practical outcomes include the opportunity to travel, living in different areas, starting afresh with a clean slate, improving life, advancing career, and benefiting financially.

Familial outcome variables centred around persons and could be related to one's spouse, child/ren, extended family, or parents. Spousal problems were frequently related to employment (e.g. being unable to find employment, struggling to settle in at work, not liking to give up their job and so forth) or social life (e.g. losing friends, having to say good-bye, difficulties forming social bonds etc). Child difficulties tended to centre on educational (e.g. falling behind, changes in the educational system) and/or social adjustment (e.g. missing friends). Parent/extended difficulties focused on the change in the relationship between parent and child, grandparent and child, or other family members. There were also concerns about being able to fulfil

responsibilities toward aging parents at a distance.

Additional relocation unrelated outcome variables were included as a *catch all category* (see earlier comments). They are unrelated to relocation, as such do not form a relevant part of the research results, and will not be presented in this report.
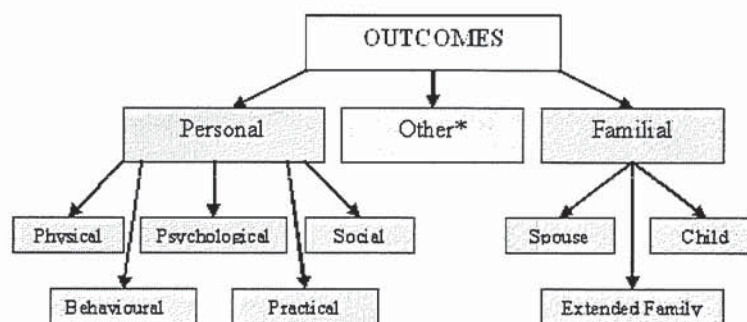
Figure 6.5: The Subcategories of the Theme "Outcomes"

6 Support

The coding category *support* was divided into social support and RAF support. Each subcategory consisted of various forms of support, including: Administrative, physical, logistical, financial, informational, social / emotional, and other support. See below for details.

Social support could be anything from lending a listening ear to real physical relocation aid. RAF family members relied most on social sources for social/emotional and informational support. RAF assistance with the physical move is offered in the form of a paid removals service, the provision of transit accommodation, use of transport vehicles, military shipping, storage, and the DHE cleaning scheme. Informational support was reportedly offered by the HIVE (Help & Information Volunteer Exchange), posting instruction, the posting website, through the job specification/profile, chain of command, information booklets, arrivals brief, RoadReps, and the SCEA (Service Children Education Authority).

Financial help is offered through accommodation provision, homeownership assistance, allowances, and other financial benefits. Allowances participants were aware of notably include disturbance allowance, children's allowance, boarding school allowance, and a posting journey allowance. Administrative support is available from one's desk officer, SHQ/PSF (station head quarter, personnel services flight), DHE (Defence Housing Executive), and the simplification of arrivals procedures.

Social/emotional support is offered through SSAFA (Soldier Sailor & Airmen Families Association), RAFFA (RAF Families Association), the padre, Airwaves, Mess functions, clubs and societies, and deployment/detachment support. Informal support was cited as very important by RAF personnel. Informal support included help from colleagues and neighbours, similar structures on bases, and an unchanged military ethos. Supportive management was essential in providing unofficial time off and offering serving personnel flexibility around the

time of relocation.
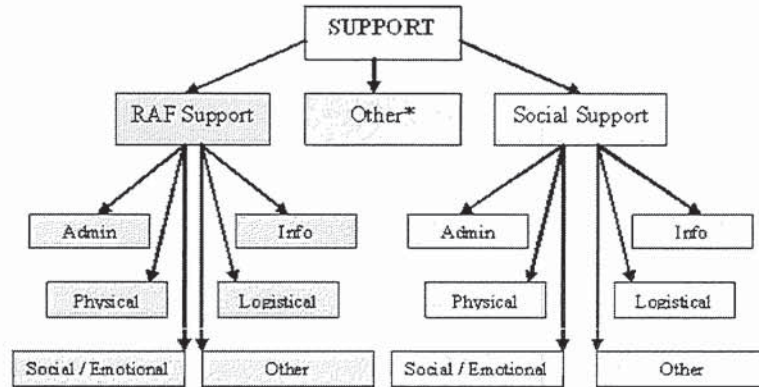
Figure 6.6: The Subcategories of the Theme "Support"

Summary

Raw results from the research project can be roughly divided into six themes: Change, tasks, difficulties, coping, outcomes, and support. Each theme has a number of sub-themes that help to further classify the data. Diagrammatical depictions have been used to further illustrate themes and their corresponding elements. All of the categories were supported adequately. Additionally, evidence also exists for almost all of the subcategories. Those categories that are not supported generally represent surplus "catch all" categories created to ensure that no text would be left uncoded. However, these categories are of little value to the researcher. The only exception was the subcategory "physical tasks" that represented work-related relocation tasks. There are many possible explanations for this finding. First of all, no questions were specifically asked about this type of task. Secondly, perhaps individuals were much more focused on the personal rather than the work-side of the move and thus did not refer to this type of task. Despite this, the categories were well supported overall indicating that they represent an appropriate and comprehensive coding system.

Section II : Qualitative Results from Open Questions

In this section, the qualitative results will be discussed in accordance with the six major relocation themes. Each theme is defined, its categories outlined, and its elements introduced. Some text passages (quotes from interviewees) are provided to illustrative the meaning of certain categories with examples.

1 Change

The thematic category *change* was defined to consist of any factor that changes as a result of relocation. Consequently, this category consists of location factors, work factors, other relocation-related factors, and relocation-unrelated factors. This category constitutes potential mediating and moderating factors.

1.1 Location Factors

Location factors are environmental differences between the old location (pre-move) and the new location (post-move) that were reported during interviews. These differences may be objective (e.g. water quality, crime) and/or subjective in nature (e.g. community ties). An example of how an interviewee might describe observed changes in location factors is given below:

> "One of the worst postings that I found where I was located is RAF ... which is a rural post. And the nearest place ... is probably not great and it's quite a trek to the nearest decent town. There were no facilities."

Participants identified the following objective location factors: Abroad vs. UK (whether either location is domestic or international); vegetation / scenery (type of landscape they); weather and climate; cost and standard of living (including the affluence of an area and the ability to find work); available facilities; available activities; school size; degree of isolation (central vs. remote; distance from city); communication links (roads, motorways, bus connections); crime; and water quality.

In addition, familiarity with location (whether one has been stationed there before; whether family lives there); whether one has already visited the unit; community ties (including the number of friendships at the location); whether one already knows people at the new location; distance from family / home (i.e. does the move increase or decrease this distance?); distance from school (i.e. does the move increase or decrease this distance?); quality of the Mess (including food); general accommodation factors (unspecified by respondent); size of accommodation; quality of accommodation; and house features (whether it has a garage, fence, carpet, garden, showers, double-glazing, and/or parking) were also cited as important location factors.

Finally, participants indicated that accommodation provided by the RAF may be 'behind the wire' or 'outside of the wire'. This means that accommodation is either on base (wire) or off base (no wire), which in turn has implications on the distance of the accommodation from the unit, security requirements (e.g. the necessity of a clearance pass), safety (e.g. the base is guarded by military police and entrance is both controlled and restricted), and convenience (e.g. visitors have to be signed in at the guardhouse when accommodation is on base).

1.2 Work Factors

Work factors are reported differences between the old and the new working environment. These factors pertain to the physical environment, the actual job and colleagues. An example follows:

> "So I used to work on predominately aircraft squadrons where ... You'd tend to work very hard so the aircraft could fly in. As I've said before we spent a lot of time going away and travelling. And now I'm no longer a technician. I'm a training officer now and most of my working day is spent talking to people. I don't work on aircraft anymore ... So instead of wearing T-shirt and denims and getting oily and working on aircraft I now wear a shirt and tie and sit in an office. So, yea, nice little change."

For spouses only, an observed change was whether or not individuals would have to give up work (i.e. whether they would be working or not). Other observed work changes include: Job type; workload (hours); amount of time away due to work reasons (deployments, detachments and/or training sessions); career status

(advancement / promotion); the size of the unit or section; and changes in the actual physical working environment.

Less objective work factors include the degree of job satisfaction at any given unit; the unit or section friendliness (i.e. whether you get along with your colleagues); and the ethos. The ethos represents local rules and was often mentioned in conjunction with respect (i.e. how much responsibility one would have) and freedom (i.e. how much autonomy and flexibility one would have).

1.3 Relocation-Related

Relocation-related change includes all other change factors related to relocation. Participants indicated that the factors in this section will (A) affect relocation and/or (B) change as a result of relocation. Please review the illustrative quotes that follow as examples of the type of text passages assigned to this category:

> *"I think it's nice if you want the move. Obviously. If it's a move that's being forced on me obviously it's not such a great thing."*

> *"I would say it is just as good as the person that you're dealing with or who's dealing with your move. How experienced they are and how bothered they are really about it going smoothly for you."*

Community tenure (length of posting; frequency of moves); type of Service (Army vs. RAF; regimental vs. individual move); the difficulty of the move (i.e. how hard or stressful the move was); quality of removals (including amount of damage); and the quality / amount of support that one receives were all factors mentioned by participants and seem to influence how individuals feel about moving.

Further, it was deemed important whether one wanted to move (e.g. unfavourable location; other reasons); the reason for moving (e.g. last tour, medical grounds, unit move, requested, new house, training, join forces, promotion); expectations about the move and/or location; the timing of move (holidays; Christmas; time of year; weather); the amount of notice one receives; the distance moved; distance from home; and whether one has to (re)train.

Relocation also causes changes in the following: Commuting (i.e. whether one commutes; how frequently one commutes - daily vs. weekend commute; and how far one travels each time); separation from family; and type of accommodation (e.g. whether one is moving into a house, quarter, Block, excess rent etc). Amount of moving experience and moving efficiency were also cited by participants.

1.4 Relocation-Unrelated

Relocation-unrelated change is a 'catch all' category which includes all other factors associated with change. Illustrative quotes:

> *"When children first come along the dynamics of the relationship changes."*

> *"When I first joined up, yea, a single man never got any money. Most of what a single airman would have would fit in a locker that big (*Points at locker approximately 1m x 1m x 2m*)."*

This category consists of the following variables: Age / maturity; rank (including organisational tenure); trade branch (e.g. administrative; air controller); health status (including disability); previous military experience (self previously - e.g. forces child; spouse - e.g. forces child; brother in forces etc.); previous moving experience (self previously - e.g. preacher's child / boarding; spouse - e.g. mobile family), personality factors (e.g. calm vs. nervous; socially confident vs. reserved), and attitude.

Furthermore, changes related to romantic relationship (i.e. whether one exists); martial status & tenure; family relationships (emotional closeness); spousal support (whether / degree); spousal employment (whether / type / transferable); children & their age (including pregnancy); pets; and parental age / health were mentioned. Additionally, skills (such as whether one is used to travelling, able to move, remember names); driver's licence (whether one is able to drive and has access to a vehicle); accommodation (Block vs. quarter vs. private home); amount of possessions; generational changes / expectations / desires; place in career lifecycle (whether one is near the end of career); and policy changes were alluded to.

Although some of these subcategories appear to overlap with variables from previous categories, they are qualitatively different. For instance, accommodation mentioned under relocation-related factors differs from that mentioned under relocation-unrelated factors in one important aspect: Relocation-related accommodation refers to whether relocation affects the type of accommodation one lives in (this may or may not be true) while relocation-unrelated accommodation refers to the type of accommodation individuals tend to live in (e.g. single commissioned RAF personnel live in the Officer's Mess while married RAF personnel live in quarters).

2 New Tasks

Relocation is accompanied by a vast number of new tasks that individuals have to complete. These can roughly be divided into personal tasks, work-related tasks, other relocation-related tasks and, other relocation-unrelated tasks.

2.1 Personal Tasks

Relocation tasks associated with the move from one house to another have been classed as personal tasks. Personal tasks can be administrative, logistical, physical, and social/emotional in nature. Where a participant's contribution did not fit one of the preceding categories, *other* was assigned. Illustrative examples follow:

> *"Anyway it's just a shell until it has your own possessions in, which you then make it home."*

> *"You have to do the whole list again: What you're packing up. You have to do your insurance, you have to have a survey and it's always the same..."*

> *"So it was ... I had to sort of take the first step of going to dinner and sitting down and making conversation with people you don't know and hope that they'll introduce you to more people. So it's blind faith in some respects. That you've just gotta take the leap and hope that you meet the right few people, the first few people that you meet that don't give a bad impression or the people that you don't want to be stuck with..."*

Administrative Tasks

Administrative (personal) tasks are related to the administrative elements of the move for RAF personnel and their family. These included paperwork; applying for a car pass; applying for accommodation; administratively handing over accommodation (room or quarter); buying / selling a house; applying for allowances; purchasing removal insurance; changing address; forwarding mail; finding new employment (spouse); locating new schools; finding childcare; locating specialists (e.g. doctors, dentists and special needs educators); and applying for new activities & organisational memberships (including clubs as well as larger organisations like the church).

Logistical Tasks

Logistical tasks are those tasks that are related to the planning and organisation of the relocation. Logistical tasks are comprised: Gathering information about the new location (e.g. obtaining area information or directions); gathering job-relevant information (e.g. co-ordinating arrival with receiving unit; clarifying prerequisites); planning / organising the move; notifying PSF (Personnel Services Flight); arranging removals and storage; and supervising / coordinating removals (including looking after removals staff).

In addition, respondents mentioned having to arrange childcare, transport and cleaning of permanent accommodation. Individuals also had to find temporary accommodation (e.g. hotel), new houses, and in certain cases buy new things (e.g. furniture).

Physical Tasks

Physical tasks are related to the actual physical move itself. Packing and unpacking; moving belongings (e.g. loading car; lifting boxes); arranging the house (e.g. hanging up pictures; shift furniture); running down the fridge; having a sort out / clear out; cleaning; decorating and redecorating (including 'making somewhere home'); reconnecting phones and appliances; and travelling were all mentioned as new tasks resulting from relocation.

Social/Psychological Tasks

Social/Psychological tasks are related to the social and/or psychological aspects of the move. These include saying good-bye; making new friends; starting again; adjusting / setting in; establishing routines; and learning localisms (i.e. local area rules).

Other Personal Tasks

Other personal tasks refer to all other personal tasks. No tasks that were mentioned fell into this category.

2.2 Work-Related Tasks

Relocation tasks that are related to work include administrative, logistical, physical, social/psychological, and other work-related tasks. Some quotes will better illustrate this category:

> *"Probably start to get in touch with one of your bosses..."*

> *"You organise the clearing of your station. So you have to go to PSF [Personnel Services Flight] and get a form. Then you have to go around the station that you're clearing from, take it to those different sections."*

> *"Obviously you have to establish a working relationship with your boss and your colleagues and your subordinates."*

Administrative Tasks

Administrative tasks are tasks that are related to the official relocation policies and procedures (e.g. paperwork). Actioning paperwork; handover/takeover; tying up one's post; clearing the station; arrivals procedure; and applying for a position (including going through the selection process) were among the tasks in this category.

Logistical Tasks

Logistical tasks are tasks that are related to the planning and organisation of the relocation. These included taking relevant work-related information with you (e.g. downloading files from the computer); applying to a job agency; and writing a CV.

Physical Tasks

Physical tasks are tasks that are related to the actual physical move itself. No physical tasks related to work were mentioned to arise out of relocation.

Social/Psychological Tasks

Social/Psychological tasks are those tasks that are related to the social and/or psychological aspects of the move. This includes learning about work; training; adjusting to work; building or rebuilding work relationships; and establishing oneself at work.

Other Work-Related Tasks

Other work-related tasks include all other work-related tasks. No suitable tasks were mentioned.

2.3 Other Tasks (Relocation-Related & Relocation-Unrelated)

Other relocation task refers to any other relocation associated task, while other relocation-unrelated task refers to any task not included in any of the previous categories. No tasks fit either of these categories.

3 Relocation Difficulties

The thematic category *relocation difficulties* refers to any difficulty or problem associated with relocation. This category consists of posting difficulties, physical move difficulties, other relocation difficulties, and other non-relocation difficulties.

3.1 Posting Difficulties

These types of difficulties are related to the posting, in other words the official shift from one work position to another, and tend to be either logical or practical in nature. Posting difficulties include: Lack of information (e.g. for family; outdated; shouldn't need to be requested); not enough notice (i.e. the time between being informed about a move and actually moving); too much notice (causes anxiety); not having input; postings being too short and relocations too frequent; and postings being unwanted or the location not liked.

Additional difficulties are changes to a posting (these could be sudden and/or badly timed); arriving at a gapped post (i.e. a post which was empty for some time before being filled again); being in a surplus post (i.e. being forced into a post that does not exist because there is no suitable position available or because the post you will take over is still filled); being unqualified for post; being unclaimed (i.e. it is unclear which post one is taking up or which section one is joining); having no or a poor quality handover; and not being granted a co-posting. Illustrative text passages follow:

> *"Where possible they try to give you - what is it? - 56 days of notice of your actual effective posting date. However, they've always got that shabby out that 'because of service reasons' they don't necessarily give you that amount of time."*

> *"My Warrant Officer on training told me I was working in PSF ... a couple of days later and I was told I was working on a small squadron, ADS. I was then told to ring ADS, who then said, "No, you're not working here. You're working in PSF." PSF then said: "No, you're definitively working in ADS." ADS said "Yea, you are working with us."*

3.2 Physical Move Difficulties

Physical move difficulties consist of problems with the physical move from one location to another. Here respondents mentioned having no time off (meaning that they frequently cannot get leave and if they can have to use their annual vacation to move); moves being poorly timed (e.g. over Christmas or in the middle of a school year); relying on poor moving companies that are contemptuous and do not pack well; breakages / losses (including things left behind; goods being tampered with); late deliveries and delays (e.g. no guarantee when goods will arrive can be given when sent via store); and struggling with bureaucracy (e.g. not qualifying for an allowance due to a technicality).

In addition, the following difficulties with the physical move were cited: Paperwork problems (e.g. delayed processing; the inability for family to sign official documents); having to move before your family or without your partner; lack of support (e.g. for single RAF personnel, families, working wives, pets, home owners, individuals moving into the service; no emotional support); inflexible support (i.e. one size fits all policy with little leeway); and being unaware of support.

Relocation insurance was not paid by the RAF and in the case where private insurance exists, it is often not paid out by removal companies; accommodation may be smaller, of poor quality (in need of repair), not clean and/or not available at all or not available on time. Poor communication with DHE (Defence Housing Executive); not being able to have the quarter earlier; and being allocated a quarter late were also described as difficulties with the physical move. Please review the following text as illustration:

> "I had most of my belongings sent through the MFO system ... actually tracking it down was a bit of a nightmare for a couple of weeks. In fact, more a month and a half I didn't know where my belongings were."

> "My concerns are more about the children & the setting up of the new home. Will all the furniture fit in? Will we need to buy lots of new stuff? Am I going to be allowed to decorate?"

3.3 Other Relocation Difficulties

Other relocation difficulties include any other difficulties related to relocation. Here individuals mentioned other difficulties related to relocation such as: Block / Mess life being severely constrained and inappropriate for older adults; no RAF community exists; hearsay / patch rumour regarding the new positing and/or location; and differing services and standards.

In addition, the fact that the RAF is shrinking was associated with the existence of fewer bases, fewer locations (especially reduced abroad), and consequently less travel. Occasional unfair treatment (such as people being moved ahead, leapfrogged, halted); continuous work assessment (no post-move recovery period); and rank differentiation (e.g. higher ranks receive higher relocation allowance) were also challenged. Illustrative quotation:

> "Every time you get posted you honestly believe you are the first person that the RAF has ever posted. It comes as a complete shock that they don't seem to know what they're doing or what's involved."

> "I could live in the Mess but the problem is as a 43-year old woman you don't want to be living in what's like students' residence really. You know? You want your independence."

3.4 Other Non-Relocation Difficulties

This type of difficulty is not related to relocation but may influence how relocation is experienced (e.g. if someone is experiencing additional stressful life events, such as the death of a family member, relocation is likely to be more difficult). Other non-relocation difficulties comprise: Deployment and detachments (and associated separation); courses and education (and associated separation); coercion / pressure (from the RAF to service members); and service dependency (i.e. being unable to function without the service). Serious life events such as death, illness, divorce, elderly parents, redundancies, and eviction were also considered problematic.

Additionally, RAF restructuring and drawdown; the civilianisation of posts; being in high pressure, high competition employment; and being undermanned were cited as problems. The RAF also currently does not recognise partnerships or divorcees appropriately (i.e. does not award them the same rights as married couples or single parent families); the RAF has an alcohol culture (i.e. many aspects of service life and social events revolve around alcohol; those who do not drink feel excluded); problems tend to be medicalised (i.e. psychological problems are often ignored); service is accompanied by military and security constraints; and RAF units are often situated in isolated locations because of the room necessary for flying fields. Three examples of what interviewees said in this category:

> *"We've actually had it when the Gulf War started somebody in the next office was told they were going in 24 hours. Got a phone call out of the blue and within 24 hours they were on the plane. Now that's very stressful for the person who's left behind."*

> *"My mother died, my husband left me, I moved, and then I went into officer training and that was in the space of about three months. Now those sort of pressures, although you get them in civi street, generally you don't get them all at the same time. And I think that's what the military does."*

> *"10 - 15 years ago when you joined up we weren't in Iraq, we weren't in the Gulf, there was no such thing as a DWR - none of these four months away. When I joined up there was only the Falklands where that happened. Yes, you went abroad, but you were posted, so you had the benefits."*

4 Coping

Coping was defined as the successful attempt to cope with a situation, which is generally acknowledged as challenging or difficult in nature. Individuals employ a number of coping mechanisms in order to deal with relocation. The popular coping model (consisting of emotion-focused, problem-focused, and both forms of coping) was employed to categorise coping attempts mentioned by participants (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al. 1986a).

4.1 Emotion-Focused Coping

Emotion-focused coping captures efforts to control the emotions (generally negative) associated with relocation (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al. 1986). It does not address the source of the problem. Emotion-focused coping consists of: Distancing, self-control, accepting responsibility, positive reappraisal, and escape-avoidance (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al. 1986). Each section is followed by illustrative text.

Distancing

Distancing describes efforts to detach oneself from the situation (i.e. ignore / avoid it). Individuals in this sample engaged in the following: Denied the effect (e.g. doesn't phase me; I'm used to it; it has no effect); tried to reduced the significance (e.g. it's not important; everywhere is same; they'll cope; I don't need support; I will adapt); attempted to temporise the effect (e.g. it's not forever; we'll meet again; we'll be back); emotional hardening and detachment (e.g. you just "get on with it"); and finally attempted to justify relocation and its effects (e.g. it would happen anywhere).

> *"I think you take for granted that you're gunna bump into them again at some point in your career again at a later date, so..."*

> *"I don't see it's a problem with friends because I think after a while you get used to leaving friends behind at a unit and making new friends..."*

> *"That constantly pulling back from letting your emotions go where they'd like to has got to take its toll ... Maybe even become a little bit hardened by it."*

Self-control

Efforts to regulate one's own feelings and actions are known as self-control. Putting up a front (e.g. pretending to be happy; projecting confidence); sitting back and observing (e.g. keeping oneself to oneself; being careful what you say); not bringing work home; and not bringing home to work all constitute self-control efforts.

> "Some advice that's given to everybody is when you've moved to a new location is to be wary of what you're saying because you obviously don't know your new boss, the people you work with. You don't know what sensitivities they have..."

> "I think when you first move, you know, when you're trying to get to know people you have to put on ... I don't know ... put on a kind of front really. You know. You have to make such an effort and try to be happy all the time. You know. And not be the real you, so you're just trying to put a show on all the time just so people accept you..."

Accepting responsibility

Accepting responsibility means acknowledging one's own role and engaging in efforts to try to put things right. Respondents mentioned accepting or even expecting relocation as part of their role in the RAF; defended relocation as their own decision (usually the case where they volunteered to relocate or asked to go); saw relocation as worsened by self-imposed conditions (e.g. having pets, choosing to commute or purchasing own house); wished to deal with relocation and its consequences alone; and mentally prepared.

> "I mean, you join the Forces and you expect to move. So you take it as part and parcel. And I think if people complain about the moves then they really are in the wrong job. That's a bit harsh but you join any military force you are going to move. And that's part and parcel of why I would suggest most people join..."

> "If I'm honest, it doesn't concern me greatly because that was my choice, you know, to get married and have children & I suppose if I wanted a career we would have had to base ourselves and ... live in the Mess and come home on weekends, which we didn't want."

Positive reappraisal

Positive reappraisal constitutes efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth; this dimension has a religious tone. This includes highlighting advantages; the ability to grow and learn; less but higher quality family time; the ability to 'live for the moment'; the opportunity to start again (decide who you will be); generally having a positive attitude (e.g. being positive, building up the move); being open-minded; acknowledging that 'everywhere has good parts'; evaluating change as good; and considering oneself lucky (e.g. we look after our own; the RAF treats us well).

> "Instead of seeing it as a negative: 'Oh God, here we go again - Another move.' Say: 'Oh - A new adventure!' You just have to be positive about it. And I just think it's happening for a reason. Sometimes it's hard to see a good reason, but yea..."

> "For the children, I mean, we tried to, you know, make it as positive as possible and look at all the positive points. I mean small things like we'll have a bigger house and you'll have a bigger bedroom and, you know, you can choose what colour you can have your bedroom, you can have new duvet covers and things like."

Escape-Avoidance

Escape-avoidance describes wishful thinking and behavioural tendency to escape or avoid. Efforts to escape or avoid the situation include leaving the relocation setting (e.g. leaving the house whilst the removal men are there; going on holiday immediately after relocation; eating out); not letting children witness the move at all or at least distracting them; withdrawing socially; cutting existing ties and avoiding the formation of new ones (e.g. avoiding new friendships and social occasions); avoiding people you do not like; not thinking about the move; focusing on something else (e.g. throwing yourself into work, housework or playing); keeping military and private spheres separate; letting the packers do all the work; and using a cleaning service.

> *"I'm not putting as much effort into getting to know people that are turning up at work because I can't see the point of I think if I'm leaving getting to know them really well."*

> *"...the last time we just left them to put all the boxes in the house and unpack it. Then we sort of went away for a couple of hours..."*

4.2 Problem-Focused Coping

Problem-focused coping captures efforts to alter the situation through analytical processes (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al. 1986). It does not address the immediate emotional consequences of the problem. Problem-focused coping consists of confrontive coping and planful problem solving (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al. 1986).

Confrontive coping

Confrontive coping is any aggressive effort to alter the situation; it suggests a degree of hostility and risk-taking. Confrontive actions include: Having a private dental plan; hiring a private removal company (self-funded); storing belongings; not moving one's bank; making changes at work; making additional efforts in relationships; ringing around and gathering information; and having discussions with desk officers.

Other efforts include complaining and/or challenging decisions (e.g. appealing a school's decision to refuse a child; turning down postings; pressuring DHE for a nice house); visiting the area (generally includes visits to the future house and/or work section); exploring the area; unpacking in a given order (e.g. unpacking the beds and the kitchen first; mirror-imaging a kid's bedroom in an effort to create false familiarity); and unpacking quickly in order to remove the relocation chaos.

Making a house 'home' (e.g. by refitting, restructuring and redecorating); buying new furniture; helping and looking after the removal men; dealing with situations as they arise (referred to as 'fire fighting'); having a sort out and throwing away unwanted items; and finally stopping work or retraining all constitute efforts to cope.

> *"Just going out and about and finding out what's in the local area. You know? The sights and trying to orient yourself in the local area."*

> *"I try to unpack as quickly as I can. I want the bedrooms - the kids bedrooms - sorted immediately."*

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Planful problem solving

Planful problem solving is defined as deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytic approach to solving the problem. These efforts include: Researching an area / gathering information; preparing (e.g. packing, organising, moving things ahead of time; making lists, noting home contents, planning ahead); phoning ahead; taking leave; not moving at all; living in private accommodation (e.g. buying a house); commuting; using boarding schools; and leaving the RAF (e.g. coming out early; not renew contract).

> *"Just generally try to be prepared in advance to move. So, start getting the pictures off the walls and not leave everything till the last minute."*

> *"We certainly wouldn't have put the children into boarding school, had we not been in the Forces but that's the route we decided to go down to keep the family [husband & wife] together."*

4.3 Both Forms of Coping

Some coping efforts are directed at both the problem and the negative emotion associated with it (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al. 1986). This is true for seeking social support.

Seeking social support

Seeking social support represents efforts to seek informational, tangible, and emotional support. Participants mentioned saying good-bye; having friends / family take their children; acknowledged relocation support from their partner; help from friends and other family; staying in touch; visiting; going out and meeting people (e.g. getting yourself known); asking people questions; and engaging in family discussions and receiving family support (e.g. moving together).

> *"Well, they were expecting me. I've got a friend who I actually joined up with, who's a medic here. So I rang him, let him know I was coming. He met me and he'd arrange everything, so I was lucky - it all went really smoothly."*

> *"Baby-sitting young children when you're trying to sort the movers out. You can say: "Here you go grandma. Here's a bag. I'll see you in twelve hours when the movers have gone."*

5 Outcome Variables

Relocation carries many consequences with it. These consequences may be personal, familial, other relocation-related, or other relocation unrelated.

5.1 Personal

A personal relocation outcome is defined as any positive or negative consequence of relocation that is related to oneself. Personal outcomes can be physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical.

Physical

Physical consequences are positive or negative outcomes related to one's physical health. Positive effects include: Having more health checks, increased exercise (e.g. better facilities; physical activity encouraged), and

better health. Conversely, negative effects on physical health include: Sleeplessness / insomnia; exhaustion; weight gain, lack of medial support / continuity in health care; miscarriage; stress-related illness (e.g. shingles); moving injuries (e.g. broken arm); and general poor health. Positive and negative cases in point are given below:

> *"... And one thing about constantly moving: Every time you register with a new doctor, they give you a very brief physical health check."*

> *"I was physically drained and I actually got - What do they call it? - Shingles! - And was off work for two weeks. I believe that that is just the stress of it all."*

Psychological

Psychological outcomes are positive or negative consequences related to one's psychological well-being or health. This includes emotional states and attitudes, short and long-term effects.

Positive psychological relocation outcomes include: Excitement (i.e. avoiding boredom; keeping life interesting); change; challenge; honeymoon / tigger period (a period of high excitement and satisfaction immediately after relocation); a feeling of reward (i.e. relocation is experienced as rewarding); increased personal and work-related confidence; self-discovery; personal satisfaction; job satisfaction (service pride); and personal growth (relocation as a broadening experience).

Participants also noted increased openness; greater resilience / personal strength; gained independence; freedom; maturity; the ability to learn and gain knowledge; gaining skills; learning to move (getting better logistically and losing anxiety); being able to learn quickly; becoming more organised; staying young (i.e. active and alert); being more capable; become flexible / adaptable; and the opportunity to start again with a clean slate as positive outcomes of relocation.

On the other hand, participants also mentioned a vast range of negative psychological relocation outcomes. Depression; sadness; stress; confusion; upheaval; discomfort; insecurity / lack of confidence; unknown / uncertainty; frustration; being nervous / worried; lack of permanence (having no roots, no home, no stability); 'itchy feet' (being unable to settle somewhere and be satisfied; the constant drive toward new experiences such as relocation); having to start again (e.g. rebuilding relationships; finding employment; settling in); feeling shut out; and going through an adjustment period are all examples of negative outcomes that are psychological in nature.

Additional negative variables include lack of control; being overwhelmed or experiencing information overload; guilt (normally for making the family move); exuberating existing psychological conditions (e.g. OCD); being institutionalised (i.e. living & breathing the RAF; avoiding contact with anything else; leaving unit infrequently); developing a military mindset (i.e. being different from civilians); reduced quality of life; and relocation fatigue (i.e. dislike moving and not wanting to move at all or as much; generally a result of extensive exposure to relocation).

Other respondents described relocation as an invasive experience; encountered fear / panic; isolation and

loneliness; pressure; anger; emotional hardening; moodiness; disappointment; emotional dependence; the inability to invest in a location or a house (i.e. living for today / living life in chunks); and preoccupation with mobility (having an overly developed focus on mobility; focusing on moving too much; just wanting to go). Illustrative quotes, both positive and negative, follow:

> *"You have to have a broader outlook on life and I think you become far more tolerant for other people's views."*

> *"It is very stressful. Even to the point where on the day that you move in you know that within 2 / 2 years you're going to be doing exactly the same thing again. And it's the thought that it's almost temporary every time."*

Social

Social consequences are positive or negative effects related to one's social well-being. This is based around friendship, romantic, and familial relationships. Good consequences of moving include: Meeting new people and forming new friendships; meeting people again; friendships are easily to rekindle; gaining social skills; building better and deeper friendships (these could even become more important than extended family relations); closer family relationships (immediate family; high expectations / pressure on bonds); diversity and variety of friends & colleagues; realising who your friends are; and having community support (a sense of belonging).

Negative social consequences are: Relationship stress; losing and/or leaving friends (either by the relocation directly - i.e. the physical distance, or indirectly - i.e. losing things in common); difficulties staying in touch; not knowing anyone; difficulties making new friends; a high degree of social transience or turnover (i.e. friends & colleagues leave frequently); careful about investing in people; people are careful about investing in you; transient friendships (i.e. relationships are not as deep or strong); and civilians not wanting military friendships

Civilians not understanding the military lifestyle (goes for both individuals and institutions); not being able to integrate into the civilian community; experiencing bullying / rejection; the RAF being cliquey (an exclusive club that is difficult to break into); only making friends with military personnel and their families; meeting only similar people (homogeneity within the RAF); and making enemies were also mentioned as negative social outcomes. Illustrations in text:

> *"I think your social behaviour tends to enable you to get to know people quickly, make friends quickly, and also come to terms with losing friends quickly."*

> *"Socially your relationships tend to be shallower ... because within the next two years either you or they will go ... Relationships tend to be more superficial."*

> *"It's made me very careful about investing in people. If you know you're going to get torn away every two years' time, you become - I've become very reluctant to invest in friendships that, you know, are going to get ripped apart at the end ... And I've met some lovely people, really nice people and I think "well you could be a little friend of mine" and then you get the sanity check that says "no, don't even think about it." Because even when you get close to someone it's gunna hurt when you sort of rip it apart in two years time."*

Behavioural

Behavioural outcomes are positive or negative consequences related to one's behaviour; these could be short-term or have an enduring effect. Positive behavioural outcomes were limited but included discussions and efforts to 'clear the air', as well as increased effort at work (generally after arrival at the new unit or in response to increased workload).

Negative outcomes are comprised short-temperedness; aggression; increased alcohol consumption; self-centredness; fidgeting; withdrawing physically; poor diet; lack of exercise; biting nails; and decreasing performance at work (described as a wind down period; characterised by a lack of focus and reduced effort). Two respondent quotes follow:

> "Feng Shui experts ... we de-clutter all the time."

> "If you know you're leaving your unit and there tends to be a, they call it a 'wind down period'. Where you're thinking about where you're going as opposed to what you're doing at the moment."

Practical Outcomes

Practical consequences are positive or negative practical outcomes (includes things such as work, financial factors, and status changes). Positively speaking, individuals gain experience; receive an opportunity for improvement (e.g. change; getting away; having a bigger house); have new opportunities and can join new activities; may be closer to family, home and/or school; have a new job (spouse and RAF personnel); and experience personal career advancement as a result of relocation.

Furthermore, their spouse may experience career advancement; they may visit new locations and places; have the possibility to go abroad; they could live in a new house and have new things; do not tend to horde things (because they are constantly sorting out and freeing themselves from things they do not need or want); have the possibility of financial gain; live in a safe neighbourhood; and if desired spouses are able to stay at home (at higher ranks, the RAF income tends to be sufficient to sustain a reasonable lifestyle without necessitating a second income).

Poor consequences of relocation are: Additional tasks and work associated with moving; employment-related issues (e.g. giving up work and finding work again); difficulties finding childcare; qualifications are not understood or accepted at the new location (e.g. making it more difficult for spouses to find employment); having to retrain; reduced job progression for spouses; and employer discrimination (i.e. employers do not want to hire RAF spouses because they know that their community tenure is limited).

Moreover interviewees revealed not being able to take or finish courses (i.e. further education); struggling to find NHS doctors and dentists; being based at the bottom of medical waiting lists (because these are operated on a county basis); being forced to give up hobbies; increased cost; furniture not fitting; not knowing the area and the house; being unable to find things; not being able to look after family; and not having enough time at home as practical relocation challenges.

Not enough time with friends; distance from family; distance from partner; distance from friends; changing church; distance from house (generally coupled with an inability to live in one's personal home); having to commute (weekdays or weekends); extended separation; divorce; having to live a minimalist life; having to live on base; not being on the housing ladder or able to own your own home; and the inability to plan ahead were also exposed as negative relocation outcomes that were practical in nature.

Additionally, missing out (e.g. not able to attend family reunions; parties; not having a Christmas tree); inconvenience (e.g. having to live without certain things; being crammed in a car; sleeping in same room; making due); frequent school changes; promotion being associated with service extension; having little or no choice over schools (because these are decided on the basis of the catchment-area system; good schools are often full); some school don't take service kids (out of fear that they will drag them down in the league tables which are said to exist even for primary schools now); and finally deciding to leave the RAF in order to avoid future relocations. Illustrations pursue:

> *"The positive sides are, yes, you've seen different parts of the country. If you're lucky enough different parts of the world."*

> *"I'm doing a totally different job than when I started but I'm still working for the same employer."*

> *"You know, it's a fact of life - You have to make decisions and choices in life. You can't have it all, all the time. And it sounds silly to say that but a lot of people do want the couple concerned to have a full career each, they do want to have children in a good school catchment area in their own home. Well that's not compatible with being in the military."*

> *"I think, looking back in hindsight, it's a fine balance between career and happiness. I think if I would have maybe held back on my career I would, yea, most probably 85% still be married but most probably as a Corporal leaving the Air Force after 22 years rather than a Flt. Sergeant with a nice hefty pension and lump sum looking forward to but nobody to share it with."*

5.2 Familial

Aside from personal outcomes, those interviewed often also discussed familial outcomes. Though spouse and child (or children) were alluded to most often, extended family (e.g. parents, grandparents, siblings, cousins) was also mentioned.

Spouse

Positive and negative relocation outcomes for spouses were observed. These were frequently related to employment. Positive outcomes were psychological (increased open-mindedness; gained confidence); social (making friends and having friends; meeting similar people; and having a better family life); and practical (experience gains in terms of employment, credibility, education and locations; job variety including change and advancement; general opportunities; and being closer to family).

Negative relocation outcomes that were observed for spouses can be classed as physical, psychological, social, and practical. Physical outcomes consisted of increased blood pressure, exhaustion and skin problems. Psy-

chological consequences were more distributed and included anger (e.g. we are not soldiers; we did not sign up); role conflict (for female RAF personnel - Being torn between role in the RAF and role as homemaker); fear and apprehension; and loss of control.

Further psychological spousal outcomes embrace poor mental health; trauma; stress; unhappiness; depression; frustration; boredom; homesickness; lack of confidence; upheaval and unsettlement; having to starting over; being nervous; having a military mindset (e.g. rarely leaving the unit; preoccupation with military matters); possessing no local knowledge; being exposed to excessive pressure; and disliking moving (relocation fatigue).

Poor social effects comprise losing friends; needing to rebuild social networks; being isolated; and becoming careful about forging relationships (friendships tend to be transitory in nature - Not as strong or as deep). Negative practical consequences such as difficulty regaining employment; slowed advancement and reduced opportunity; the inability to do courses or continue education; reduced work performance; employer discrimination; distance from family; separation from family; and having to live a minimalist lifestyle or giving up goods were mentioned as well.

In addition, commuting; being left alone physically & psychologically (generally because RAF personnel have to start work immediately; sometimes even prior to the physical family move); conducting the physical move alone (spouses) because RAF personnel is gone (e.g. at work already; on deployment; training); separation or divorce; relationship tension and poor family dynamics; sacrificing hobbies; the physical move itself (i.e. the additional work associated with it); and having to live in quarters were highlighted as practical problems for spouses. Some illustrations can be found below:

> *"It gave her opportunities to try and do things that she might not otherwise have done."*

> *"She felt isolated and depressed and that sort of thing. Medically depressed rather than just being depressed. So that was significant and probably not even been addressed yet. The time to address it has not really ... It's horrible to say but it's not really been allocated."*

Child(ren)

Positive and negative outcomes for children were also cited. Consequences often related to education. Children experience positive psychological consequences such as excitement; happiness; psychological growth and broadening; maturity; resilience; independence; and confidence.

Beneficial social consequences include meeting new people and developing social skills. Good practical effects include: Vast and improved facilities (e.g. nice park, bigger room); enrolment and participation in new activities; increased experience; being safe and protected living on base; having the opportunity to attend boarding school; and receiving a better education.

Unsurprisingly negative outcomes were also mentioned with regard to child relocation. Psychologically these consequences were listed as: Long-term effects (unspecified); unhappiness or sadness; upheaval; loneliness; trauma; boredom; nervousness; insecurity; stress; lack of control; parental dependency; not wanting to move;

not respecting parents; lack of understanding; and feeling in the way.

On the other hand, social consequences such as losing friends; not having long-term friendships or friendship continuity; having no friends at the new location or during holidays (because of either camp demographics or enrolment in boarding school); experiencing strained family relations (e.g. relationship between child and grandparents is often affected); and finally civilians not wanting military friendships were outlined. The only negative behavioural consequences observed in children were: Aggression; acting out; and being careful about making friends.

Practical downsides include school and nursery factors (general change; disruption; turbulence and turnover; transition between different education systems; falling behind scholastically); having to attend boarding school (especially being separated from family); and not seeing parents. Additionally, parental fights; affected relationship with parents; distance from family; being labelled (i.e. medical misdiagnosis); having to rejoin clubs; living a sheltered life; and having to make due without adequate facilities were reviewed by participants. Descriptive quotes:

> *"Here she is in reception and next year they're going to put her into year two and she's gonna skip year one because she's doing so well. It's not cuz she's bright, it's just that compared to the other kids..."*

> *"They tried to label him as ADHD in his first school. We went through the process of having him assessed and basically they said 'he is too young to be assessed. We'll try him again in a year.' In that year we moved him to ..., changed his school, and he's perfectly fine. He's a normal, well-adjusted young man with normal grades for his age. And I don't expect any more of him. But it took a different school and a period of stability to get him back to that. I mean, it's a risk, but if we'd constantly stayed in the RAF system of moving he could well have been labelled for the rest of his life and that wasn't fair on him."*

Extended

Extended family also experienced positive and negative outcomes when RAF personnel relocate. The consequences mentioned with regard to extended family tended to be practical. The extended family that received most attention were parents. Positive outcomes such as the opportunity to visit family at different location and visiting family more were touched upon before negative outcomes were reviewed. These include strained family relationships (between grandparents & their children; grandparents & their grandchildren; in-laws; nephews); having to take time off; being away from family; not understanding the military lifestyle; and experiencing stress.

> *"...It was nice for her family to come out to Germany cuz they'd never travelled. Her sisters, I think, had never travelled. So it was nice for them to fly out to visit in Germany."*

> *"When children first come along the dynamics of the relationship changes because normal grandparents wish to have involvement with their grandchildren and that would mean that they would then prefer a degree of proximity."*

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5.3 Other (Relocation-Related & Relocation-Unrelated)

The category other relocation-related outcomes was designed to encompass any additional positive or negative consequences arising from relocation; while other relocation-unrelated outcomes captured all other positive or negative consequences not related to relocation (e.g. arising from RAF life). No suitable text to fit either of the categories was identified.

6 Support

The thematic category *support* was defined as any relocation help or support offered to RAF personnel and their families. The two only sources of support mentioned were (A) the RAF and (B) social contacts. Consequently, the support category has been subdivided into *RAF Support* and *Social Support*.

6.1 RAF Support

RAF support is support provided by the RAF directly (e.g. by means of policy) or indirectly (e.g. informally provided by other RAFers at work). RAF support can be logistical, administrative, physical, financial, informational, social/emotional, and other. Relocation-unrelated support was also mentioned and will be summarised briefly below.

Logistical Support

Logistical support is support provided by the RAF that helps individuals in the actual planning and execution of the move. This includes the RAF arranging and organising the move (e.g. providing very detailed information including time scale for tasks; arranging passports in the case of international moves); providing time off (either unofficially or as part of annual leave); good timing (e.g. allowing weekend moves or moves during holidays; possibility to defer move); providing or financing temporary accommodation (i.e. hotel / transit); providing permanent accommodation (i.e. Block, Mess, quarter including furnishings); the ability to get the quarter (or patch) early; possibility of going into "hirings" / "excess rent" if no quarter is available; and providing or financing storage.

Administrative Support

Admin support is the receipt of help with the administrative (paperwork) side of the move from the RAF. Clerical Support (i.e. help with paperwork and forms from PSF); support with respect to accommodation (quarter application and allocation help from DHE); and help with allowance (financial) applications are all included in this category.

Physical Support

Physical support is defined as support from the RAF with the actual physical move itself (anything provided by the RAF that makes the physical move easier). This includes the provision of removals or alternate methods of moving goods (e.g. store / supply / MFO / R&D / movements / M&S); provision of transport for oneself and his/her personal goods (from either military transport or financing a private rental); and the existence of cleaning contract.

Financial Support

Financial support is RAF support provided to cover or at least ameliorate the financial cost of moving (typically through allowances). Financial support was observed in terms of baggage allowance (low financial compensation paid for the transport of goods from one location to another); travel allowance (reimbursement of travel costs from one location to another); disturbance allowance (extensive allowance provided to cover expenses arising out of a house move; includes new curtains, carpets, cleaning, contractors, reconnection fees etc); and children's allowance (allowance provided to cover expenses arising out of school changes; e.g. new school uniforms).

Furthermore, the RAF provides the following allowances / schemes: Reimburses a substantial proportion of stamp duty & legal fees in the case of home sale and repurchase (approximately £5000); long service advance of pay (£5000) to assist with first time home ownership; boarding school allowance (contribution toward school fees); basic food charges (rent reduced because one is undergoing separated service and not at the same location as their family); and travel charges (where the way to duty is paid since no accommodation is available in the vicinity).

In addition, several individuals mentioned receiving: Good / increased pay (+13%); a strong pension; a large lump sum payment (upon exit from the forces); and long separation allowances (LSA) because relocation was part of their employment.

Informational Support

Informational support is RAF support offered through the provision of information regarding the move itself, the new job, and/or the new location. Informational support was provided through the posting notice (which includes information regarding the move); information packs / letters; the unit booklet; arrivals brief (which can include a letter, an interview, a manual, an induction and even a tour); further training / education (related to the new position); handover (informal training at the new post; familiarisation with the position and the section); and information from PSF and SHQ (Station Head Quarter).

Chain of command; stations tours; the HIVE (Help & Information Volunteer Exchange); coffee shop; families' office; Services Children Education; SSAFA (Soldiers, Sailors, and Airmen Families' Association); DHE (Defense Housing Executive; includes providing the ability to view housing, getting a choice in redecoration, or even getting colour schemes / floor plans sent). Additionally, Airwaves, roadreps and job posts were described as informative.

Social/Emotional Support

This type of RAF support is aimed at addressing social and/or emotional issues. It can be provided through arrivals' or squadron vehicles; at Mess events (such as dining in nights); through introductions; by colleagues or superiors; the padre; SSAFA (incl. counselling & social worker); Airwaves; roadreps; and social clubs (including coffee mornings).

Other Support

The other support category encompasses any other support provided by the RAF. Several individuals mentioned that RAF units are based around a station template, referred to as the Binbrook Model, and thus have a similar structure (e.g. similar buildings and sections) and follow similar processes (e.g. arrivals and clearance procedures). This appeared to facilitate adjustment by creating a false sense of familiarity. Further, respondents mentioned that they tended to do a similar job and also found this helpful.

Other support was offered through: The Preferred Posting Proforma or the *dream sheet* (where RAF personnel list their three preferred locations/postings; this is granted where possible though it is understood that service need supersedes personal need); applied postings (e.g. environmental, volunteer jobs, medical grounds, compassionate posting, last tour, disestablished units get preference, longest in post, personality clash); and co-postings (where partners, generally married couples, who are both employed in the RAF get posted to the same location).

Other positive policies include that individuals should not be posted or detached within twelve months of marriage; the minimum turbulence policy (that individuals are only relocated if necessary); and that single parents are quartered like married couples instead of having to reside in the Block or Mess. The ability to have a pre-march in or a proxy march out; choice in removals; and schools visits were also appreciated.

Relocation-Unrelated Support

However, individuals also mentioned support that was not related to relocation. This included: The existence of option points (which create the ability to leave the RAF prior to ones contract end; this is generally accompanied by a reduced pension); and exceptions and exemptions (e.g. pregnancy support, time off, admin work, day release to attend courses, educational needs, disability) were also highly valued.

Additional support included medical care / respite (generally limited to the service members but sometimes also extends to the service family); free sports facilities; the existence of a Contact House (where divorced or separated parents can meet with their children in a house setting rather than entertaining them in the Block or Mess); compassionate leave (generally granted to attend funerals or tend to sick family); and finally spousal and/or familial deployment support (phone calls to check on the spouse, regular updates, support groups etc).

6.2 Social Support

Social support refers to any support provided by other people (e.g. friends, family or strangers). Social support can be logistical, administrative, physical, financial, informational, social/emotional, and other. In this case, participants reported receiving social support from a number of sources including teachers, siblings, parents, grandparents, acquaintances, friends, colleagues, neighbours, predecessor, the church community, individuals at the Mess, and individuals at the HIVE.

Logistical Support

Logistical support occurs when other individuals help in the planning and execution of the move. In this category respondents mentioned help with the children (generally having someone baby-sit or take the children

for a few days); pet-sitting; offering temporary accommodation; providing storage; helping with the planning; and arranging/organising (e.g. booking removals; making lists; takeaways).

Administrative Support

Admin support, support with the administrative (paperwork) side of the move, was also offered socially. This includes help rejoining clubs & activities; changing address & redirecting mail; completing official paperwork (including applying for house, furniture and allowances); legal contracts (e.g. house sale); the administrative move out; organise paperwork; phoning individuals and agencies; and looking at the new house (march or move in).

Physical Support

Physical support refers to help with the actual physical move itself. Packing and unpacking; transport (of self & good); providing food; moving / lifting; cleaning; help redesigning and decorating (e.g. putting up curtains, close up holes, paint, cut down trees etc); and help with the sort out.

Financial Support

Financial support (support with the financial cost of moving) was rarely mentioned but included being given part of the allowance to spend and being offered financial help from family.

Informational Support

The provision of information regarding the move, the new job, and/or the new location is called informational support. Being shown the house; receiving area information (restaurants, local area, schools, vet, pubs, facilities, trees, shops, clubs; including and local area); relocation information (e.g. how/when); and involvement in decision-making / communication were all mentioned as sources of information provided by social contacts.

Social/Emotional Support

Support aimed at addressing social / emotional issues was also mentioned. Specifically, individuals frequently mentioned the existence of a "RAF Community". Although difficult to define, it refers to a mutual understanding and support that RAF personnel and their families offer each other. For instance, it is socially acceptable to simply knock on someone's door and ask for help (e.g. physical, informational). Similarly, strangers may offer help (e.g. new neighbours may offer to look after the children for a few hours).

Other social/emotional support is provided through conversation (e.g. people saying hello, listening on the phone, providing a shoulder to cry on); being shown around or receiving other practical help; being visited or invited to visit; informal arrivals vehicles; and other social activity. Finally, individuals felt it important that family and friends accept the RAF lifestyle and, as is often the case for military spouses, perhaps even make sacrifices for the lifestyle.

Other Support

"Other support" is any other support provided by friends, family, or strangers. Here only keeping an eye on the house whilst at work or on deployment was mentioned.

Summary

The qualitative data gained from exploratory interviews with RAF personnel, spouses and children corresponds well to the six relocation themes and supports their existence. Most of the subcategories were also supported, with the exception of some of the superfluous 'catch all' categories. The data illustrate that those relocating experience a number of significant changes in their lives. These changes pertain to both the physical environment and their working life. In addition, RAF employees and their families encounter a vast number and range of tasks associated with relocation. These include anything from physical labour (e.g. packing) to emotional efforts (e.g. re-establishing relationship). Taking together additional responsibilities arising at home and at work, respondents mentioned in excess of fifty relocation tasks.

Relocation difficulties were objective problems related to either the posting or the physical move itself. Respondents indicated numerous challenges including being issued conflicting information about the upcoming relocation by headquarters and problems with the removals company. Qualitative data further indicated that individuals relocating employed a number of emotion- and problem-focused coping techniques. One of the more innovative techniques was the mirror-imaging of a child's bedroom at the new location in order to create a sense of familiarity and provide a comfort zone for the child to retreat into.

The consequences of relocation were also diverse in this sample. Physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical effects were noted by individuals. In addition, interviewees often observed the influence relocation had on their family members. Interestingly, both positive and negative effects were observed. Finally, respondents alluded to two forms of support: Organisational (RAF) support and social support. Those interviewed appear to be aware of and use diverse support mechanisms available to them. The frequency of specific thematic occurrences in interviews is examined next.

Section III : Thematic Frequency Counts

After the thematic categories have been outlined, explained and demonstrated, it is now appropriate to provided frequency counts. These will help to quantify the data and allow the researcher to provide an estimation of the existence of each theme or effect. Frequencies will be offered for all themes, sub-themes and elements. Due to the sheer volume of data, not all of the frequencies can be discussed here (for a full presentation of all findings including frequencies, please consult Appendix O, where a tabular format has been utilised). Generally, discussion will focus on those elements most frequently cited or those of particular interest to the researcher. Throughout the remainder of this chapter and the corresponding appendices, the following abbreviations will be used:

Numbers in brackets represent the overall frequency (N; out of 110 possible responses) followed by the corresponding frequencies for the sub-samples (C, RS, RF, S). At this point it would be useful to recall that 15 children, 29 single RAF personnel, 33 RAF personnel with families and 33 spouses participated in the research (Ntotal = 110; Ctotal 15, RStotal 29, RFtotal 33, Stotal 33). The themes will now be reviewed in

Abbreviation	Participant Group
C	Children
RS	RAF Personnel (single)
RF	RAF Personnel (with family)
S	Spouse

Table 6.1: Participant Abbreviation Legend

order: Change, new tasks, difficulties, coping, outcomes, and support.

1   Change

Text from almost all participants (N = 109; C 14, RS 29, RF 33, S 33) corresponded to the thematic category *Change*. Furthermore, most participants (N = 107; C 14, RS 28, RF 32, S 33) mentioned location factors. Though fewer individuals mentioned work-factors, the response was still strong (N = 88; C 0, RS 28, RF 32, S 28). This result is perhaps unsurprising considering that children, whose responses were completely absent, are unlikely to be in employment and thus equally unlikely to discuss changes in this area of life during interviews. Other relocation-related change was also mentioned frequently (N = 91; C 1, RS 27, RF 33, S 30). Other relocation-unrelated change received similar attention (N = 92; C 0, RS 26, RF33, S 33).

1.1   Location Factors

The most frequently mentioned elements in this category include: The degree of isolation of a location, whether a unit is central or remote and how far it is from a village or city (N = 68; C 2, RS 20, RF 20, S 26); the number and type of facilities that are available on the unit and in the local area (N = 54; C 10, RS 9, RF 13, S 22); whether relocation is domestic or international (N = 49; C 4, RS 9, RF 23, S 13); the quality of accommodation (N = 49; C 0, RS 12, RF 17, S 20); distance from family / home and specifically whether the move increases or decreases that distance (N = 46; C 1, RS 9, RF 19, S 17); whether one already knows people at location that can offer help or support (N = 39; C 1, RS 14, RF 13, S 11); and the size of accommodation (N = 37; C 8, RS 6, RF 7, S 16).

Whether accommodation is on or off unit (N = 25; C 4, RS 4, RF 7, S 10); the existence and quality of communication links such as roads, motorways and public transport (N = 22; C 2, RS 6, RF 8, S 6); the cost or standard of living (N = 22; C 1, RS 2, RF 9, S 10); the features of the accommodation like whether it has carpet, showers, fence, parking, garage, garden, double-glazing (N = 22; C 7, RS 2, RF 4, S 9); and one's familiarity with location, i.e. whether one has been stationed there before or has family living in the vicinity (N = 20; C 2, RS 4, RF 9, S 5) were also often mentioned.

1.2   Work-Factors

Commonly cited factors in this category incorporate: The type of job one would be executing, with especial emphasis on qualitative changes between old and new job (N = 73; C 0, RS 25, RF 30, S 18); the change in workload and working hours (N = 24; C 0, RS 8, RF 12, S 4); the local ethos (N = 20; C 0, RS 11, RF 9, S 0); variations in the physical working environment (N = 15; C 0, RS 4, RF 9, S 2); the friendliness of a section or

unit, i.e. how well staff gets along (N = 15; C 0, RS 5, RF 9, S 1); and the amount of time one spends away (N = 15; C 0, RS 2, RF 13, S 0).

1.3 Relocation-Related

Whether one wants to move, e.g. if it is a favourable location or not (N = 45; C 0, RS 8, RF 21, S 16); if and how far one would commute (N = 42; C 0, RS 12, RF 20, S 10); the community tenure, including the length of posting or moving frequency (N = 39; C 0, RS 6, RF 18, S 15); the quality and amount of support one receives (N = 36; C 0, RS 4, RF 14, S 18); whether one is separated from his/her family (N = 35; C 0, RS 4, RF 19, S 12); the amount of pre-move notice that is received (N = 34; C 0, RS 9, RF 8, S 17); and the type of accommodation one lives in (N = 34; C 0, RS 7, RF 13, S 14) were among the other relocation-related factors often commented upon as changing.

1.4 Relocation-Unrelated

Other relocation-unrelated changes were: Whether children are present during relocation and how old they are (N = 68; C 0, RS 12, RF 27, S 29); the type of personality of relocating individuals, e.g. if they are generally calm or nervous and if they possess social confidence (N = 48; C 0, RS 9, RF 22, S 17); prior military experience for oneself, e.g. having been a forces child, and one's spouse, e.g. having been a forces child or having family in forces (N = 31; C 0, RS 1, RF 16, S 14); own age and maturity (N = 28; C 0, RS 5, RF 14, S 9); and spousal employment factors such as whether the spouse was employed, what type of employment s/he fostered and if it was transferable (N = 26; C 0, RS 0, RF 15, S 11).

Marital status and tenure (N = 22; C 0, RS 8, RF 10, S 4); private or military accommodation (N = 22; C 0, RS 6, RF 10, S 6); rank and organisational tenure (N = 22; C 0, RS 4, RF 11, S 7); amount of moving experience for oneself, e.g. having been a preacher's child or having visited boarding school, and one's spouse, e.g. coming from a mobile family (N = 19; C 0, RS 2, RF 8, S 9); amount of possessions (N = 18; C 0, RS 8, RF 8, S 2); trade branch (N = 15; C 0, RS 0, RF 10, S 5); parental age and health (N = 15; C 0, RS 1, RF 7, S7); and policy changes (N = 15; C 0, RS 3, RF 5, S 7) constituted further reoccurring elements in text passages.

2 New Tasks

A vast proportion of participants (N = 106; C 11, RS 29, RF 33, S 33) recalled *New Tasks* associated with relocation. Personal tasks obtained much attention (N = 106; C 11, RS 29, RF 33, S 33); while work-related tasks were observed less frequently (N = 56; C 0, RS 27, RF 25, S 5). No other tasks (relocation-related or relocation-unrelated) were reported.

2.1 Personal Tasks

Every subcategory assigned to *Personal Tasks* was well represented, with the exception of the Other category for which no suitable text was identified. The remaining groupings were cited as follows: Logistical (N = 74; C 0, RS 18, RF 21, S 30), administrative (N = 88; C 5, RS 21, RF 30, S 32), physical (N = 98; C 7, RS 29, RF 30, S 32), and social / emotional (N = 53; C 5, RS 15, RF 20, S 13). Each will be discussed in detail below.

Logistical Tasks

The most cited logistical tasks include: Planning and organising the move (N = 41; C 0, RS 9, RF 10, S 22); gathering location information, for instance collecting area information and obtaining directions (N = 34; C 0, RS 7, RF 9, S 18); arranging removals and storage (N = 26; C 0, RS 2, RF 7, S 17); and arranging the transport of goods (N = 13; C 0, RS 8, RF 3, S 2).

Administrative Tasks

Finding a new school (N = 39; C 3, RS 2, RF 13, S 21); applying for accommodation (N = 37; C 0, RS 16, RF 11, S 10); changing address (N = 30; C 1, RS 3, RF 12, S 14); finding spousal employment (N = 24; C 0, RS 0, RF 14, S 10); completing paperwork (N = 23; C 0, RS 4, RF 7, S 12); quarter handover (N = 23; C 0, RS 1, RF 10, S 12); and locating specialists like doctors, dentists and educators (N = 22; C 0, RS 0, RF 5, S 17) constitute the most frequent administrative tasks.

Physical Tasks

Physical tasks are plentiful: Packing and unpacking (N = 78; C 5, RS 22, RF 23, S 28); cleaning (N = 40; C 1, RS 5, RF 13, S 21); moving and lifting belonging (N = 35; C 1, RS 18, RF 13, S 3); arranging the house, e.g. hanging up pictures and arranging furniture (N = 28; C 2, RS 8, RF 6, S 12); having a sort out / clear out (N = 28; C 1, RS 7, RF 6, S 14); and decorating, i.e. making somewhere home, or redecorating, i.e. removing all visible wear, the accommodation (N = 10; C 0, RS 0, RF 5, S 5) are among them.

Social / Emotional Tasks

Socially- and psychologically-speaking individuals need to: Say good-bye (N = 19; C 1, RS 4, RF 6, S 8); make new friends (N = 23; C 2, RS 13, RF 8, S 0); adjusting / settling in (N = 23; C 1, RS 5, RF 11, S 6); and establishing routine (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 3).

2.2 Work-Related Tasks

Only three of the subcategories assigned to *Work-Related Tasks* were represented; physical and other tasks remained unmentioned. The rest of the groups were named as follows: Logistical (N = 13; C 0, RS 8, RF 3, S 2), administrative (N = 44; C 0, RS 22, RF 20, S 2), and social / emotional (N = 39; C 0, RS 21, RF 17, S 1). Each will be discussed in detail below.

Logistical Tasks

Taking information and downloading files (N = 2; C 0, RS 2, RF 0, S 0); seeking out job agencies (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1) and writing a CV (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1) all represent logistical tasks with regard to work.

Administrative Tasks

Administrative work-related tasks were not uncommon. Handover and takeover (N = 21; C 0, RS 12, RF 9, S 0); arrivals procedures; paperwork (N = 13; C 0, RS 7, RF 5, S 1); clearing the station (N = 6; C 0, RS 4,

RF 2, S 0); and going through the application and selection process (N = 4; C 0, RS 1, RF 2, S 1) were all made known.

Social / Emotional Tasks

Frequent social / emotional tasks are: Training (N = 24; C 0, RS 14, RF 9, S 1); learning (N = 22; C 0, RS 11, RF 11, S 0); and building or rebuilding work relationships (N = 17; C 0, RS 9, RF 8, S 0). These tasks are also commonly found among civilian peers that have recently relocated.

3 Relocation Difficulties

Difficulties associated with relocation were mentioned repeatedly (N = 98; C 5, RS 28, RF 33, S 32). Further, the subcategories posting difficulties (N = 69; C 2, RS 19, RF 24, S 24); problems with the physical move (N = 87; C 5, RS 26, RF 28, S 28); other relocation-related difficulties (N = 39; C 0, RS 13, RF 14, S 12); and other relocation-unrelated challenges (N = 40; C 0, RS 9, RF 29, S 11) were all present.

3.1 Posting

Posting problems included not being given enough notice (N = 28; C 0, RS 7, RF 6, S 15); changes to a posting (N = 25; C 0, RS 5, RF 11, S 9); not receiving enough information (N = 24; C 0, RS 5, RF 6, S 13); having to accept unwanted postings (N = 8; C 0, RS 3, RF 4, S 1); not being permitted to input (N = 7; C 2, RS 3, RF 2, S 0); short postings (N = 6; C 0, RS 3, RF 1, S 2); no or poor quality handovers (N = 6; C 0, RS 3, RF 3, S 0); and gapped posts (N = 5; C 0, RS 3, RF 2, S 0).

3.2 Physical Move

Breakages and losses (N = 26; C 3, RS 5, RF 12, S 6); not having any official time off for relocation (N = 23; C 0, RS 7, RF 8, S 8); being forced to move without one's family or partner (N = 19; C 0, RS 1, RF 6, S 12); single RAF personnel not receiving adequate support with the physical move (N = 18; C 0, RS 16, RF 2, S 0); utilising poor moving companies(N = 15; C 0, RS 1, RF 6, S 8); and late deliveries or delays (N = 12; C 0, RS 5, RF 4, S 3) complicate the physical move.

3.3 Other: Relocation-Related

The main other relocation-related challenges were: Block / Mess life being constrained and inappropriate for older adults (N = 13; C 0, RS 9, RF 2, S 2); the non-existence of degeneration of the 'RAF community' (N = 11; C 0, RS 3, RF 3, S 5); the shrinking RAF (N = 10; C 0, RS 1, RF 8, S 1); and differing services and standards (N = 8; C 0, RS 1, RF 2, S 5).

3.4 Other: Relocation-Unrelated

Isolated locations (N = 68; C 2, RS 20, RF 20, S 26), deployments and detachments (N = 38; C 0, RS 9, RF 19, S 10); serious life events (N = 16; C 0, RS 6, RF 5, S 5); RAF restructuring / drawdown (N = 8; C 0, RS 0, RF 8, S 0); not recognising partnerships or divorcees appropriately (N = 6; C 0, RS 5, RF 1, S 0); and alcohol culture (N = 6; C 0, RS 1, RF 2, S 3) were regularly mentioned as other relocation-unrelated problems.

4 Coping

Coping was a reoccurring theme in interviews (N = 107; C 12, RS 29, RF 33, S 33). Furthermore, all forms of coping suggested by Folkman & Lazarus (1988) and Folkman et al. (1986) were strongly represented: Emotion-Focused Coping (N = 103; C 9, RS 29, RF 33, S 32); Problem-Focused Coping (N = 99; C 8, RS 27, RF 32, S 32); and Both Forms of Coping (N = 96; C 6, RS 27, RF 30, S 33).

4.1 Emotion-Focused Coping

The frequencies of the subcategories (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al. 1986) were as follows: Distancing (N = 47; C 0, RS 12, RF 14, S 21); Self-Control (N = 33; C 1, RS 15, RF 12, S 6); Accepting Responsibility (N = 59; C 0, RS 17, RM 20, S 22); Positive Reappraisal (N = 54; C 2, RS 13, RF 21, S 18); and Escape-Avoidance (N = 68; C 7, RS 18, RF 18, S 25).

Distancing

Interviewees reported employing distancing efforts by: Denying negative relocation consequences completely, e.g. maintaining that "it has no effect", or partially, e.g. saying things such as "it doesn't phase me" or "I'm used to it" (N = 20; C 0, RS 6, RF 7, S 7); becoming emotionally hardened or detached (N = 19; C 0, RS 5, RF 6, S 8); reducing the significance of relocation, e.g. claiming that "it's not important" and "everywhere is same" (N = 13; C 0, RS 3, RF 3, S 7); and temporising the consequences, e.g. believing that "it's not forever" or "we'll meet again" (N = 7; C 0, RS 2, RF 3, S 2).

Self-control

Self-control expressed itself in the form of: Sitting back and observing, e.g. keeping oneself to oneself and being careful what you say (N = 28; C 0, RS 13, RF 12, S 3), as well as putting up a front, e.g. feigning happiness, projecting confidence, and being excessively polite (N = 6; C 1, RS 0, RF 1, S 4).

Accepting responsibility

Accepting responsibility expressed itself as: Accepting and/or expecting relocation as part of the RAF employment (N = 48; C 0, RS 15, RF 16, S 17); citing relocation as worsened through 'self-imposed' conditions, e.g. owning your own home (N = 10; C 0, RS 1, RF 5, S 4); wishing to deal with relocation and its outcomes alone (N = 9; C 0, RS 5, RF 3, S 1); and affirming that it was their 'own decision' to relocate, as is the case for volunteer or requested postings (N = 7; C 0, RS 0, RF 4, S 3).

Positive reappraisal

A positive attitude (N = 31; C 0, RS 6, RF 11, S 14); proclaiming "everywhere has good parts" (N = 22; C 0, RS 0, RF 9, S 13); believing "change is good" (N = 11; C 2, RS 4, RF 5, S 0); and decreeing to have less family time but more quality time, i.e. drawing positives out of the negative (N = 5; C 0, RS 3, RF 2, S 0) were indicative of positive reappraisal. Interestingly, some RAF personnel considered themselves as "lucky" compared to either other service branches, e.g. the Army, or other sections, e.g. "we look after our own" (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 1).

Escape-Avoidance

Efforts to escape-avoid exhibited themselves through: Withdrawal (N = 31; C 0, RS 14, RF 9, S 8); distracting children and not letting them witness the move (N = 21; C 6, RS 0, RF 2, S 13); leaving the relocation setting (N = 17; C 0, RS 2, RF 5, S 10); avoiding much of the physical relocation process by allowing the packers to do all the work (N = 13; C 0, RS 1, RF 1, S 11); repressing relocation-related thought (N = 10; C 0, RS 4, RF 2, S 4); and cutting ties prematurely by avoiding new friendships and social occasions (N = 10; C 0, RS 0, RM 4, S 6). Fascinatingly some interviewees also admitted to efforts aimed at keeping military and private spheres separate in an effort to avoid the associated consequences (N = 3; C 0, RS 1, RF 1, S 1).

4.2   Problem-Focused Coping

This form of coping has two constituents (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al. 1986): Confrontive Coping (N = 84; C 5, RS 21, RF 28, S 30) and Planful problem-solving (N = 93; C 6, RS 26, RF 32, S 29).

Confrontive coping

Confrontive coping was another way for interviewees to cope with relocation: Visiting the new area prior to relocation (N = 40; C 4, RS 3, RF 17, S 16); exploring the area post-relocation (N = 37; C 2, RS 9, RF 12, S 14); unpacking quickly and completing the physical relocation in a timely fashion (N = 22; C 0, RS 0, RF 4, S 18); having a sort out and throwing away possessions (N = 14; C 0, RS 6, RF 3, S 5); lodging complaints or challenging decisions (N = 13; C 0, RS 1, RF 3, S 9); ringing around and gather information (N = 13; C 0, RS 9, RF 2, S 2); unpacking in a logical order (N = 11; C 0, RS 0, RF 3, S 8); and helping or looking after packers (N = 10; C 0, RS 0, RF 3, S 7) are all examples of this form of coping.

Planful problem solving

Behaviours that were indicative of Planful Problem Solving included: Preparing for relocation (N = 69; C 0, RS 20, RF 23, S 26); choosing to commute rather than engaging in a full-fledged relocation (N = 45; C 0, RS 13, RF 21, S 11); researching the area and gathering information (N = 40; C 1, RS 6, RF 13, S 20); purchasing private accommodation (N = 29; C 0, RS 8, RF 14, S 7); sending children to boarding school (N = 24; C 6, RS 0, RF 10, S 6); taking leave (N = 19; C 0, RS 5, RF 10, S 4); not moving (N = 17; C 0, RS 3, RF 11, S 3); and leaving the RAF early (N = 13; C 0, RS 1, RF 11, S 1).

4.3   Both Forms of Coping

According to Folkman & Lazarus (1988) and Folkman et al. (1986), the only form of coping assigned to this category is seeking social support (N = 96; C 6, RS 27, RF 30, S 33)

Seeking social support

Individuals also sought out social support by: Obtaining help from friends or family (N = 51; C 0, RS 12, RF 14, S 25); going out to meet people (N = 46; C 0, RS 16, RF 13, S 17); staying in touch with loved ones (N = 43; C 4, RS 11, RF 14, S 14); having family discussions and ensuring support (N = 33; C 1, RS 0, RF 18, S 15); asking friends or family to take the children during relocation (N = 31; C 0, RS 2, RF 9, S 20); having

one's partner help with the relocation-related work (N = 24; C 0, RS 2, RF 8, S 14); and visiting or being visited (N = 16; C 1, RS 4, RF 1, S 10).

5   Outcomes

Every single individual interviewed, referred to one or more relocation outcomes (N = 110; C 15, RS 29, RF 33, S 33). *Relocation consequences* was therefore the thematic category participants most frequently alluded to. Both subcategories were represented as follows: Personal relocation outcomes (N = 110; C 15, RS 29, RF 33, S 33) and familial relocation consequences (N 71; C 0, RS 10, RF 30, S 31). The two "other" categories (relocation-related and relocation-unrelated outcomes) were absent.

5.1   Personal

Each interviewee named at least one personal relocation consequence. These consequences can be both positive (N 110; C 15, RS 29, RF 33, S 32) and negative (N 110; C 15, RS 29, RF 33, S 33). The subcategories for this theme are: Physical (N 22; C 1, RS 7, RF 4, S 10); psychological (N = 108; C 14, RS 28, RF 33, S 33); social (N 107; = C 13, RS 29, RF 32, S 33); behavioural (N = 69; C 1, RS 20, RF 21, S 27); and practical outcomes (N = 109; C 14, RS 29, RF 33, S 33). Of these, *psychological outcomes* was the most frequently cited subcategory, closely followed by practical and social outcomes.

Physical

A greater number of participants referred to negative (N = 15; C 1, RS 2, RF 3, S 9) than positive (N = 8; C 0, RS 5, RF 1, S 2) physical relocation outcomes. The few negative consequences mentioned by two ore more respondents are: Exhaustion (N = 10; C 0, RS 2, RF 2, S 6), sleeplessness or insomnia (N = 2; C 1, RS 0, RF 0, S 1), and weight gain (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 2). Increased exercise was the only positive element mentioned by multiple individuals (N = 6; C 0, RS 4, RF 1, S 1).

Psychological

Again more contributors identified negative psychological consequences (N = 104; C 12, RS 27, RF 33, S 32) than positive ones (N = 101; C 12, RS 28, RF 33, S 28). Often cited negative effects incorporate: Stress (N = 62; C 1, RS 13, RF 24, S 24); sadness (N = 46; C 8, RS 7, RF 14, S 17); nervousness and worry (N = 41; C 2, RS 0, RF 19, S 20); feeling of impermanence, not having roots or residential stability (N = 38; C 1, RS 6, RF 16, S 15); uncertainty and fear of the unknown (N = 34; C 1, RS 9, RF 8, S 16); having to start again (N = 31; C 1, RS 11, RF 9, S 11); and having *"itchy feet"*, i.e. being plagued by a constant desire to relocate and/or need for change (N = 31; C 2, RS 5, RF 15, S 9)

Other negative psychological states: Experiencing an adjustment period (N = 30; C 2, RS 8, RF 8, S 12); insecurity / lack of confidence (N = 22; C 1, RS 8, RF 4, S 9); isolation and loneliness (N = 24; C 1, RS 3, RF 8, S 12); preoccupation with mobility (N = 24; C 0, RS 3, RF 8, S 13); and relocation fatigue, i.e. disliking moving and not wanting to move at all or as much (N = 21; C 1, RS 3, RF 11, S 6). Additional psychological consequences related to the RAF but were brought up on a less regular basis were forming a military mindset (N = 13; C 0, RS 4, RF 9, S 0) and being institutionalised (N = 7; C 0, RS 3, RF 3, S 1).

Naturally not all psychological relocation outcomes are negative. The most popular positive psychological effects include: Experiencing excitement (N = 55; C 11, RS 10, RF 15, S 19); gaining confidence (N = 37; C 0, RS 17, RF 7, S 13); being presented with a new challenge (N = 30; C 0, RS 9, RF 15, S 6); improving on relocation (N = 24; C 1, RS 2, RF 11, S 10); learning and gaining knowledge (N = 18; C 0, RS 11, RF 7, S 0); starting again with a clean slate (N = 18; C 1, RS 8, RF 5, S 4); change (N = 15; C 1, RS 1, RF 4, S 9); and personal growth (N = 15; C 0, RS 7, RF 3, S 5).

Social

Both negative (N = 99; C 12, RS 26, RF 30, S 31) and positive (N = 84; C 8, RS 27, RF 31, S 28) social outcomes related to relocation were announced. Losing and leaving friends (N = 77; C 11, RS 19, RF 22, S 25); having transient friendships (N = 52; C 0, RS 10, RF 24, S 18); experiencing relationship stress (N = 41; C 2, RS 18, RF 16, S 9); having difficulties making new friends (N = 39; C 4, RS 14, RF 9, S 12); not knowing anyone (N = 23; C 5, RS 3, RF 4, S 11); community transience and turnover (N = 21; C 0, RS 7, RF 7, S 7); becoming careful about investing in people (N = 14; C 0, RS 1, RF 6, S 7); and civilians not understanding the military lifestyle (N = 14; C 0, RS 2, RF 5, S 7) were among the most popular negative outcomes.

Favourite positive social outcomes include meeting people and forming new friendships (N = 76; C 6, RS 25, RF 25, S 20); meeting people again (N = 37; C 1, RS 8, RF 15, S 13); gaining social skills (N = 27; C 0, RS 9, RF 8, S 10); sense of belonging and community (N = 21; C 0, RS 6, RF 8, S 7); vast variety of friends and colleagues (N = 16; C 0, RS 7, RF 6, S 3); better / deeper friendships (N = 13; C 1, RS 3, RF 3, S 6); and closer family relationships (N = 13; C 1, RS 1, RF 6, S 5).

Behavioural

Disadvantageous behavioural outcomes (N = 71; C 1, RS 20, RF 23, S 27) and advantageous behavioural outcomes of relocation (N = 12; C 0, RS 3, RF 9, S 0) were reviewed. Short-temperedness (N = 21; C 0, RS 4, RF 3, S 14); decreased work performance (N = 17; C 0, RS 4, RF 13, S 0); poor diet (N = 13; C 1, RS 0, RF 0, S 12); and withdrawing physically (N = 32; C 0, RS 14, RF 10, S 8) were among the less favourable effects; whereas increased effort at work (N = 13; C 1, RS 3, RF 9, S 0) principally represented positive effects. It is noteworthy that interviewees generally designated reductions in work performance as occurring prior to the move, i.e. at the old position, whilst explaining increased work effort as post-move behaviour, i.e. an occurrence at the new work location.

Practical Outcomes

In the category of practical relocation outcomes, negative consequences (N = 108; C 13, RS 29, RF 33, S 33) slightly outweighed positive consequences (N = 105; C 12, RS 29, RF 33, S 31). Practical consequences that were negative in nature included: Distance from family (N = 51; C 1, RS 20, RF 17, S 13); additional tasks arising out of relocation (N = 48; C 2, RS 16, RF 10, S 20); commuting (N = 45; C 0, RS 13, RF 21, S 11); being separated (N = 35; C 0, RS 4, RF 19, S 12); distance from friends (N = 31; C 4, RS 10, RF 11, S 6); increased cost / lost income associated with a geographical move (N = 25; C 0, RS 4, RF 10, S 11); and not knowing the area (N = 24; C 4, RS 7, RF 4, S 9).

Additionally, respondents indicated inconvenience (N = 21; C 2, RS 3, RF 7, S 9); having no choice over schools (N = 21; C 0, RS 0, RF 9, S 12); being unable to find NHS doctors and dentists (N = 19; C 0, RS 0, RF 5, S 14); furniture not fitting into the new accommodation (N = 17; C 0, RS 2, RF 5, S 10); deciding to leave the RAF to avoid future relocations (N = 13; C 0, RS 1, RF 11, S 1); being far from one's partner (N = 13; C 0, RS 9, RF 3, S 1); and not being on the housing ladder (N = 13; C 0, RS 1, RF 7, S 5) as negative outcomes.

Medical waiting lists (N = 6; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 4) are also a serious concern. Under the NHS, National Health Service, medical treatment is not always available immediately and, where this is the case, individuals are placed on medical waiting lists. These lists are operated on a county basis. Relocation often translates into patients changing local authorities and thus means that individuals have to start again at the bottom of the waiting lists. When moves are very frequent, this cycle may become vicious and medical treatment forsaken entirely.

Nonetheless, it is not all negative. Relocation certainly also brings about a range of positive practical consequences such as: Seeing new places (N = 81; C 6, RS 24, RF 25, S 26); being able to execute a new job (N = 35; C 0, RS 12, RF 23, S 0); going abroad (N = 31; C 1, RS 6, RF 15, S 9); gaining experience (N = 30; C 0, RS 14, RF 12, S 4); opportunity for improvement (N = 29; C 2, RS 9, RF 12, S 6); new opportunities and activities (N = 22; C 3, RS 5, RF 6, S 8); and being closer to family, home or school (N = 21; C 2, RS 7, RF 6, S 6).

5.2 Familial

Almost twice as many participants alluded to negative family outcomes (N = 71; C 0, RS 10, RF 30, S 31) as alluded to positive ones (N = 36; C 0, RS 1, RF 15, S 20). Spouses (N = 58; C 0, RS 6, RF 28, S 24) received the most attention, closely followed by children (N = 48; C 0, RS 5, RF 16, S 27). Extended family (N = 24; C 0, RS 3, RF 14, S 10) was also discussed.

Spouse

A fair proportion of interviewees mentioned negative spousal outcomes (N = 55; C 0, RS 6, RF 28, S 21); positive spousal outcomes were also spoken about (N = 22; C 0, RS 1, RF 8, S 13).

Of the negative relocation effects some were practical (N = 42; C 0, RS 6, RF 24, S 12); others were psychological (N = 40; C 0, RS 4, RF 20, S 16), social (N = 25; C 0, RS 3, RF 17, S 5) or physical (N = 3; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 3). The most frequently cited practical outcomes were relationship tension and poor family dynamics (N = 15; C 0, RS 1, RF 8, S 6); being left alone (N = 11; C 0, RS 1, RF 8, S 2); reduced job opportunities and slowed career advancement (N = 9; C 0, RS 1, RF 8, S 0); distance from family (N = 9; C 0, RS 0, RF 8, S 1); and the physical move itself.

Negative *psychological* outcomes of relocation for spouses such stress (N = 17; C 0, RS 0, RF 7, S 10); starting over (N = 6; C 0, RS 3, RF 3, S 0); anger (N = 6; C 0, RS 1, RF 2, S 3); fear and apprehension (N = 6; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 4); unhappiness (N = 5; C 0, RS 1, RF 2, S 2); and finally upheaval / unsettlement (N = 5; C 0, RS 1, RF 3, S 1) were also discussed.

The three main disadvantageous *social* outcomes were: Losing friends (N = 13; C 0, RS 2, RF 10, S 1); having to rebuild social networks (N = 16; C 0, RS 1, RF 10, S 5); and isolation (N = 5; C 0, RS 0, RF 5, S 0). *Physically*-speaking, negative consequences restricted themselves to blood pressure, exhaustion and skin problems; each was mentioned by only one participant (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1).

Positive effects could be practical (N = 17; C 0, RS 1, RF 6, S 10), psychological (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 1) and social (N = 7; C 0, RS 0, RF 4, S 3). Participants revealed *positive practical* relocation results such as job variety (N = 9; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 9); experience gains (N = 7; C 0, RS 1, RF 4, S 2); new opportunities (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0); and being closer to family (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0). Spousal *psychological advantages* were limited to open-mindedness (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0) and confidence (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1). *Social highlights* consisted of new friendships (N = 6; C 0, RS 0, RF 3, S 3); meeting similar people (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0); and having a better family life (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1).

Child(ren)

Interviewees reported both negative (N = 48; C 0, RS 5, RF 16, S 27) and positive (N = 18; C 0, RS 0, RF 7, S 12) relocation outcomes for children. Unfavourable consequences can be further subdivided into practical (N = 45; C , RS 2, RF 20, S 23), social (N = 42; C 0, RS 4, RF 16, S 22), psychological (N = 37; C 0, RS 5, RF 14, S 18) and behavioural (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 2) costs.

Practical effects reported for children were mostly related to school and consisted of frequent school and nursery changes (N = 35; C 0, RS 2, RF 14, S 19); falling behind academically (N = 15; C 0, RS 1, RF 10, S 4); having to attend boarding school to gain some stability (N = 12; C 0, RS 0, RF 6, S 6); and being confronted with different school system (N = 10; C 0, RS 1, RF 6, S 3).

Socially, children were said to lose friends (N = 39; C 0, RS 4, RF 16, S 19); experience strained family relations (N = 10; C 0, RS 0, RF 6, S 4); and have no friends at the location (N = 5; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 4). *Psychological outcomes* for children include upheaval (N = 20; C 0, RS 1, RF 8, S 11); unhappiness or sadness (N = 9; C 0, RS 1, RF 3, S 5); and stress (N = 5; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 4); while *behavioural effects* are being careful about forging new friendships (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 0); acting out (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1); and being aggressive (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1).

Benefits of relocation for children were said to be practical (N = 12; C 0, RS 0, RF 6, S 6), psychological (N = 13; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 11) and social (N = 5; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 3). Practically interviewees reported experience gains (N = 5; C 0, RS 0, RF 3, S 2); a greater number and high quality of facilities (N = 3; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 2); better education (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 0); and new activities (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 2) for children.

The psychological advantages of excitement (N = 9; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 8) and independence (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 2) were also celebrated. Further, social pluses such as meeting people (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 2) and improved social skills (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 1) were remarked on.

Extended family participants also revealed disadvantages (N = 19; C 0, RS 3, RF 8, S 8) and advantages

(N = 8; C 0, RS 0, RF 4, S 4) of relocation for their extended family. Negatives included: Strained family relationships (N = 16; C 0, RS 2, RF 8, S 6); not being able to understand the mobile military lifestyle (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 2); and distance from family (N = 5; C 0, RS 2, RF 2, S 1). Positives were largely linked to travelling and visiting relocated members at their new location (N = 7; C 0, RS 0, RF 3, S 4).

5.3 Other (Relocation-Related & Relocation-Unrelated)

No suitable text was identified for either of these categories.

6 Support

The two types of support were referenced well: RAF Support (N = 99; C 4, RS 29, RF 33, S 33) and Social Support (N = C 9, RS 17, RF 31, S 33).

6.1 RAF Support

RAF Support was further divided into administrative support (N = 22; C 0, RS 6, RF 10, S 6); physical support (N = 85; C 4, RS 22, RF 29, S 30); logistical support (N = 69; C 0, RS 20, RF 28, S 21); financial support (N = 61; C 0, RS 21, RF 25, S 15); informational support (N = 83; C 0, RS 24, RF 28, S 31); social/emotional support (N = 44; C 0, RS 15, RF 15, S 14); and other support (N = 57; C 0, RS 19, RF 27, S 11). Respondents also referred to some relocation-unrelated support (N = 17; C 0, RS 4, RF 8, S 5) that will be briefly reviewed.

Administrative

According to interviewees, the RAF provides administrative support in the forms of: General clerical support, such as help with paperwork and filling in forms, provided by PSF (N = 15; C 0, RS 3, RF 8, S 4); specific administrative help with accommodation and quarter forms provided by DHE (N = 7; C 0, RS 3, RF 2, S 2); and finally administrative support with allowance applications again provided by PSF (N = 5; C 0, RS 1, RF 3, S 1). DHE, or the Defence Housing Executive, is a unique organisation that is responsible for managing all of the RAF housing stock.

Physical

Physical support was offered in the forms of removals for married couples and single parents (N = 68; C 4, RS 9, RF 25, S 30); goods movement through store, supply, MFO, R&D, movements, or M&S shipping for single personnel (N = 18; C 0, RS 12, RF 6, S 0); transport for self and goods, provided my the MT (military transport) section or supplied through private rental (N = 18; C 0, RS 11, RF 6, S 1); and making a cleaning contract scheme available (N = 8; C 0, RS 1, RF 3, S 4). The cleaning contract scheme provides RAF families with the names of reliable cleaning agencies that clean quarters to service standard.

Logistical

Arrangement & organisation of the physical move, including very detailed information regarding a time scale (N = 32; C 0, RS 7, RF 14, S 11); providing military accommodation such as a room in the Block / Mess or a quarter, this includes making furnishings available for rent (N = 29; C 0, RS 7, RF 12, S 10); and providing

or paying for temporary accommodation, e.g. hotel or transit military accommodation (N = 16; C 0, RS 2, RF 10, S 4) all fit this category.

Other logistical support includes: Offering a storage facility (N = 14; C 0, RS 4, RF 3, S 7); allowing time off either unofficially or as part of allocated annual leave (N =13; C 0, RS 7, RF 6, S 0); and allowing individuals to go into hirings, or as it used to be called excess rent, if no military accommodation is available (N = 5; C 0, RS 1, RF 0, S 4).

Financial

Financial support was often reported during interviews. Things such as disturbance allowance (N = 31; C 0, RS 7, RF 16, S 8); travel allowance (N = 13; C 0, RS 10, RF 3, S 0); stamp duty / legal fees (N = 11; C 0, RS 1, RF 9, S 1); baggage allowance (N = 10; C 0, RS 8, RF 2, S 0); children's allowance (N = 9; C 0, RS 1, RF 7, S 1); boarding school allowance (N = 6; C 0, RS 1, RF 5, S 0); long service advance of pay (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 0); long separation allowance (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1); basic food charges (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0); and travel charges (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0) make up this type of support.

Informational

Valuable sources of information include: The HIVE or Help & Information Volunteer Exchange (N = 36; C 0, RS 1, RF 11, S 24); information packs and letters (N = 35; C 0, RS 7, RF 13, S 15); the posting notice and associated information (N = 23; C 0, RS 5, RF 10, S 8); arrivals brief (N = 20; C 0, RS 9, RF 9, S 2); PSF & SHQ (N = 19; C 0, RS 6, RF 8, S 5); handover (N = 14; C 0, RS 9, RF 4, S 1); training, courses and other forms of education (N = 13; C 0, RS 7, RF 6, S 0); DHE (N = 12; C 0, RS 1, RF 6, S 5), and the unit information booklet (N = 10; C 0, RS 1, RF 3, S 6)

Other helpful organisations and events include: Roadreps (N = 14; C 0, RS 1, RF 6, S 7); the coffee shop and coffee mornings, where spouses have a chance to meet each other (N = 8; C 0, RS 0, RF 5, S 3); SSAFA, the Soldiers, Sailors and Airmen Families' Association (N = 3; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 2); the RAF families' office (N = 2; C 0, RS 1, RF 1, S 0); Services Children Education (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 1); and Airwaves (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 1).

Social/Emotional

Respondents mentioned receiving social / emotional support through: Arrivals and squadron vehicles (N = 13; C 0, RS 8, RF 5, S 0); coffee morning and clubs (N = 12; C 0, RS 1, RF 5, S 6); the padre (N = 10; C 0, RS 4, RF 2, S 4); SSAFA (N = 10; C 0, RS 3, RF 2, S 5); roadreps (N = 8; C 0, RS 1, RF 4, S 3); the Mess and dining in nights (N = 6; C 0, RS 2, RF 3, S 1); and Airwaves (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 2). All of these are military services and will be discussed in more detail in the next chapter.

Other: Relocation-Related

Additionally, service personnel and their families find the subsequent helpful: That all units have a similar structure and similar processes (N = 25; C 0, RS 5, RF 17, S 3); being able to submit a Preferred Posting Proforma list your three preferred postings (N = 38; C 0, RS 12, RF 19, S 7); the existence of applied postings,

e.g. environmental, volunteer jobs, medical grounds, compassionate posting, last tour, disestablished units get preference, longest in post, personality clash (N = 12; C 0, RS 6, RF 6, S 0); and the minimum turbulence policy (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 4, S 0).

Further text that qualified for the *Other* category was related to: The possibility of pre-march ins and proxy march outs (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 3, S 1); co-postings for married dual-service couples (N = 3; C 0, RS 1, RF 2, S 0); that single parents are quartered (N = 3; C 0, RS 2, RF 1, S 0); that no posting or detachment occurs within the first twelve months of marriage (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0); and that the possibility of school visits exists (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0). As can be seen, most of these are based on RAF policy.

Other: Relocation-Unrelated

Exceptions and exemptions, including pregnancy support, time off, day release to attend courses, providing for special educational needs, disability support (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 2); medical care and respite for RAF personnel, and in exceptional cases also their families (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 3); deployment support (N = 4; C 0, RS 1, RF 2, S 1); the existence of contact houses for single parents (N = 2; C 0, RS 1, RF 1, S 0); and option points, the ability to retire from the forces early (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0) were also mentioned but are unrelated to relocation and thus will not be discussed further.

6.2 Social Support

The frequencies of the sub-themes are distributed as follows: Administrative support (N = 20; C 1, RS 0, RF 7, S 12); physical support (N = 54; C 5, RS 9, RF 17, S 23); logistical support (N = 48; C 4, RS 2, RF 17, S 25); financial support (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 2); informational support (N = 34; C 5, RS 2, RF 10, S 17); social/emotional support (N = 68; C 4, RS 11, RF 26, S 27); and other support (N = 1; C 0, RS 1, RF 0, S 0).

Administrative

Social support, which was mostly offered by spouses and parents, commonly included support with official paperwork such as applying for military accommodation, military furniture loan and allowances (N = 12; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 10); the administrative part of the move out (N = 12; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 1); and help changing address and redirecting mail (N = 7; C 0, RS 0, RF 5, S 2).

Physical

Social contacts offered physical help with packing and unpacking (N = 34; C 4, RS 7, RF 7, S 16); cleaning (N = 9; C 0, RS 0, RF 4, S 5); moving and lifting (N = 7; C 0, RS 2, RF 3, S 2); and redesigning, redecorating and other efforts to bring the house back into condition including hanging curtains, closing up holes where pictures hung, painting, and yard work (N = 7; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 5).

Logistical

Logistically support provided by friends and family consisted of: Temporary baby-sitting or taking the children for an extended period of time (N = 31; C 0, RS 2, RF 9, S 20); providing temporary accommodation between the official move out and move in (N = 22; C 0, RS 0, RF 11, S 11); arranging or organising aspects related

to relocation, e.g. removals, takeaways, making lists (N = 9; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 8); and general planning (N = 5; C 4, RS 0, RF 0, S 1).

Financial

Social contacts were not an important source of financial support. However, in rare cases interviewees reported being offered or receiving this type of help from someone within their support network. Being offered financial help (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1); and being given part of the allowance to spend (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1) were declared.

Informational

The two main forms of information support participants reported were: The provision of area information, including services and facilities on unit and in the local area (N = 30; C 4, RS 2, RF 10, S 14); and involvement in decision-making / communication (N = 13; C 0, RS 0, RF 5, S 8). Additionally, social support was provided in the form of information regarding the move, normally when and where to one would relocate (N = 4; C 1, RS 0, RF 1, S 2); and being shown the house in advance (N = 2; C 2, RS 0, RF 0, S 0).

Social/Emotional

Conversations (N = 31; C 3, RS 2, RF 9, S 17); general support through the acceptance of the military lifestyle and the willingness to make sacrifices (N = 30; C 0, RS 5, RF 15, S 10); having a feeling of community (N = 12; C 0, RS 0, RF 8, S 4); visits (N = 14; C 0, RS 1, RF 4, S 9); as well as arrivals vehicles and other social activity (N = 12; C 0, RS 3, RF 9, S 0) were discussed with regard to social / emotional support.

Other

Only one individual mentioned receiving *other* support from social contacts. This was keeping an eye on the house whilst away (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 1).

Summary

Thematic frequency counts indicated that degree of isolation (mentioned by 62% of the sample), the number and type of available facilities (mentioned by 49% of the sample), and domestic vs. international location (mentioned by 45% of the sample) were the changes most frequently observed by interviewees. Participants also mentioned some relocation-unrelated factors that likely influence relocation. These include the presence and age of children in the household (62%), level of social confidence (44%), and prior moving experience (28%). The relocation tasks most often cited by respondents were packing (71%), cleaning (36%), and finding a new school for children (35%).

The limited amount of notice received prior to relocation (26%), accommodation not being available (24%), and breakages / losses (24%) represent the difficulties associated with relocation that were most commonly reviewed by interviewees. With regard to coping, respondents most frequently discussed requesting help from friends and family (45%), accepting relocation as a natural part of life in the RAF (44%), and actively going out to meet people (42%).

The top three positive relocation consequences were seeing places and visiting new areas (74%), meeting people (69%), and the excitement caused by relocation (50%); while friendship loss (70%), stress (56%), and shallow friendships (47%) represented negative outcomes of relocation. Support for relocation largely came from the RAF and most notably comprised a removals service (62%); the HIVE (33%); and information packs (32%). The consequent section focuses on the only two specific qualitative questions that were asked in interviews: The worst and the best thing about moving.

Section IV : Specific Questions - The Worst & The Best

The interviews were designed to be general and open enough to capture all aspects related to relocation. However, aside from the quantitative demographic and quantitative questions, two other specific questions were asked. The first of these required respondents to identify the worst thing about moving, while the second made inquiries regarding the best thing about moving. Results from these questions will be discussed next.

1 The Worst Aspects of Relocation

In order to get an indication about what individuals perceived to be most negative about relocation, participants were asked to share their perceptions on the topic.

Participants most frequently cited upheaval and having to start again (22) as the worst aspect of moving. However, the physical move itself (18), specific relocation tasks (15), and leaving friends (15) were also mentioned often. The next frequent items were the negative effect on family (9), the unknown / uncertainty associated with relocation (7), difficulties surrounding schools for children (4), and meeting new people (3). Distance from family, the lack of notice prior to moving, the lack of relocation leave, lack of standardisation between houses, and lack of control were each mentioned by 2 individuals. Only lone interviewees referred to items related to information overload, lack of family involvement, exhaustion, and nervousness. Three respondents did not provide an answer or could not think of an appropriate response.

When examining findings for the specific subgroups, it can be reported that single RAF personnel rate the physical move (8), specific relocation tasks (5), and upheaval associated with moving (5) as the most negative aspects of relocation. The picture is slightly different for RAF personnel with families, who rate upheaval (7) most negatively, closely followed by the physical move (6) and the negative effect of relocation on family (4). The list of the most negative aspect of relocation for spouses is topped by upheaval (8), specific relocation tasks (7), and the unknown / uncertainty associated with moving. Children found it most difficult to leave friends (7) but also perceive the physical move (3) and the associated upheaval (2) negatively.

Worst Thing	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouses	Children	TOTAL
Upheaval / starting again / setting in (home & work)	5	7*	8*	2	22*
Physical move	8*	6	1	3	18
Specific tasks (e.g. clearing station, travel, house hunting, cleaning, finding work)	5	2	7	1	15
Leaving friends	3	3	2	7*	15
Effect on family (including financial cost)	3	4	2		9
Unknown / uncertainty / lack of information		1	6		7
Schools		2	2		4
Meeting people	1	1	1		3
Distance from Family	2				2
Not enough notice		1	1		2
No leave for RAFer		1	1		2
Lack of standardisation (e.g. difference between houses)		1	1		2
Lack of control		2			2
Too much information			1		1
Lack of family involvement		1			1
Exhaustion				1	1
Nervousness		1			1
No answer / nothing	*2*			*1*	*3*
TOTAL (N)	**29**	**33**	**33**	**15**	**110**

Table 6.2: Respondents' Views on the Worst Aspect of Relocation (incl. Frequencies)

2   The Best Aspects of Relocation

In order to get an indication about what individuals perceived to be most positive about relocation, interviewees were asked to share their perceptions on the topic.

Seeing new places and visiting new areas (27) was mentioned most frequently as the best aspect of relocation by interviewees. Participants also often referred to the benefits of meeting new people (17), the challenge associated with relocation (13), opportunity (11), and doing a new job (9). Experience and excitement (7), having a new start (7), change in general (4), living in a new house (3), financial gain through relocation (3), personal growth (2), and specific moving rituals (2) were further cited. Five individuals were unable to refer to a single positive thing about relocation or simply did not provide an answer.

When examining findings for the specific subgroups, it can be reported that single RAF personnel rate meeting new people (7), the challenge associated with relocation (6), seeing new places (5), and having a new start (5) as the best aspects of relocation. The picture is slightly different for RAF personnel with families, who rate opportunity for improvement (7) and executing a new job (7) most positively, closely followed by the seeing new places (6). The list of the best aspect of relocation for spouses is topped by seeing new places and areas (15), meeting people (4), and the challenge related to moving (3). Children found it most favourable to meet new people (5) but also perceive living in a new house (3), opportunity arising out of relocation (2), and experience / excitement (2) positively.

Best Thing	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouses	Children	TOTAL
Seeing places / new area	5	6	15*	1	27*
Meeting new people	7*	1	4	5*	17
Challenge	6	4	3		13
Opportunity (e.g. improve or up-grade housing, work)	2	7*		2	11
New job / new skills	2	7*			9
Experience / excitement	1	2	2	2	7
New start	5	1	1		7
Change		2	2		4
New house / room				3	3
Financial gain	1	1	1		3
Broadening / growth / learning		1	1		2
Moving rituals (e.g. clear out, car games)		1		1	2
No answer / Nothing			*4*	*1*	*5*
TOTAL (N)	**29**	**33**	**33**	**15**	**110**

Table 6.3: Respondents' Views on the Best Aspect of Relocation (incl. Frequencies)

Summary

To close, it appears that although some differences exist between groups, interviewees overall found the upheaval of relocation and having to start again, the physical move itself, specific relocation tasks, and leaving friends most difficult. The most positive aspects of moving included seeing new places and visiting new areas, meeting new people, and the challenge associated with relocation.

Section V : Conclusion

This chapter has presented a range of qualitative findings arising out of the current research study. First, an introduction and description of the purely qualitative results was provided. These findings were then quantified on the basis of frequency counts in the subsequent section. Finally, the specific questions regarding the best and worst elements of relocation were examined. Data from the interviews supports the six relocation themes and their subcategories well.

The available information indicates that those relocating with the RAF experience a number of significant changes relating to the physical environment and their working life as a result. Results further show that participants experienced numerous relocation difficulties related to the posting or the physical move itself. Qualitative data further supported that movers employed a number of emotion- and problem-focused techniques to cope with relocation. Physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical consequences of relocation were reported by individuals. Both positive and negative effects were observed. Additionally, the effect of relocation often extended beyond the employee to their family. Also, participants noted utilising many forms of organisational and social support during relocation.

CHAPTER 6. QUALITATIVE RESULTS

Thematic frequency counts highlighted degree of isolation, number and type of facilities, and domestic vs. international location as relocation-associated change. Relocation tasks most often cited by respondents included packing, cleaning, and finding a new school. The limited amount of notice received prior to relocation, accommodation not being available, and breakages / losses constituted some of the difficulties associated with relocation. Respondents most frequently reported coping with relocation by requesting help from friends and family, accepting relocation as a natural part of life in the RAF, and actively going out to meet people.

The top three positive effects of relocation included seeing places, meeting people, and excitement; while lost friendships, stress, and shallow relationships accounted for the main negative outcomes of relocation. Support for relocation appeared to largely come from the RAF and mainly comprised removals service; the HIVE; and information packs. Section III focused on the worst (upheaval, the physical move, specific relocation tasks, & leaving friend) and best aspects of relocation (seeing new places, meeting people, & the challenge). Some differences between groups were highlighted.

Chapter 7 : Group & Military-Specific Results

This chapter will review those results specific to the sub-groups and the military nature of the sample. The initial section will review and summarise the main findings for each of the four participant subgroups. The most frequently cited subject matters pertaining specifically to single RAF personnel, RAF personnel with families, spouses, and children will be revealed. The consequent section endeavours to tests the hypothesis whether single RAF personnel or those with families fare better with regard to relocation. Three indictors are chosen as a basis for this assessment. Section III reports and summarise findings unique to the Armed Forces. Finally, a brief chapter conclusion is offered.

Section I : Subgroups

Each group of participants can be distinguished from each other. For instance, although single RAF employees will be less likely to voice family concerns, they will be able to reveal difficulties specific to single moves. Both RAF personnel with families and spouses are expected to express similar issues, yet it is more probably that RAF personnel will comment on the official service element of the move. Finally, while children's concerns are predicted to reflect some of the adult themes, they are also expected to be unique and qualitative different from their parents in certain respects. For example, while children are likely to be relatively unconcerned about employment, worries centring on school-related issues can be expected.

The most frequently quoted elements for each sample group, organised by theme, will be summarised in this part. In general, the top five subject matters will be discussed but where several categories are mentioned with similar frequency, all of them are included; thus slightly increasing the number of items presented. The frequency of citation is indicated by a number in brackets that follows the item, e.g. item (n).

1   Single RAF Personnel (RAF-S)

Details regarding the findings obtained for single RAF personnel follow. Results pertain to the thematic categories of change, new tasks, relocation difficulties, coping, outcomes, and support. RAF personnel without

families most often cited job type (25); degree of isolation (20); already knowing people at the location (14); whether one has to train (14); the quality of accommodation (12); whether and how far one commutes (12); and if children are present in the household (12) as important change factors.

In addition, reoccurring relocation tasks such as packing and unpacking (22); moving belongings (18); booking accommodation (16); training (14); and undergoing arrivals procedures (14) were mentioned. Isolated locations (20); lack of support for single personnel (16); accommodation not being available (9); the inappropriate nature of Block / Mess life; and deployment (9) were among the popularly stated relocation difficulties. Furthermore, persons commonly coped by preparing (20); going out and meeting people (16); accepting or expecting moving as part of the RAF role (15); withdrawing physically (14); choosing to commute (13); and finally sitting back and observing (13).

Negative personal outcomes of relocation consisted of distance from family (20); losing friends (19); additional tasks and work arising out of relocation (16); withdrawing physically (14); relationship stress (14); and difficulties making new friends (14); while positive personal effects such as meeting people (25); seeing places (24); confidence (17); experience gains (14); and having a new job (12) were also talked about.

Though discussion of family consequences was limited, unfavourable outcomes such as losing friends (4) and starting over (3) were contrasted with positive experience gains (1). Finally, single RAF personnel revealed organisational support in terms of the Preferred Posting Proforma or *dream sheet* (12); moving goods via store (12); help with transport (11); and travel allowance (11). Social support was offered through: Packing and unpacking support (7); accepting the lifestyle (5); transport (3); and the arrivals' vehicles (3).

2 RAF Personnel with Families (RAF-F)

Details regarding the findings obtained for RAF personnel with families can be found subsequently. Results are organised into the thematic categories of change, new tasks, relocation difficulties, coping, outcomes, and support. Often observed changes included job type (30); whether children were present (27); the personality of those who are relocated (22); whether one actually wants to move or not (21); whether commuting would occur (20); and the degree of isolation of the location (20). The greatest number of RAF personnel (F) referred to packing & unpacking (23); finding spousal employment (14); cleaning (13); moving belongings (13); finding a school (13); and changing address (12) as tasks associated with relocation.

Specific moving difficulties such as isolated locations (20); deployment / detachment (19); breakages / losses (12); changes to posting (11); accommodation being of poor quality or in need of repair(10); and housing not being available (9) were among the items arising out of interviews. Furthermore, preparing (23); choosing to commute (21); pre-move area visits (17); family discussions and support (17); and accepting or expecting moves as part of the RAF role (16) all constituted forms of coping with relocation.

Personal outcomes that are negative in nature and were frequently mentioned by RAF personnel with families consisted of stress (24); transient friendships (24); losing friends (22); choosing to commute (21); nervousness or worry (19); and separation (19); while meeting people (25); seeing places (25); having a new job (23); going abroad (15); experiencing excitement (15); being exposed to a new challenge (15); and meeting people again

(15) are among the positive personal effects.

Family outcomes (negative) included losing friends (16); having to change school or nursery (14); rebuilding social networks (10); falling behind in school (10); slowed career advancement (8); being left alone (8); strained relationships (8); distance from family (8); and upheaval (8). Positive consequences for family comprised experience gains (4); friendships (3); and visiting family & places (3).

The RAF support most often reviewed by RAF personnel with families includes removals (29); the Preferred Posting Proforma (19); units having similar structure & processes (17); obtaining disturbance allowance (16); and help arranging and organising the move (14). Social sources offered support by accepting the lifestyle (15); supplying temporary accommodation (11); providing area information (10); taking the children (9); and simply offering conversation (9).

3   Spouses

Details regarding the findings obtained for RAF spouses can be found below. Results are related to the thematic categories of change, new tasks, relocation difficulties, coping, outcomes, and support. Most spouses spoke about change associated with the presence of children (29); the degree of physical isolation (26); the availability of facilities (22); accommodation quality (20); job type (18); and quality or amount of support (18). The new tasks that were most frequently associated with relocation included packing and unpacking (28); planning and organising the move (22); cleaning (21); finding suitable schools and nurseries (21); and gathering area information (18).

Additionally, isolated locations (26); not enough notice (15); not enough information (13); having to move before one's partner (12); and deployment / detachment (10) were among the relocation difficulties listed by spouses. The coping mechanisms most frequently cited by spouses comprise preparation (26); help from friends and family (25); asking someone to take the children during relocation (20); area research (20); and unpacking quickly to facilitate the restoration of order (18)

Negative spousal outcomes that were *personal* in nature incorporated items such as leaving friends (25); stress (24); additional tasks and work (20); nervousness or worry (20); and transient friendships (18). Conversely, positive personal outcomes like seeing places (26); meeting people (20); feeling excitement (19); gaining confidence (13); and meeting people again (13) were also mentioned. Moreover, familial outcomes were linked to losing friends (19); changing school or nursery (19); upheaval (11); stress (10); and relationship tension (6) as negative components. On the other hand, job variety (9); excitement (8); visiting family and places (4); and friendships (3) reflected positive aspects of relocation.

Spouses perceived the RAF support to consist of removals (30); the HIVE (24); information packs and letters (15); help with the arrangement and organisation of relocation (11); and accommodation (10). Social sources of support acted to baby-sit or take the children (20); pack and/or unpack (16); gather area information (14); offer temporary accommodation (11); and aid with the completion of official paperwork (10).

4 Children

Details regarding the findings obtained for RAF children follow. The results have been assigned to the thematic categories of change, new tasks, relocation difficulties, coping, outcomes, and support. Changes were observed with regard to facilities (10); size of accommodation (8); house features (7); and distance from school (5). Further, children most commonly mentioned the following relocation tasks: Packing and unpacking (5); having to find a new school (3); arranging the house (2); and making friends (2).

Relocation difficulties noted by children consisted of breakages and losses (3); having no input (2); moving to poor quality accommodation (2); and residing in isolated locations (2). What is more, children coped with relocation by removing themselves or being removed from the relocation environment (6); attending boarding school (6); having pre-move visits to the new location (4); staying in touch with distant friends and family members (4); re-evaluating change as good (2); and exploring the new area (2).

Relocation consequences mentioned by children were always personal in nature. Losing or leaving friends (11); sadness (8); missing out (5); not knowing anyone (5); not knowing the area (4); distance from friends (4); and difficulties making new friends (4) were evaluated as negative. Likewise, positive effects for children were stated. These included excitement (11); having a new house and/or things (10); seeing places (6); meeting people and forming new friendships (5); and having new opportunities, e.g. activities (3). Only the removals service (4) was really recognised as support provided by the RAF. However, social contacts were additionally recognised in offering support with packing and unpacking (4); planning (4); gathering area information (4); and offering conversation (3).

Summary

Section I presented findings for each of the subgroups represented within the sample. Results for single RAF personnel, RAF personnel with families, spouses, and children were reviewed in order. The most commonly observed changes for the groups were job type (RAF S & RAF F), presence of children (spouses), and availability of facilities (children). When it came to relocation tasks, packing and unpacking was most popular among all of the groups. Isolated locations represented the most frequently cited relocation difficulty for single RAF personnel, RAF personnel with family, and spouses. However, children most often referred to breakages and losses in this category.

Coping among the adult sub-samples was best represented by preparation. Children again diverted from the norm by most frequently describing coping efforts relating to their removal from the relocation environment. Moreover, negative relocation outcomes included distance from family (RAF S), stress and transient relationships (RAF F), and losing friendships (spouses & children). On the other hand, meeting people (RAF S & RAF F), seeing places (spouses), and excitement (children) represented the most commonly cited positive consequences of relocation.

In terms of familial outcomes, responses by single RAF personnel were very limited. Children were also unable to offer much insight into how relocation may affect members of their family. However, losing friends achieved the highest frequency of mention from RAF (F) & spouses as negative consequence. Positive elements for

family were represented by experience gains (RAF F) and job variety (spouses). Finally, RAF personnel, spouses and children were in agreement that removals constituted the most important source of organisational support. However, single RAF personnel most often referred to Preferred Posting Proforma when discussing types of support offered by the Royal Air Force. In close, although some variability between the groups exists, the results appear to be more similar than they are different.

Section II : Single or Family Person: Who Fares Better?

Earlier in this dissertation, it was hypothesised that RAF personnel with families would experience detriment over and above that experienced by RAF personnel without families. This section aims to prove or disprove this hypothesis on the basis of the available information.

1 Indicators

Three forms of data will be consulted in the process of hypothesis evaluation: (A) the percentage of respondents indicating an outcome; (B) the number of passages used to describe a type of outcome; and (C) the number of characters appropriated. Every single indicator will be used in relation to each one of the five outcome variables examined in this study: Physical, psychological, social , behavioural, and practical consequences. Only negative effects are assessed.

1.1 Percentage of Respondents

In the case of physical complaints, .07% of single RAF personnel vs. .09% of married RAF personnel were affected. Although there appears to be a small difference between the two groups, this difference is unlikely to be significant.

Psychological consequences offer a greater opportunity to distinguish between single RAF employees and those with families. While RAF personnel with families demonstrated this outcome in 100% of the cases, single RAF personnel only demonstrated this outcome in 93% of the cases.

Social outcomes offer another point of reference. Here 90% of RAF members without families make reference to social relocation consequences, while 91% of RAF members with families make similar references. Although the difference in this outcome is small again, it should be noted that RAF members with families demonstrate a stronger negative effect on this variable.

Single respondents were affected behaviourally in 69% of instances, while family respondents were affected behaviourally in 70% of instances. Once more, more family men and women are influenced negatively.

No difference in the experience of negative practical consequences was found in this study. 100% of both single personnel and those with families experienced these types of consequences.

On four out of the five tested variables, a greater percentage of RAF personnel with families experienced negative outcomes than RAF personnel without families. This indicator thus appears to suggest that relocation does indeed affect RAF personnel with families to a greater degree.

1.2 Number of Passages

Physical Outcomes: The 29 single respondents referred to physical outcomes in a total of 14 passages (with a mean of .48 passages per respondent). For respondents with family this number dropped to 13 passages (with a mean of .39 passages per respondent). Thus, single respondents appear to discuss negative physical outcomes slightly more. One way to explain this effect would be through the buffering effect support that an individual's family offers.

In terms of psychological outcomes, single respondents utilised 150 passages (5.17 passages per respondent) and respondents with families utilised 269 passages (8.15 passages per respondent). Individuals with families appeared to experience greater psychological outcomes as measured by this indicator.

Socially speaking, single personnel utilised more passages to refer to negative outcomes using 128 passages in total (or 4.41 passages per person). RAF members with families fared slightly better, using only 115 passages in total (or 3.49 passages per person) to refer to negative social relocation outcomes.

Behavioural references were relatively rare but made by single personnel in 24 passages (.83 passages per person) and by personnel with families in 17 passages (.39 passages per person). Thus, RAF personnel with families did not appear to suffer more than those without families. Indeed, using this dimension, the reverse could be said to be true.

Practical consequences received a fair bit of attention by respondents. Singletons referred to them in 166 passages (5.72 passages per person), while RAFers with families referred to them in 415 passages (12.58 passages per person). Families appeared to be correlated with a greater number of negative practical outcomes of relocation.

When examining this indicator overall, it seems that single RAF personnel experience more negative consequences in 3 out of the 5 variables. This would suggest that, contrary to the hypothesis, RAF personnel with families actually experience less detriment than those without families. Again, this result may reflect the buffering effect of family support.

1.3 Number of Characters

Physical Outcomes: Single respondents used 2555 characters to describe physical outcomes (yielding a mean average of 88.1 per individual), while personnel with families used 4220 characters to describe the same outcomes (a mean of 127.9 characters per individual). On this dimension, personnel without families appear to fare better.

In terms of psychological outcomes, single individuals appeared to suffer less. Those without families used 21059 characters (resulting in a mean of 726.2 characters per person), while those with families used more

than twice that number of characters: 49711 (or a mean of 1506.4 characters per person).

Social consequences were captured with 21593 characters (a mean of 744.6 per person) by singletons, while those with family used 26773 characters (a mean of 811.3 per person). When using this indicator it becomes apparent that family members referred to negative social outcomes more.

Behavioural relocation effects were described with 5567 characters (191.7 per individual) by single personnel. Personnel with families used 5717 characters (173.3 per individual) to capture similar outcomes. Thus, single individuals appear to experience more negative behavioural outcomes when using this indicator.

In terms of practical outcomes, respondents without families used 28667 characters (or a mean of 988.5 per participant) and respondents with families used 111393 characters (or a mean of 3375.6 per participant). Those with families therefore utilised more than three times the number of characters that those without families utilised. This is an indication that romantically-uncommitted RAF personnel were less affected by practical consequences of relocation.

On this indicator, single personnel appeared to only be more negatively influenced on one out of five outcome variables. It can therefore be concluded that RAF personnel with families experience more negative outcomes when this indicator is used.

Summary

In the testing of this hypothesis three indicators and fifteen variables were used. Overall two of the three indicators utilised to assess whether RAF personnel with families experience detriment over and above that experienced by RAF personnel without families, supported the hypothesis. This means that, in two out of three cases, the reasonable conclusion would be that RAF personnel with families experience more negative relocation outcomes. Additionally, ten of the fifteen dimensions corroborated the notion. Of the remaining dimensions, four undermined the notion and one neither provided support nor denied it. This provides further support for the premise that RAF personnel with families experience relocation more negatively than their single counterparts. In other words, RAF personnel without families fare better when it comes to moving. However, when reviewing these comparisons the readers should keep the nature of the data in mind. Comparisons between groups are based on qualitative data and should thus be considered preliminary and indicative only. Differences could not be tested for significance and are not statistical fact.

Section III : Military Samples

Despite the reality that most of the relocation themes, categories, and items arising out of the present research are already represented in the civilian relocation literature or can reasonably be expected to be mirrored in civilian samples, some novel and military-specific themes have been uncovered. This final part of the chapter

is dedicated to the revelation of these findings. They reiterate the unique nature of Armed Forces samples and indicate that relocation may indeed be more complex for service families.

1 Findings

The results unique to the military that were obtained in the current research project will be introduced in accordance with their overarching themes. This will help to structure the display of findings and guide consequent discussion.

1.1 Change

Of the observed changes related to relocation, some were directly linked to service life. This part of the dissertation will begin with a review Armed Forces-specific or relevant location change and then move on to discuss work changes, other relocation-related changes, and finally other relocation-unrelated changes.

Location Factors

Although degree of isolation, accommodation quality, size of accommodation, house features, already knowing people in the area, and familiarity with location are all changes that may be observed during civilians relocation, they are more likely to be given importance during military relocation. For instance, the RAF requires vast open spaces in order to build airfields; this means that RAF units will likely be more isolated than the localities that civilians relocate to.

Further, since the RAF generally provides accommodation for its personnel, it also determines the quality and size of accommodation. The RAF is responsible for which features or extras a Block, Mess, or quarter will have. All of these factors may vary drastically from unit to unit: A family may, for instance, move from a new 4-bedroom house with garage and garden to an outdated 3-bedroomed house has neither neither garage nor garden and does not even accommodate showers. Of course the opposite, where individuals move into much larger or nicer accommodation, may also occur. Nonetheless it is important to remember that most RAF families live in service accommodation and thus their quality of life is partially determined by the RAF.

It also appears to be important whether one is familiar with the location or already knows people in the area. These factors are likely to be of greater importance in a military sample because of the frequency of relocation in combination with the community turnover. RAF personnel move often, therefore it may occur that RAF personnel get stationed at the same unit twice. Presumably transition to a new location is easier if one has prior knowledge of or familiarity with the area, since this would reduce the amount of uncertainty one is experiencing.

Familiarity with a location may also arise when family lives in the vicinity; this should have a similar effect to a previous posting to the area. Already knowing individuals, may they be acquaintances, friends or family, should also ease the transition since individuals would then already have some support at the new location. As service tenure and moving experience increase, it is probable that military personnel will already know individuals at the new location. This is because they will have worked together at another time and location and one of them will have moved. The community turnover increases chances that individuals will meet again.

In this thematic subcategory, *change related to location factors*, two variables that are related solely to an Armed Forces sample were identified. These are whether accommodation is on or off unit (N = 25; C 4, RS 4, RF 7, S 10) and the quality of Mess / food (N = 4; C 0, RS 1, RF 3, S 0). Interviewees found it significant if their accommodation was on base because of the implications this has on their life. When living on base, individuals live behind a wire; this means that the entrance to the unit is guarded by military police and accommodation is essentially secure.

Residents require a pass for themselves and their vehicles, and guests have to be announced and signed in at the guardhouse before being permitted to enter the base. This constitutes greater complexity and an increased effort on behalf of the hosts. However, when living off base individuals do not tend to feel as safe. In addition, accommodation may be located some distance from the unit and thus experience difficulty accessing the associated support mechanisms. Interviewees mentioned being out of touch with the community and feeling (emotionally) isolated.

The second military variable is the quality of the Mess. It is not surprising that the Mess received some attention during interviews since it represents the centre of life for new recruits and continues to play a significant role throughout military lives. The 'Mess' is the officer equivalent to the 'Block'; it provides accommodation to single RAF personnel, makes meals available, and hosts various social events for airmen and their families. As such it is an important source of support and point of call.

Work Factors

The local ethos and time away are the only two elements with a distinctly military character. Ethos refers to the culture, philosophy and attitude of a section or unit; it incorporates the local rules, the degree of freedom and the amount of respect individuals receive. For instance, training units tend to be more formal in their approach and place high value on regulations, while strike units tend to be much more fluid, flexible and responsive. An illustrative quote follows for clarification:

> "... is a bit of a strong entity. Because it's a training camp the atmosphere, the environment, the ethos if you like, is completely different here. Because we are basically training students we have to be seen to be doing it by the book if you want. Everybody has to be marching around and wearing the proper uniform and addressing people by their rank... Once you get out into the wider Air Force, away from this training environment, it's - The petty little things like that get a lot more relaxed. You don't address people by their rank, you address people by their name because you know them. Where in ... they've gotta sorta tighten the nuts to make sure that the students start off on the right foot..."

It is also improbably that 'time away' will be mentioned in conjunction with civilian relocation. It refers to the amount of time spent accomplishing deployments, detachments, or training sessions at locations other than the hosting unit; it translates into time away from home and time away from family - Generally several months at a time. Some units (normally strike units) will demand more of this type of engagement than others (training units). Similarly certain jobs (e.g. pilots) will require more time away than others (e.g. teaching or training staff).

> "I was away for 11 months on the conservative side. 11 months out of the 36 and

> *that is out in - properly in the field - field conditions. For a family it's difficult. For a young family it's more difficult."*

Other Relocation-Related

Both length of posting (or moving frequency) and quality or amount of support deserve further attention. Since RAF families move regularly, approximately every two years, it is dubious that they will become attached to a locality. They are generally not in a place long enough to form lasting bonds with others or adapt fully to the particulars of a location. However, in rare cases individuals will spend an extended period of time in one place, which is likely to increase the difficulty of a move. One participant expressed it as follows:

> *"If you stay in one place for a particularly long time, which I did in my middle move - I stayed in that area for approximately eight to nine years - You tend to set roots down and therefore a move, any move, whether it's considered in hindsight to be positive or negative ... it's a change ... you buck just by instinct ... the instant reaction is to say 'NO'. It's a gut reaction to having to move. Having to move gets rid of that instinctive reaction and you become more palliative to moving."*

Undoubtedly the quality and amount of support also influences how individuals feel about moving. When in a location where they are surrounded by friend and family, they are unlikely to wish to move; whilst they may well be looking forward to a move when they feel unsupported. Participants voiced their concerns about the varying standards of support services throughout RAF camps. One spouse revealed:

> *"Cyprus was a much more concentrated community and effort because they saw you as being so isolated. They were really full on in providing fantastic services and facilities. But you don't get that across the board they tend to think of you as only being isolated if you're stuck on an island in the middle of the Mediterranean. Whereas I think a lot of people can feel isolated stuck on a married patch in ... in the middle of quite an urbanised area."*

Commuting, separation, and notice are again factors that were highlighted as specifically relevant in military life. As will become clear almost immediately, commuting and separation tend to go hand in hand by definition. When individuals commute, especially when they commute weekly rather than daily, the time they spend apart (or separated) from their family increases. In some cases, normally where great distances are involved, this results in the *weekend marriage*: The couple lives apart during the week and only sees each other on the weekend. A move that is prone to result in a commute will generally not be anticipated with great joy.

Another change that is more likely to be seen in military relocation is variation in the amount of notice one receives. The Service is a unique institution in that it is responsible for the security of a nation, as such service needs override personal needs and individuals may be moved at an instance's notice. The less time individuals have to prepare (mentally and logistically) for the move, the more difficult the move is expected to be.

A final note and point of interest surrounds the type of service branch individuals are part of (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 0). Two interviewees touched upon the difference between the Royal Air Force, the Royal Army, and the Royal Navy with regard to relocation. Regimental moves received particular attention because they allow the support networks of soldiers to remain at least partially intact.

Other Relocation-Unrelated

Several of these thematic elements are uniquely relevant for RAF staff: Prior military and moving experience, accommodation type, trade branch, and policy changes. A proportion of RAF personnel and spouses come from service families, meaning that they are familiar with the way of life and probably better able to cope with it. Additionally, some spouses have prior Service experience themselves (generally having been in the RAF but also coming from other service branches).

Having moved as a child or young adult can be helpful for air personnel and their spouses, since it normally reflects that one is capable of moving. This capability may be emotional but tends to be logistical. Also, accommodation will be discussed again here since regulations exist to guide who is permitted to reside in which accommodation. Some, by and large those who are dissatisfied with service accommodation, opt for private accommodation. Though moves from private accommodation are partially supported by the RAF, these are sometimes considered more difficult since the support is not complete. Thus one could argue that it matters which accommodation individuals chose to live in on a day-to-day basis.

Finally, reference was made to trade branch and policy change. Although the RAF is renowned for its airpower, not all those employed by the RAF are pilots. In conjunction with relocation, administrators often have the advantage since it is part of their job to be familiar with all of the associated rules and regulations. Small trade branches such as 'air control' and 'photography' may also be ahead since individuals quickly get to know each other; after a few relocations it becomes unlikely that they will arrive at a unit of strangers.

Policy changes are also vital since Royal Air Force policies govern service relocations. Policies are the rules and regulations that outline when, how, and under which conditions individuals move. For instance, a married RAF officer with two children would be entitled to receive a full physical relocation service, disturbance allowance, and children's allowance; whereas a single RAF airman would receive reimbursement for travel to the new unit.

1.2 Relocation Tasks

Some evidence of a military influence was found when reviewing personal and work-related relocation tasks. A separate discussion for each category surrounding those results unique to the Armed Forces will follow.

Personal Tasks

Some of the results for logistical, administrative, and physical tasks appeared to be RAF or service specific. These three categories will now be reviewed in sequence. There was no reason to expect that any of the findings from the remaining categories (i.e. information, social/emotional, other) are unique to military relocation.

The only task specific to the Forces in the logistical category was notifying the PSF at the holding unit of the move (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 3). Of the administrative tasks only applying for accommodation and quarter handover appear to be exclusive to the military. The RAF offers service accommodation in order to facilitate the relocation process. If individuals choose to live in service lodging or housing, they must formally apply for accommodation at the new or receiving unit. As part of the process, the old accommodation has to

formally be moved out of (signed off) and the new accommodation has to formally be moved into (signed on).

Other, lower frequency, elements that are also exceptional in military employment include getting a car pass (N = 5; C 0, RS 2, RF 2, S 1) and applying for allowances (N = 3; C 0, RS 2, RF 1, S 0). A car pass, as mentioned earlier, is necessary for security reasons if one wishes to drive their private vehicle onto a unit. Although the relocation entitlement is made known, allowances must be applied for. This means that it is an individual's responsibility to obtain the applicable allowances; if the procedures are not adhered to with great care, allowances will not be paid out.

In terms of physical tasks, cleaning and redecorating are likely to have some added meaning in Armed Forces environments. Service accommodation is rented temporarily and the RAF sets high standards for its upkeep. When individuals leave their assigned accommodation, be it the Block, the Mess or a quarter, individuals are responsible for cleaning that quarter top to bottom and ensuring that they remove all visible traces of their residency. Military cleaning standards are generally higher than civilian expectations. Review the passage below:

> "...the move out standard that the letting company expected was much lower than the Air Force standard... In the end, although we felt we hadn't done as good a job as we would have had to do at a quarter, it was sufficient for the letting agency. I mean, they were astonished that we were taking the cooker to bits to clean it and stuff, which is, you know, standard procedure for regular quarters..."

Similarly tenants are expected to restore the accommodation to its former state. This means filling up holes in the walls, repainting, or fully decorating where necessary. An example of how an interviewee would describe it follows:

> "...have to remove all trace, visible trace, that you were ever there. Which is symbolic but that's what you do, isn't it? You're taking all of your pictures down, taking the things down, and then filling holes with polyfill and painting it magnolia again and you are symbolically and metaphorically pretending you were never there..."

Work-Related Tasks

Only administrative tasks related to relocation appeared to have a unique service flavour. Examples will follow shortly. All other tasks were not considered specific to the military lifestyle and accepted to also be present in civilian relocation.

In the discussion of administrative tasks handover and takeover, arrivals, clearance procedure, and application/selection are of specific interest. Handover and takeover are processes distinctively military in nature; it describes the informal training period during which individuals either explain (in the case of the handover) or learn (in the case of the takeover) a given role. Arrivals and clearing procedures are matched in a similar fashion. This is when new arrivals (arrivals) and eminent departures (clearing) sign onto or off a unit. Generally, RAF personnel have to visit each section or department to inform them of their arrival or departure respectively. The collection of signatures formalises the process further. Application and selection are highlighted to remind the audience that RAF personnel also go through these practices for certain positions at

various points in their career.

1.3 Difficulties

Relocation difficulties specific to the service nature of the current sample were also discovered. Military-unique findings could be identified for all categories of the theme. Difficulties related to postings will be discussed first. Next, the focus will turn to challenges surrounding the physical move. Finally, other relocation-related and relocation-unrelated issues will be debated.

Posting

Of the qualitative findings presented in Chapter 6, not being given enough notice, having to accept unwanted postings, not being allowed input, short postings, poor quality handover, and gapped posts have a characteristic military taste. Notice is a particular point of contention since service personnel may be asked to move on a moment's warning. Similarly, RAF staff gets little input or choice in posts and at times has to accepted unwanted placements. In addition, Armed Forces postings tend to be shorter than civilian postings with an average posting speed of one relocation for every two years of service. Handovers are important familiarisation and learning periods for officers and airmen but may sometimes be omitted or suffer from poor quality. Finally, the RAF is understaffed resulting in posts that are temporarily left unfilled or gapped.

Physical Move

Those difficulties relating to the actual physical move were largely related to service housing. Problems associated with this type of accommodation included accommodation not being available at all or not being available at time of relocation (N = 26; C 0, RS 9, RF 9, S 8); poor quality and/or being in need of repair (N = 21; C 2, RS 3, RF 10, S 6); being allocated a smaller quarter or room (N = 8; C 1, RS 2, RF 2, S 3); the accommodation not being clean (N = 7; C 0, RS 3, RF 2, S 2); and being allocated late (N = 7; C 0, RS 1, RF 1, S 5). Other housing issues consisted of poor communication with DHE (N = 6; C 0, RS 1, RF 1, S 4) and not being able to have the old accommodation longer or the new residence earlier, essentially creating a period of homelessness (N = 1; C 0, RS 1, RF 0, S 0). Exaggerated bureaucracy (N = 6; C 0, RS 1, RF 3, S 2) also seems to continue to characterise the military and obscure physical moves.

Other Relocation-Related

The main other relocation-related challenges were Block and Mess life being constrained and inappropriate for older adults (N = 13; C 0, RS 9, RF 2, S 2); the non-existence of degeneration of the 'RAF community' (N = 11; C 0, RS 3, RF 3, S 5); the shrinking RAF (N = 10; C 0, RS 1, RF 8, S 1); and differing services and standards (N = 8; C 0, RS 1, RF 2, S 5). Also purely service-related was a strong rank differentiation, even where this does not seem appropriate (N = 3; C 0, RS 1, RF 0, S 2).

An idea worthy of consideration is the *degeneration of the military community* that individuals alluded to in interviews. This concept is a reflection of the civilian community degeneration captured by Putnam (2000). The Armed Forces have always been renowned for their close community and strong sense of belonging. Service life brings stresses and strains beyond those experienced by civilians; and thus tends to be more difficult to

cope with. In recognition of that fact, individuals would help each other (including strangers) with acts of kindness where possible. Military families would knock on each others door to either offer or request support.

In essence, this RAF community spirit and community support is eroding, and with it an essential support mechanism is disappearing. It is therefore reasonable to expect military relocations to increase in difficulty in coming years unless countermeasures are installed to halt this degeneration and/or rebuild the community. Indeed some participants were already completely disillusioned regarding the existence of a RAF community:

> "I know the service will have us believe there is an RAF community. Well I don't believe that there is actually a community because at the end of the day we're just a bunch of nomads who move around the country."

> "...There's a lot of situations now where you live in families' quarters which aren't wholly RAF - There could either be Army in there or Navy ... the situation whereby 10 years ago maybe you lived in an RAF community as such no longer exists. You know, you could be living next door to ... a student."

> "When we joined up I expected a social life, I expected a community, I expected some sort of - you know - camaraderie if that's the word. That people would actually come to a unit and be - you know - look after each other and look out for each other and stuff like that I'm just finding it harder and harder and harder because people are just more closed and just don't care ... it isn't this community that - you know - I hoped for."

Other Relocation-Unrelated

Here deployments / detachments; the RAF drawdown; the recognition of partnerships; and alcohol culture are service-related. The difficulty of deployments and detachments was likely at the forefront of individuals' minds since interviews were conducted at the start of the second Gulf War. The RAF is currently also undergoing a major restructuring, which will result in a significant reduction in service size. Furthermore, the RAF is a bureaucratic organisation that has traditionally lagged behind society in the recognition of emerging trends like common-law marriages. As such they do not formally recognise partnerships.

Alcohol cultures, where social events are based around alcohol, are also commonly associated with the Armed Forces. In addition, the RAF suffers from coercion / pressure (N = 5; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 4); military and other security constraints (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 4, S 0); service dependency (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 0); being undermanned (N = 2; C 0, RS 1, RF 1, S 0); civilianising posts (N = 1; C 0, RS 1, RF 0, S 0); and the medicalisation of problems (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0). The next paragraph will describe each one of these considerations in slightly greater detail.

According to interviewees, RAF personnel may feel forced to relocate or agree to other RAF decisions; have restricted freedom due to security considerations; may become dependent on the service and the service way of life; the RAF is experiencing recruitment problems and cannot fill all of their posts; whilst on the other hand certain posts are being civilianised in an attempt to save cost; and psychological problems continue to be medicalised.

Service dependence is an interesting idea which may profitably be converted into a psychological construct.

It may even translate to civilian samples, though perhaps to a lesser extend. Service dependence is the (psychological) dependence upon the military and the related way of life, generally after a long tenure of employment. After many years of employment with one organisation, individuals become institutionalised, i.e. habituated to that way of life, and may even begin to rely on their employer for support. Like in the case of an addiction, individuals have to break the habit and free themselves from the psychological longing before being able to successfully begin another chapter in their life. The transition from an Armed Forces to a civilian existence can thus represent a major challenge.

1.4 Coping

Some unique features could also be identified in the emotion- and problem-focused coping categories. The service-specific findings for emotion-focused coping will be discussed before those findings relating to problem-focused coping.

Emotion-Focused

Three coping techniques appeared as solely appropriate for RAF or Armed Forces samples. These included accepting and/or expecting relocation as part of the RAF employment (N = 48; C 0, RS 15, RF 16, S 17); and considering oneself as "lucky" compared to either other service branches, e.g. the Army, or other sections, e.g. administrative section (N = 2; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 1). The principle behind the idea appeared to be that individuals were pleased with their employer and/or employing branch since "we look after our own". Fascinatingly some interviewees also admitted to efforts aimed at keeping military and private spheres separate from each other. The aim was to avoid consequences such as high community turnover and friendship attrition that are generally associated with service life (N = 3; C 0, RS 1, RF 1, S 1).

Problem-Focused

The only coping attempt in this category that was unique to military relocation was discussion with a desk officer (N = 5; C 0, RS 0, RF 5, S 0). Here RAF personnel made an active attempt to direct their future postings by influencing the administrative staff, or desk officer, in charge of post allocations. This endeavour may or may not be successful, depending on both the individuals involved and service need - Ordinarily RAF staff does not get a choice in relocation and is merely permitted to provide input regarding their three preferred postings via the Preferred Posting Proforma.

1.5 Relocation Outcomes

When reviewing the consequences of relocation, it becomes apparent that only personal outcomes could be considered distinctive to the military. Familial outcomes could equally apply to civilian samples and have thus been excluded from the following debate.

Personal Outcomes

One could not reasonably argue that the physical, psychological, and behavioural consequences presented in the previous chapters solely applied to service relocation. However, some of the social and practical elements reviewed could be examined under this heading.

Of the social findings, community turnover and civilians not understanding are especially salient to members of the Armed Forces. RAF personnel relocate habitually, leading to a high community turnover. Thus social bonds are not only broken when one relocates but also when his / her friends or colleagues do. Thus relationships are destroyed on a regular basis. Civilian life tends to be much more stable than military life and civilians can have difficulty appreciating the mobile lifestyle RAF families lead. For instance, they may invite a service family to a wedding and be perplexed or even hurt when the family cannot offer a definite confirmation because they are awaiting their posting notice.

> *"...For example, my nephew is going to be christened - but they were going to christen him next year but now they've found out we're going to ... they're asking: "Oh when are you going? We've got to get this christening in before you go?" It's not just me it affects the issue of my nephew's christening is a big thing at the moment & my family are nagging me & saying: 'Give us the date when you're going.' 'I can't give you a date - all I know is we're moving at the end of August!"*

Further factors unique to the military are: Only making friends with military personnel / families (N = 11; C 0, RS 4, RF 5, S 2); the RAF being cliquey (N = 10; C 0, RS 2, RF 1, S 7); people being careful about investing in you (N = 8; C 0, RS 0, RF 3, S 5); civilians not wanting service friendships (N = 7; C 0, RS 3, RF 4, S 0); and not being able to integrate into the civilian community (N = 5; C 0, RS 1, RF 2, S 2).

> *"...it's more difficult to get to know the people in the local community. The local community usually understand that the people in the forces are only likely to be around for two to three years and then they'll be moving on so they tend to steer away from people in the forces - Which makes sense I suppose. There's no point in making friends with people when you know they're gunna move on in a couple of years' time, I suppose."*

Practical consequences related to service consisted of employers discriminating against military spouses, i.e. not wanting to hire them (N = 5; C 0, RS 0, RF 0, S 5); having to live on base (N = 5; C 1, RS 1, RF 1, S 2); and school not taking service children (N = 1; C 0, RS 0, RF 1, S 0). Please review the following quotations for insight:

> *"I battled for the first year and a half feeling there's no point going out to work because nobody is going to be interested in me. I'm not here long enough. They're investing time and money into me and they know that I'm going to move & they're not going to get their money's worth. And lots of people say: '...on civi-street you can go and work for a firm or a company and not like it and leave six months later.' But there is no guarantee of that - tThere is a guarantee with me. I am going to move and they know it. So people are less inclined to employ you. And whilst they can't admit to being discriminating, they are. And I don't blame them."*

1.6 Support

Relocation support is often organisation-specific and it is thus perhaps not surprising to find that the RAF provides numerous services in this area. Many of these, including the provision of military housing, RAF allowances, and service support agencies, could be considered specific to the Armed Forces. A review of this assistance follows.

In order to simplify the logistics of relocation and to ensure that personnel serving will always have accommodation, the RAF provides military housing. This housing is generally provided as permanent accommodation

for the entire duration of a posting; alternative housing, either on unit or in the local vicinity, is provided upon relocation. Considering the high cost of maintaining housing stock, the RAF attempts to keep its property supply at a sufficient rather than ideal level. The result is that military housing is at times unavailable to some RAF personnel at some station - A problem that is specially pronounced in areas with a high cost of living (e.g. London). To overcome this predicament, the RAF may offer service personnel and their families 'hirings', i.e. to live in a subsidised private rental embedded in the civilian community.

These allowances or schemes, which have been explained earlier, are all unique to the military. However, it should be assumed that civilian companies offer similar packages to their employees. Other financial benefits, only indirectly related to relocation, include a lump sum payment upon service completion (N = 7; C 0, RS 2, RF 5, S 0); a decent pension (N = 6; C 0, RS 0, RF 5, S 1); and good / increased pay (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 2, S 2).

The following are also service-specific: The HIVE, posting notice, arrivals brief, PSF/SHQ, handover, DHE, unit booklet, coffee shop / mornings, SSAFA, Families' Office, Services Children Education, Airwaves, and Roadreps. The HIVE is an advice centre where individuals can obtain information about all of the RAF units; the posting notice is the letter that indicates an eminent relocation and provides information regarding future post and timing; and arrivals briefs may consist of a simple memo and manual or a full induction accompanied by both training and tours.

PSF, Personnel Services Flight, and SHQ, Station Headquarter, can provide relocation and regulation information; the handover is a familiarisation and learning period; DHE may provide individuals with the opportunity to view housing prior to arrival and may even offer RAF families a choice in accommodation - Alternatively they may simply send out colour schemes and floor plans; the unit booklet provides station-specific information such as the general layout and what facilities are available; and coffee mornings offer an opportunity for 'new arrivals' to meet individuals already stationed at a unit - This is usually directed at spouses.

SSAFA aims to look after the needs of service families and can provide both legal and emotional support (it has several trained social workers); the families' office hosts a range of events targeted at the family and is also a port of call for families that are experiencing problems; Services Children Education ensures that military children receive a fair education of high standards and may in certain cases support parental legal action against educational facilities. Airwaves is the RAF families' organisation and strives for family-friendly policies. One of their initiatives, Roadreps, is to welcome new arrivals onto unit by providing them with information and a point of contact.

Arrivals and squadron vehicles represent social events organised to welcome new section members to a unit; each base had a padre who can provide emotional counselling; and the Mess arranges social events where colleagues can mingle, such as dining in nights where names of new arrivals and brief bios are read out in front of the whole unit as an introduction.

Additionally, service personnel and their families find the subsequent helpful: Being able to submit a Preferred Posting Proforma (N = 38; C 0, RS 12, RF 19, S 7); that all units have a similar structure & similar processes

(N = 25; C 0, RS 5, RF 17, S 3); the existence of applied postings, e.g. environmental, volunteer jobs, medical grounds, compassionate posting, last tour, disestablished units get preference, longest in post, moves on the basis of personality conflicts (N = 12; C 0, RS 6, RF 6, S 0); and the minimum turbulence policy (N = 4; C 0, RS 0, RF 4, S 0).

Summary

Numerous relocation-related findings specific to the Armed Forces were identified and presented in accordance with the six major relocation themes. In the thematic category change, military accommodation, the quality of the Mess (including the quality of the food), accommodation type, and trade branch were among some of the military-particular items that were highlighted. Relocation tasks that arise out of employment with the RAF comprised notifying the PSF; applying for military accommodation; official 'move in' and 'move out' of housing; obtaining a car pass; claiming allowances; conducting handover and takeover; following arrivals procedures; and performing the clearance process.

Difficulties for military personnel and their families resulting from relocation directly or indirectly include: Not receiving enough notice of posting; lack of control over relocation decisions; general lack of input regarding relocation; being pressured to relocate or agree to other RAF decisions; frequent or even excessive relocation; and various issues surrounding military housing. In terms of relocation consequences that are uniquely relevant to the RAF or intensified in military life include high communal turnover; only making friends with military personnel and families; having to live on unit or in military housing; and discrimination against service personnel and their families based on the nature of their employment.

Discrimination can express itself through denial of employment opportunities to military spouses and/or schools refusing to take service children. Since these are serious allegations, the existence and extent of this inequity should be confirmed with subsequent research. In terms of friendship formation, both military and civilian persons appear to be careful about investing in military families. Individuals face additional challenges from the civilian community such as a lack of understanding from civilian peers; civilians not wanting military friendships; and difficulties integrating into civilian communities. Not solely relocation-related disadvantages include the RAF being cliquey; forming a military mindset; and being institutionalised.

The discussions surrounding the categories *support* and *coping* were restricted since there is no reason to expect many of the mentioned items to be exclusive to RAF life. Indeed equivalent support and coping mechanisms are expected to exist in civilian samples. However, some exceptions were noted and a range of RAF support mechanisms was reviewed.

Section IV : Conclusion

The main findings for each participant sub-sample (i.e. RAF-S, RAF-F, spouses, and children) were outlined on the strength of their rate of recurrence. Additionally, the impact of relocation on RAF personnel without

families was compared to the impact on RAF personnel with families. Finally, those results unique to a military sample were presented. The implication of this research study will be explored in greater depth in the next chapter.

Chapter 8 : Discussion

This chapter will evaluate the qualitative data gained from this research study in light of the existing relocation literature. Where possible, the various themes and their constituents will be matched to and reinforced with previous research. In addition, the possible existence of long-term psychological effects of relocation will be discussed with the introduction of a new theoretical concept: Mobile mentality. After the introduction of this construct, a new relocation model capturing the influence of family members on one another will be unveiled. Further, a novel taxonomy for the classification of relocation outcomes will be suggested. As a final theoretical contribution, relocation fatigue and a few additional observations will be discussed. Some of the practical implications of this work will then be delineated before the chapter concludes with a self-critique.

Section I : The Data & The Literature

In this segment, the data presented in this dissertation will be harmonised with the existing literature. Each theme will be reviewed consecutively: Change, tasks, difficulties, coping, outcomes, and support.

1   Changes

It would serve the reader well to remember that this research conceptualised change as consisting of any factor that alters as a result of relocation and also factors that may influence relocation, i.e. potential mediating / moderating factors. This category was further subdivided into location factors, work factors, other relocation-related factors, and relocation-unrelated factors. Each subcategory will be discussed in turn.

1.1   Location Factors

Most of the factors identified in this research have already been accounted for in the literature. The distinction between national and international moves for instance, has been topic of research and debate for years (e.g. Fisher & Shaw, 1994; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Stroh, 1999). It is generally acknowledged that international relocations produce stress beyond that experienced from domestic moves (Black et al. 1991). Though we cannot conclude that this is true for military relocation from this study, we may legitimately make the claim that it is an important factor that deserves further attention within the military domain.

Cost and standard of living, communication links, and degree of isolation (e.g. Green, 1997) have also all

been previously mentioned as significant factors in the literature. For instance, Green (1997) concluded that relocation to semi-rural areas is more likely than relocation to either completely rural or industrial areas. It is thus relatively unsurprising that these factors are also represented in military relocation. Weather and climate, and crime were additionally voiced by participants in this study. Although Carruthers & Pinder (1983) researched these variables, no effect could be found. Future research will need to identify whether these variables simply appear to be important to participants or whether they have a real effect on relocation variables in military samples.

Available facilities and activities may be indirectly reflected in the past research through civic participation and cultural opportunities (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983). Civic participation was shown to increases relocation satisfaction for spouses; while cultural opportunities had no effect. The role of these variables in military samples is yet to be established. Water quality was also not accounted for in the literature but may be associated with air quality (Carruthers & Pinder, 1983), which does not influence location satisfaction. Vegetation / scenery and school size were omitted from the literature and deserve further investigation.

Familiarity with location has also previously appeared in the literature. According to Carruthers & Pinder (1983) it positively affects post-transfer satisfaction; while Bolan's (1997) research indicates an effect on post-move attitudes and behaviours. Whether one has already been to the location and whether one already knows individuals there has been highlighted as important in military samples (e.g. Fisher & Shaw, 1994). Community perceptions (Veiga, 1983) and tenure (Brett et al., 1992; Markham et al., 1983; Munton & Forster, 1990) apparently reduce willingness to move. Distance from family reduces family contact (Litwak, 1960) and thus its mention by my sample is expected. Accordingly, community ties at the old location reduce willingness to move (e.g. Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992; Veiga, 1983).

Nonetheless, some factors are unaccounted for in the literature: Distance from school and quality of the Mess. Accommodation factors have also largely been excluded from research. The only notable exception is the home ownership study conduced by Haurin & Gill (2002). The study concluded that frequent relocations decrease the chance of homeownership (Haurin & Gill, 2002) and the quality of the new accommodation (Lee, 1990). However, general accommodation factor, size of accommodation, house features, whether accommodation was on base, the distance of the accommodation from the unit, security requirements, safety, and convenience have not been recognised before.

1.2 Work Factors

Work-related factors that have previously been accounted for in the literature include: Job type (e.g. Brett et al., 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980); workload (e.g. Brett et al., 1992; Forster, 1990); career status (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1980; Brett et al., 1992; Markham et al., 1983); degree of job satisfaction (e.g. Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992; Veiga, 1983); and spousal employment (e.g. Gill & Haurin, 1998; Peterson, 2001; Wickham, 1983). Please see the literature review chapter for a full description.

Formerly unknown or un-researched relocation variables that have arisen out of the present research comprise: The size of the unit or section; changes in the actual physical working environment; amount of time away due to work reasons; spousal work; the unit or section friendliness; and location ethos.

CHAPTER 8. DISCUSSION

1.3 Relocation-Related

Community tenure (Brett et al., 1992; Markham et al., 1983; Munton & Forster, 1990); difficulty of the move (Glueck, 1974; Lu & Cooper, 1995); the quality & amount of support (e.g. Brett, 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980; Cornille, 1993; Forster, 1990; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Pinder, 1977; Pinder & Schroeder, 1987; Sagie et al., 2001); whether one wanted to move (Fisher & Shaw, 1994); expectations about the move and/or location (Feldman & Brett, 1985; Fisher & Shaw, 1994; Lee, 1990); amount of notice one receives (Bowen, 1989; Feldman & Brett, 1985; Mason, 1996; Pinder, 1977); the distance moved and distance from home (Bolan, 1997; Brett, 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980; Brett et al., 1992; Carruthers & Pinder, 1983; Lee, 1990; Pinder, 1977); and amount of moving experience (Martin, 1995) were all present in the published literature.

Moving efficiency likely links at least partially to the final point on that list (moving experience). Service branch; quality of removals; reason for moving; and timing of move have not been reviewed but are nonetheless factors mentioned by individuals in my research. Additionally, participants noticed relocation causing changes in commuting; separation from family; and type of accommodation.

1.4 Relocation-Unrelated

Accounted for in the literature were: Age & maturity (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992; Brett et al., 1993; Brett & Werbel, 1980; Gould & Penley, 1985; Sagie et al., 2001); rank & tenure (Brett et al., 1992; Brett et al., 1993; Gould & Penley, 1985; Markham et al., 1983); trade branch (Brett et al., 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980); previous moving experience (Brett, 1982; Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002; Ender, 2002); and personality factors (Brett et al., 1992; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Munton & West, 1995; Pinder, 1977).

Attitudes (e.g. Brett & Werbel, 1980; Gill & Haurin, 1998; Markham et al., 1983; Stroh, 1999); marital status and tenure (Brett et al., 1992; Brett et al., 1993; Forster, 1990; Markham et al., 1983; Stroh, 1999); emotional closeness (Litwak, 1960); spousal support (Brett, 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980); spousal employment (Brett, 1992; Brett et al., 1992; Brett et al., 1993; Gould & Penley, 1985; Veiga, 1983); and children and their age (Brett, 1992; Brett & Reilly, 1988; Gould & Penley, 1985; Munton & Forster, 1990; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997) were also represented.

Additionally, parental age and health (Stroh, 1999); skills (Glick, 1993); place in career lifecycle (Brett et al., 1992; Brett & Werbel, 1980; Stroh, 1999); policies and changes (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Brett et al., 1992; Pinder, 1977) were mentioned. Health status has been covered in relation to stressful life events (Martin, 1995) but previous military experience, romantic relationships, pets, accommodation, and whether one has a driver's licence have not been discussed and deserve further attention. Additionally, generational changes, especially expectations regarding lifestyle and life quality, have not been taken into consideration. Indirectly, research studying traditional gender attitudes (e.g. Gill & Haurin, 1998; Stroh, 1999) may have alluded to this subject.

2 New Tasks

Many of the personal tasks individuals complete as part of the relocation process were reflected in both the current research and the past literature: Regaining access to medical facilities and specialists (Altman, 1991;

Flynn, 1995); and finding schools / childcare (Altman, 1991; Flynn, 1995) were mentioned repeatedly. The Service Families Task Force Report (SFTF, 2003) additionally highlighted the tasks of obtaining documents; looking into private housing, including buying / selling; spousal employment; applying for removals / storage; and obtaining local information by various means including the possibility of a pre-move visit.

Cleaning; applying for or confirming accommodation; changing address and forwarding mail; arranging transit accommodation; travelling; researching and applying for entitlements; preparing for / overlooking packers; running down fridge & freezer; accommodation handover; packing & unpacking; and organising were present in both the current study and in the literature (SFTF, 2003).

Personal tasks that were mentioned by study participants but could not be found in the existing literature include: Purchasing removal insurance; applying for new activities and organisational membership; notifying PSF (employer); arranging childcare; organising transport; having a sort out / clear out; decorating and redecorating; and reconnecting phones and appliances.

Further, social and psychological relocation tasks such as: Saying good-bye; making new friends; starting again; adjusting / setting in; establishing routines; and learning have, aside from a few theoretical mentions (e.g. Brett, 1990), been largely ignored in the literature.

Work-related relocation tasks have in the past only been discussed in terms of spousal employment. Thus past studies could account for tasks such as applying to a job agency; and writing a CV. However, the current literature makes no mention of: Handover and takeover procedures; tying up one's post; clearing the station; arrivals procedure; internal job applications and selection processes; the transfer of relevant work-related information to the new location; learning about work; training; adjusting to work; building or rebuilding work relationships; and establishing oneself at work. This warrants further investigation of these variables.

3 Relocation Difficulties

The difficulties associated with relocation are relatively well documented. However, studies tend to focus on the negative outcomes associated with relocation rather than the difficulties associated with the process. This study may provide some insights by highlighting some procedural difficulties that those relocating experience. Relatively new and unique difficulties include gapped posts; surplus posts; being unqualified for post; being unclaimed; not being granted a co-posting; having no official time off; and struggling with bureaucracy.

In addition, varying accommodation size and quality; Block / Mess life being severely constrained and inappropriate for older adults; deterioration of RAF community; and hearsay / patch rumour created problems. Addressing any or all of these issues should ameliorate some of the negative relocation consequences by removing the problem at its source.

4 Coping

Since coping was defined along the problem- and emotion-focused dimensions set out by Folkman & Lazarus (1988) and Folkman et al. (1986a), all of the dimensions prescribed by it and described in my research have

already been introduced in the literature. In addition, the following specific coping behaviours have been described: Preparation (Lee, 1990); vigorous/combative coping (Lee, 1990); long working hours (Feldman & Brett, 1983); attempting to change work procedures (Feldman & Brett, 1983); and redefining the job (Feldman & Brett, 1983).

Innovative coping (Munton & West, 1995); emotional distortion (Feldman & Brett, 1983); stimuli blocking (Feldman & Brett, 1983); palliation (Feldman & Brett, 1983); seeking out information (Feldman & Brett, 1983); cognitive appraisal (Feldman & Brett, 1983); the delegation of responsibility (Feldman & Brett, 1983); getting others to provide task help (Feldman & Brett, 1983); seeking out social support (Feldman & Brett, 1983); and maintenance behaviours such as e-mail, reciprocity, and rekindling friendships (Finchum, 2003) were among the other coping mechanisms found in the literature.

However, some of the precise examples of coping behaviour arising from my research appear relatively novel. For instance, not letting children witness the move at all or at least distracting them; forcefully keeping military and private spheres separate; and mirror-imaging a child's bedroom have gone unmentioned in previous relocation studies. Another interesting example would be emotional hardening, along with the cutting of existing ties and avoiding the formation of new ones. These types of behaviours may only occur after extensive and repeated exposure to relocation - It appears unlikely that a first time mover would react this way because s/he is unfamiliar with the consequences of relocation.

One thing that is evident from this and past research (e.g. Munton & West, 1995) is that individuals exhibit a number of different coping behaviours. Not all of these behaviours are successful or successful to the same degree and applicable to all individuals in all situations. Nonetheless, by further investigating the coping dimensions and its specific facets or exemplars, it may be possible to make feasible even if not universally applicable recommendations for ways to cope with relocation.

5 Outcomes

Relocation is accompanied by a wide array of outcomes. The outcomes may be personal or familial in nature, and have physical, psychological, social, behavioural or practical undertones.

5.1 Physical

Positive effects on physical health reported in the present study include having more health checks, increased exercise, and better overall health. The literature has previously presented: Reduced shortness of breath, less dizziness, fewer nightmares, and less weight loss in spouses (Brett, 1982). Negative effects on physical health include: Sleeplessness / insomnia (also revealed by Vernberg & Field, 1990); exhaustion; weight gain, lack of medial support / continuity in health care; high blood pressure; miscarriage (compared to pregnancy complications assessed by Peterson, 2001); stress-related illness such as skin problems and shingles (e.g. Brett, 1982 detected headaches, while Vernberg & Field, 1990 reported individuals being 'more prone to illness'); moving injuries (e.g. broken arm); and general poor health (Brett, 1982; Lee, 1990; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Vernberg & Field, 1990).

5.2 Psychological

Many of the positive psychological outcomes of relocation highlighted in this study have already been captured in the literature: Personal growth (Feldman & Brett, 1985; Lu & Cooper, 1995); perceived opportunity (Brett, 1982); satisfaction (Bach & Smith, 1977); feeling more capable (Brett, 1982); maturity (Brett, 1980); independence (Brett, 1980); resilience (Ender, 2002); worldliness (Ender, 2002); and more interesting lives (Brett, 1982) through change and excitement. Personal & work-related self-esteem (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Feldman & Brett, 1985); self-efficiency (Brett, 1982) in terms of being organised and logistically capable of moving; learning new skills (Cornille, 1993) and gathering knowledge; being open or tolerant (Ender, 2002); and finally being flexible and adaptable (Cornille, 1993; Feldman & Brett, 1985; Glick, 1993).

Moving as a rewarding, challenging experience of self-discovery that enables individuals to learn quickly; helps them stay young and alert; enables people a new start with a clean slate; brings about a sense of belonging; is marked by happiness; and accompanied by a sense of freedom has not been previously reported. Instead things such as the development of a broader perspective (Feldman & Brett, 1985) and intrinsic motivation (Brett, 1982) have been reported. The following negative psychological outcomes matched findings from prior studies: Depression and sadness (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002; Schaetti, 2002); anxiety and uncertainty (Vernberg & Field, 1990); and stress (Anderson & Spruill, 1993; Cornille, 1993; Feldman & Brett, 1983; Forster, 1990; Hill & Miller, 1981; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Segal & Harris, 1993; Vernberg & Field, 1990)

Upheaval (Brett & Werbel, 1980); adjustment period and problems (Feldman & Brett, 1985; Glick, 1993; Orthner, 200; Pinder, 1977; Seidenberg, 1972); loss of control (Lu & Cooper, 1995; Feldman & Brett, 1983); lower self-esteem (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Munton & Forster, 1990); emotional and parental dependency (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002); and psychological disorders (Pinder, 1977) or the inflammation of these also matched.

Additionally, aggression in the form of anger (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002; Vernberg & Field, 1990); general sense of loss (Munton & Forster, 1990; Feldman & Brett, 1983) and loneliness; being a 'chronic mover' (Bach & Smith, 1977), i.e. learning to like moving and having 'itchy feet' (Veiga, 1983); as well as living life in episodes (Justen-Horsten, 2004) were mentioned in both past and present research.

Quality of life (Forster, 1990) was also alluded to by participants and may capture some of the following experiences: Dissatisfaction or detriment (Flynn, 1996; Glueck, 1974; Orthner, 2002); location dissatisfaction (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997); job dissatisfaction (Stroh, 1999); increased life challenge (Lu & Cooper, 1995); and job challenge (Brett & Werbel, 1980) though this was never specified by interviewees.

New contributions made by this study include identifying emotional hardening; preoccupation with mobility; moodiness; trauma; disappointment; boredom; pressure; discomfort; frustration; 'invasive experience'; lack of parental respect; inability to understand; feeling in the way; fear and panic; having to start again; upheaval; feeling shut out; confusion; facing unknown / uncertainty; being overwhelmed or suffering from information overload; guilt; becoming bored of relocation; and being institutionalised and adopting an organisational (in this case military) mindset as negative psychological consequences resulting from relocation.

Interviewees did not identify need for attention (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002); incomplete decision-making (Anderson & Spruill, 1993); reduced coping resources (Munton & Forster, 1990; Peterson, 2001); identity disruption (Altman, 1991); identity difficulties (Munton & Forster, 1990); neighbourhood and friendship satisfaction (Brett, 1980); and maternal dominance (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002) as psychological variables.

5.3 Social

Among the negative social outcomes found in both the literature and the current study were: Loss of (Brett, 1982; Brett & Werbel, 1980; Forster, 1990; Justen-Horsten, 2004; Munton & Forster, 1990) and grieving for (Schaetti, 2002) social networks; reduced contact with friends and relatives (Munton & Forster, 1990; Forster, 1990) including experiencing difficulties staying in touch; meeting and befriending similar people because of the 'cultural enclaves' individuals reside in (Glick, 1993); and problems rebuilding support systems (e.g. Brett, 1982; Forster, 1990; Munton & Forster; 1990; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Vernberg & Field, 1990).

Rejection and bullying (Vernberg & Field, 1990); transient friendships which can be viewed as less developed and lower quality peer relationships (Brett, 1980, 1982; Glueck, 1974; Vernberg & Field, 1990); homesickness (Forster, 1990); and an inability to integrate into the community (Brett, 1980; Glueck, 1974) are further issues. An interesting manifestation is relationship stress or conflict (Lu & Cooper, 1995; Markham et al., 1983) which can impede family functioning (Flynn, 1995; Justen-Horsten, 2004; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Segal & Harris, 1993); lead to family cycle disruption (Glick, 1993) and marital dysfunction (Justen-Horsten, 2004); and finally may result in family dissolution (Glick, 1993; Glueck, 1974; Munton & Forster, 1990). Interviewed children also mentioned the related concept of parental fighting.

Relatively unmentioned social outcomes recognised in the present study comprise: Not knowing anyone; having no friends at the new location during holidays; social transience / turnover; being careful about investing in people (this may link to transient friendships); civilians not understanding; civilians not wanting military friendships; individuals being are careful about investing in you; the organisation (RAF) being cliquey; and making enemies. The literature further acknowledges indifference to strangers (Glueck, 1974); problems in establishing work relationships (Forster, 1990); reduced satisfaction with all aspects of social relationships (Brett, 1982); and the possibility of impeded social development (Brett et al., 1992).

Due to the heavy focus on negative social consequences in the literature, only two positive social outcomes were represented. These two outcomes were gaining social skills (Brett & Werbel, 1980) and having closer family relationships or a better family life (Brett, 1980; Munton & Forster, 1990). The study currently under consideration also rated meeting people and forming new friendships; meeting people again; friendships being easier to rekindle; gaining social skills; having better and deeper friendships; having a diverse range of individuals as friends and colleagues; identifying who your real friends are; and gaining a sense of belonging or community feeling positively.

5.4 Behavioural

The first claim that behaviour could be negatively affected by relocation, at least in children, was made 25 years ago (Brett & Werbel, 1980). Since then, a vast range of behavioural observations have been made. Those that follow are also reflected in my research: Irritability or short-temperedness (Cacheki- Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002); aggression (Cacheki- Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002); increased alcohol consumption (Brett, 1980; Lee, 1990; Pinder, 1977); and decreased work performance during the last few weeks or months at the old location (Flynn, 1995; Forster, 1990; Stroh, 1999).

Participants in the present research further reported behaviours related to fidgeting; self-centredness; physical and psychological withdrawal; poor diet; lack of exercise; and biting nails. However, drug dependence (Brett, 1980 ; Pinder, 1977); impulsiveness (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002); hyperactivity (Vernberg & Field, 1990); fussiness (Vernberg & Field, 1990); increased crying (Vernberg & Field, 1990); toileting problems (Vernberg & Field, 1990); and reduced participation in extracurricular activities (USACFSC, 2002), although present in the literature, were not replicated in the responses of interviewees.

Few positive and behavioural consequences of relocation have been mentioned in the literature, aside from children being more affectionate (Vernberg & Field, 1990) and adults experiencing a low and motivating amount of pressure (Feldman & Brett, 1983). The later of these observations may link to the increased effort at work respondents in the present research observed immediately after commencing a new job. Additionally, relocation may be used as an opportunity for constructive discussions.

5.5 Practical

The study confirms the existence of the following negative practical consequences previously discussed in the relocation literature: Unrecognised qualifications (USACFSC, 2002); school difficulties (Ballinger, 2002; Wood et al., 1993) such as not completing homework on time (USACFSC, 2002), falling behind scholastically, transferring between different educational systems or having to attend boarding school; and turnover (Hill & Miller, 1981); inconvenience and constraints (Bach & Smith 1977).

Increased cost (Brett & Werbel, 1980; Cetron et al., 1987; Feldman & Brett, 1985; Flynn, 1996; Glick, 1993; Peterson, 2001; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Segal & Harris, 1993); problems with housing (Forster, 1990; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Segal & Harris, 1993); not being on the housing ladder (Buddin et al., 1999; Haurin & Gill, 2002); and living in temporary accommodation (Forster, 1990; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997), which in this case arguably includes having to live on base, were also referred to.

Furthermore, spousal career disruption (Brett, 1982; Cetron et al., 1987; Feldman & Brett, 1985; Flynn, 1996; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Sagie et al., 2001; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Segal & Harris, 1993) which could be said to comprise various factors including having to give up work, efforts to regain employment, and reduced job progression; added pressure at work (Flynn, 1995); school disruption (Altman, 1991; Feldman & Brett, 1985; Green, 1997; Sagie et al., 2001; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997); distance from family (Saunders & Thornhill, 1997) including parents (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002); increased family separation (Forster, 1990; Litwak, 1960; Lu & Cooper, 1995; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997; Segal & Harris, 1993); commuting (Green,

1997); and additional relocation tasks (SFTF, 2003) were reaffirmed.

Comparatively novel discoveries comprise employer's discriminating against spouses of frequent movers; difficulties associated with finding childcare; having to retrain; not being able to take or finish educational courses; barriers to obtaining doctors and dentists in the new location; being placed at the bottom of medical waiting lists; furniture not fitting (though this is arguably a housing problem); not knowing the area; being unable to find things; and being incapable of looking after family.

Also, not spending enough time at home or with friends; living a great distance from one's house; being left alone physically and psychologically; conducting the physical move alone; being misdiagnosed and labelled medically; divorce (which links to family stress); having to lead a minimalist life; not being able to plan ahead; missing out; having no choice over schools; schools refusing service children; changing organisational memberships; giving up hobbies; and facing service extension in the light of promotion were present in the current research study.

However, the body of relocation research has concerned itself with alternate consequences including work motivation (Flynn, 1996); perceptions of job security (Forster, 1990; Saunders & Thornhill, 1997); excessive workload (Altman, 1991; Feldman & Brett, 1985); pressure at home (Flynn, 1995); greater isolation of individual family members (Munton & Forster, 1990); and being under challenged in school (USACFSC, 2002).

On a more positive note, research also highlights beneficial practical results of moving. Experience (Feldman & Brett, 1985); better schooling for children (Brett & Werbel, 1980) perhaps through boarding school; greater degrees of authority (Brett, 1982), responsibility (Feldman & Brett, 1985) and income (Sell, 1983) as reflected by career advancement; travelling (Ender, 2002) and living abroad (Ender, 2002); as well as financial gain (Feldman & Brett, 1985) through relocation were among those confirmed by the literature. Opportunity for improvement; new activities and improved facilities; being closer to family, home and/or school; experiencing a new job; being able to choose not to work and stay at home; having a new house and new items; not hording; obtaining greater credibility; and living in a safe neighbourhood were revealed solely by this study.

Older findings of learning languages (Ender, 2002); having lower delinquency rates (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002); being high achievers (Brett, 1982; Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002; Ender, 2002); and demonstrating a higher mean IQ (Cachevki-Williams & Liebenow-Mariglial, 2002) were not voiced. However, the last two points may be reflected in the finding of improved education in my own research.

Summary

In the previous section, data obtained during the course of the presented doctoral work were delineated and aligned with the existing literature. The vast amount of overlap may lead some to conclude that military relocation samples do not differ from civilian relocation samples to the extent previously anticipated. Although this argument may find some validity, one must be careful not to equate the two groups. This study has introduced a host of novel factors influencing military movers. Future research will need to continue investigating

this topic in order to demonstrate the existence of these factors beyond a doubt. Nonetheless, a preliminary conclusion may be offered: The samples are likely more similar than they are different.

6 Support

The literature generally considers support from two sources: The organisation and social contacts. It was thus decided that both of these types of support would be investigated in the research. Please review the following sections for a brief discussion around the topic.

6.1 The Organisation: RAF Support

That the support the RAF provides is not well represented in the literature should come as no surprise. However, one may make use of the research findings related to RAF support more generally by looking at the RAF as an employing organisation and drawing comparisons to the support provided by civilian organisations. Upon more thorough examination one may conclude that the physical and financial support package is adequate, at least for individuals with families, since the RAF incorporates a range of support mechanisms cited in the literature (e.g. Feldman & Brett, 1985; Mason, 1996).

However, the support is not always standardised, which leads to perceived inequalities and support service variations: At times the support provision may be excellent, while at others the support is merely adequate or even substandard. Additionally, those relocating are bombarded with vast amounts of information from various sources. The RAF may benefit from collating all of that information into one concise but comprehensive package. As is the case with their civilian counterparts, social and emotional support was rarely provided (Forster, 1990). More gaps in the support service will be highlighted in the relocation difficulties section later on in this chapter. On a positive note, interview participants also mentioned receiving relocation-unrelated support from the RAF.

6.2 Social Contacts: Social Support

Social support has become a popular variable in relocation research in recent years (e.g. Brett, 1992; Cornille, 1993; Fisher & Shaw, 1994; Forster, 1990; Lu & Cooper, 1995). Many studies have addressed how social support can ameliorate the effects of relocation but little research has reviewed (A) the actual sources of support and (B) the actual support mechanisms employed. The current research study sheds light on both. Participants reported receiving social support from teachers, siblings, parents, grandparents, acquaintances, friends, colleagues, neighbours, predecessors, the church community, and other organisations (e.g. Mess and HIVE).

Social sources provided logistical, administrative, physical, financial, informational, and social/emotional support. Logistical support comprised help with the children; pet-sitting; offering temporary accommodation; providing storage; helping with the planning; and arranging/organising. Administrative help included support rejoining clubs and activities; changing address and redirecting mail; completing official paperwork; legal contracts; the administrative move out; organising paperwork; phoning individuals and agencies; and looking at the new house.

Physical help such as packing and unpacking; transport; providing food; moving / lifting; cleaning; helping to redesign and decorate; and aiding with the sort out were also voiced. Support with the financial cost of moving consisted of being given part of the allowance to spend and being offered financial help from family. Being shown the house; receiving area information; relocation information; and involvement in decision-making / communication were all mentioned as sources of information provided by social contacts.

Support aimed at addressing social / emotional issues was also mentioned by participants: Specifically, the existence of a RAF community; conversation; being shown around or receiving other practical help; being visited or allowing to visit; informal arrivals vehicles and other social activity; and accepting the RAF lifestyle were mentioned. Indeed, many of the findings related to social support were relatively unrepresented in the literature.

Section II : Theoretical Contributions

Three theoretical contributions of this dissertation will be discussed. Firstly, the concept of mobile mentality will be described in an effort to illustrate the existence of enduring psychological consequences of relocation. Thereafter, the author will outline a novel relocation model that takes familial interaction into account. The section will also introduce a taxonomy for the classification of relocation outcomes. Finally, it will conclude with a discussion around relocation fatigue.

1   Mobile Mentality

Long-term outcomes of relocation have rarely been captured in the literature. In this study, significant and reoccurring themes that correspond to a long-term psychological effect of relocation have been found. In an attempt to explain this phenomenon, several of them have been combined into a new theoretical construct. The subsequent segment is devoted to the description and illustration of this conception.

1.1   Definition & Dimensions

Mobile mentality describes a situation when an individual, normally after extensive exposure to moving, has an overly developed focus on relocation. The effect is likely created by psychological conditioning through repeated contact with relocation and its consequences. The construct has four dimensions: Preoccupation with mobility, transient friendships, intensified family bonds, and craving change. Each dimension description is followed by a series of illustrative quotes that act to further exemplify the concept.

Preoccupation with Mobility

The time that individuals have at any one location is often limited; as such individuals may experience heightened temporal awareness. This phenomenon is often characterised by a reluctance to invest in the current location, as well as a general feeling of unsettlement and lack of permanence.

"It is very stressful. Even to the point where on the day that you move in you know that within two, two and half years you're going to be doing exactly the same thing again. And it's the thought that it's almost temporary every time."

"But it does have an affect on you because by the time you get half way, you know, one year into your tour you know you've broken the back of your tour and you're on the go again. There is an acceptance, to be truthful, that you know your length of tour. And again that's one of the things that you focus on."

"If I find somewhere I like or an area where I'm comfortable or I enjoy being posted, I know it won't last. There's an inbuilt 'careful' if you like. There's a limit to how much I can continually engage with the local community because I will be gone at some stage ... And it will happen. That's the difficulty. This isn't something that happens at some stage in the future - You know when it's going to happen."

"I think a lot of that is to do with this psychological 'I don't wanna get too attached to a place.' I don't wanna put my shelving up ... We've never painted a quarter to a colour that we want. I don't want to personalize it - The magnolia walls are fine by me."

"As you come to the point where you realise you're moving, you do things differently where you live. You know, you won't go and buy something to go in the house, you know, what's the point when you're moving in six months' time or so. And things like gardening, there's no point in ... putting down the bulbs because we won't be here for the spring when they come up. You know, things like that that sort of condition what you do before hand."

Transient Friendships

Individuals begin seeing friendships as temporary and transient. Friendships are often seen as less meaningful relationships and sometimes even carry a shallow or superficial element.

"I do, I think that you make acquaintances more than friends in the Air Force. I'd like to say that it takes a bit longer to make a friend-friend."

"As far as friendships go - well no - in the Forces you do tend to pick up friends and drop them as easily."

"As the years have gone on I've purposefully not made friends. Real girly-girly friends. Because I know I'm either going to depend on them or they're gonna depend on me and then we're going to have to leave. And I can't deal with that."

"I think socially your relationships tend to be shallower because you know that you're only going to these people for the next two years. Because within the next two years either you or they will go. So it tends to be - Relationships tend to be more superficial. Sad really."

"I've met some lovely people, really nice people and I think 'well you could be a little friend of mine' and then you get the sanity check that says: 'No, don't even think about it.' Because even when you get close to someone it's gonna hurt when you sort of rip it apart in two years time."

"I wouldn't say there'd really been that many sort of close relationships with other

people outside of our family because you're always working on the premise that at some point you're going to move. So you tend to be slightly guarded against forming sort of deep and meaningful relationships with people really."

Deepened Family Bonds

As a result of relocation, contact with individuals outside of the immediate family, such as extended family and friends, is often restricted. Thus bonds within the immediate family tend to be unusually strong and individuals may even look to family members to provide friendship.

> *"So it's something that puts a lot more expectation on the family bonds we have because those are the only friends you really do take with you everywhere you go."*

> *"That's why my three girls have become each other's best friends. And they've looked to the family to provide sort of the friendships."*

> *"You tend to find that your family becomes your wife and children and everything else is just sort of a little bit added on ... But your priority becomes your immediate family."*

> *"And then he feels he should be here for me ... being more of a friend than he should be really"*

Craving Change

After extensive exposure, individuals become accustomed to change and even begin to crave change and/or movement. This can include wanting to travel to different places, meet new people, and/or change jobs. This craving may represent an attempt to cope with the high level of transience. Since individuals are moving very frequently, they may need to reappraise transience positively in order to continue being able to relocate.

> *"I've started stagnating. It's time to go somewhere new."*

> *"If you ... stay at one place for a long long time you do get a bit bored."*

> *"And actually, after about 18 months to 2 years I get itchy feet again and want to move on somewhere else to have a look, you know?"*

> *"And I really think most people find that after they've moved so many times around about the two-year point they start to get itchy feet."*

1.2 Preliminary Evidence

Retrospective coding revealed that a total of 71 interviews (65%) included evidence of *mobile mentality*. Refer to the table below for more details. Although more research will naturally need to be done, this offers preliminary confirmation of the concept and strengthens the premise that long-term consequences of relocation may indeed exist, at least from a psychological point of view.

Concept Dimensions	Characteristics	Respondents (n = 110)
Preoccupation with Mobility	• Heightened temporal awareness • Reluctance to invest • Unsettlement / lack of permanence	3 single RAF staff 8 married RAF staff 13 spouses 0 children . . . . 24 individuals
Transient Friendships	• Temporary & transient relationships • Meaningless, superficial element	10 single RAF staff 24 married RAF staff 18 spouses 0 children . . . . 52 individuals
Intensified Family Bonds	• Strong bonds within family • Family as friends	1 single RAF staff 6 married RAF staff 5 spouses 1 children . . . . 13 individuals
Craving Change	• Accustomed to change • Travel, meet new people, change job	5 single RAF staff 15 married RAF staff 9 spouses 2 children . . . . 36 individuals
Overall	Overly developed focus on relocation	17 single RAF staff 27 married RAF staff 24 spouses 3 children . . . . 71 individuals

Table 8.1: Evidence of Mobile Mentality Dimensions

1.3 Future Directions

The concept of mobile mentality is still in the early stages of development. Future work should aim to build upon the construct through more in-depth qualitative work. The dimensions need to be defined more clearly and specific instances or examples sought out. Another opportunity exists in terms of instrument development. Upcoming studies could utilise the qualitative work presented here as a basis for the design of a quantitative measurement tool assessing the construct. Such an instrument would help to test the existence of each suggested dimension and help to explore the relations between them.

Further, quantitative studies should seek to investigate various trends in the data. For example, researchers may study whether individuals moving frequently exhibit more characteristics of mobile mentality than those who relocate less often. The possible existence of mobile mentality further poses a number of other interesting ideas and/or questions. For instance, if enduring psychological outcomes of relocation exist, it is also feasible that qualitatively different long-term outcomes exist (e.g. physical, social, and behavioural). These effects also deserve further attention.

2 The Family Relocation Model

One of the aims of this research was to design a relocation model that takes family factors into account and incorporates other recent findings in the area of relocation. This section aims to depict and describe such a model: The Family Relocation Model. The depiction of the model offered in this part of the report (Figure 8.1) shows an oversimplified version of the theoretical model. Please review the description below to become accustomed with the more complete and complex adaptation.

2.1 Model Description

The Family Relocation Model assumes that each member of the family experiences the moving process uniquely. The incident is shaped by changes in the physical and work (or in the case of a child school) environment. As a result of this change and the corresponding adaptation efforts, individuals will undergo consequences which may be physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and/or practical in nature. The extent of these outcomes is largely influenced by moving attitude, which in turn is affected by six separate factors: Support, coping, demographics, moving history, personality, and location.
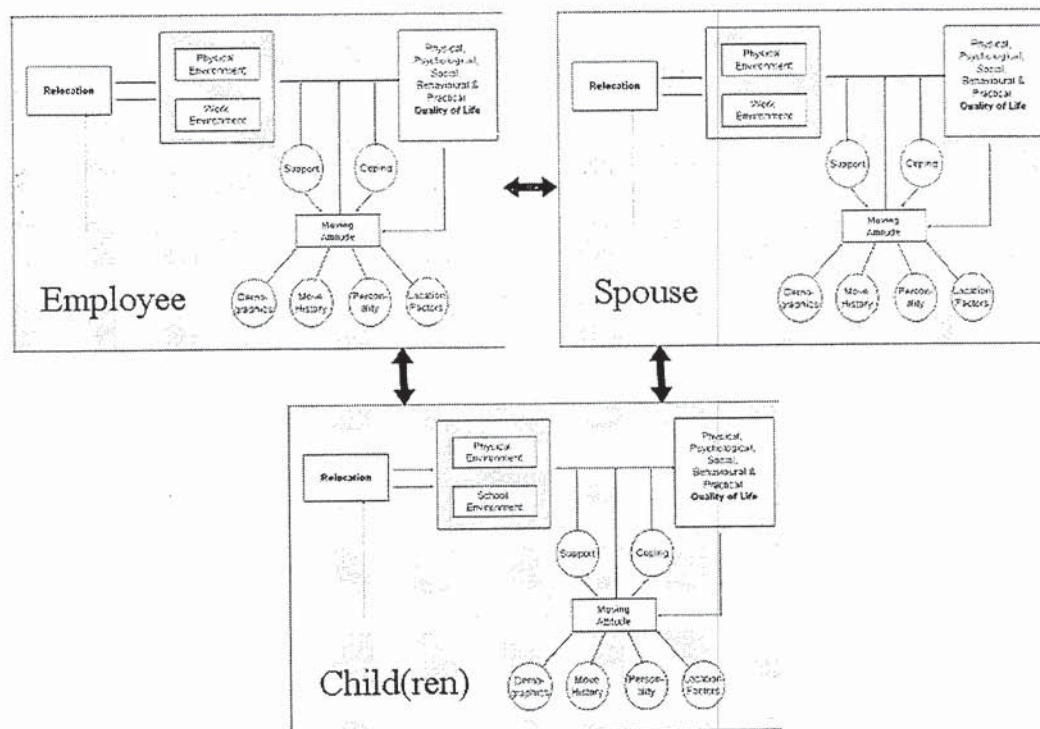
Figure 8.1: The Theoretical Interactions Between Family Members During Relocation

It is known that family members influence one another (Burr & Klein, 1994), increasing the likelihood that they affect the way other members of the family experience the relocation process. According to the proposed model, individuals are expected to be influenced by the experience of their other family members individually and as a whole. However, the relocation picture becomes exponentially more complex when one considers all of the elements and how they may impact upon each other. For instance, it is possible that it is not simply

parental adjustment (here defined as the absence of relocation outcomes and return to a normal state) that affects child adjustment but rather the result of a more complex interaction between parental coping and child coping. In a similar vein, it is possible that any variable in any family member's model may influence any variable in any other family member's model. To date, insufficient research exists to be able to exclude these interactions.

Nonetheless, several important observations or premises can be made on the basis of this theory: (A) Family exhibits direct and indirect effects on its members; (B) family members' relocation variables are likely to be more similar than different (as compared to external units); and (C) relocation is infinitively more complex than previously theorised.

2.2 Support for the Model

This study shows that family members are aware of the difficulties their families experience during relocation. Some quotes to demonstrate this follow:

> "It's detrimental to the family having to move around"

> "He was just settling down some roots there, getting some friends ... so he didn't want to move ... was ... upset ... It wasn't a popular move, shall we say, for the rest of the family."

> "It affects her psychologically far far more than it affects me..."

> "Then with my wife ... it contributed to a feeling of isolation ... So it did affect her adversely & it consequently affected our relationship because she feels isolated and then I wasn't..."

> "The only thing it did affect is ... Because I notice she goes two or three months when she is really down and crying every night."

At times individuals even explicitly stated the influence that relocation has on their family relationships. Again some quotes are used as illustration:

> "It creates a lot of stress in the family environment..."

> "...has an effect on the way you interact with your family..."

> "...that can affect your relationships - The stress of moving..."

As reported previously, data also support the existence of physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and/or practical consequences of moving. It was additionally shown that several variables shape the relocation experience for individuals: Support, coping, demographics, moving history, personality, and location factors. Please review Chapter 6 (section on *change*) for a closer examination of these issues.

2.3 Future Directions

As yet, relatively little support for the suggested *Family Relocation Model* exists. Future work should aim to test the model and its premises extensively, since the current (qualitative) data is insufficient to support or deny

the model. Furthermore, the conceptualisation is very complicated and will likely benefit from simplification. However, the model can only be simplified once all of its elements have sufficiently been operationalised and their importance identified. Again, it is the responsibility of coming researchers to investigate the relationships suggested by the model.

3   The Four Factor Taxonomy

Another of the early goals of this research was the creation of a taxonomy for the classification of relocation outcomes. Table 8.2 summarises the taxonomy created on the basis of the data available from this research project. The taxonomic format has been adapted from Nicholson (1990, p. 98) for sake of its simplicity and visual display. However, it should be observed that the content is entirely novel, as Nicholson's taxonomy dealt with the nature of transition itself rather than the nature of the transition outcomes.

Dimension	Categorisation Question(s)	Answer
Duration: Short- vs. Long-term	Does the effect occur and disappear within 12 months of relocation?	Yes: Short-term No: Long-term
Magnitude: Major vs. Minor	Does the effect in any way incapacitate the individual and prohibit him/her from completing tasks that they are normally able to complete? Does the effect in any way enable the individual and allow him/her to complete tasks that they are not normally able to complete?	Yes: Major No: Minor
Valence: Positive vs. Negative	Does the effect influence individuals in a good way? NB. In some circumstances it may be difficult or impossible to categorise an item as positive or negative. In this case, the consequence should be referred to as "neutral".	Yes: Positive No: Negative
Quality: Physical, Psychological, Social, Behavioural or Practical	Is the consequence related to an individual's physical health? Is the consequence related to an individual's psychological health or state? Is the consequence related to one's social life (excluding those knowledge, skills and ability considered psychological)? Is the consequence related to changes in one's behaviour? Is the consequence practical or applied and does not fit any of the above categories?	Yes_1: Physical Yes_2: Psychological Yes_3: Social Yes_4: Behavioural Yes_5: Practical

Table 8.2: The Features of The Four Factor Taxonomy

3.1 Taxonomy Description & Dimensions

As can be seen, the taxonomy offers four dimensions for the categorisation of relocation outcomes. These are duration (short-term vs. long-term), magnitude (major vs. minor), valence (positive vs. negative), and quality (physical, psychological, social, behavioural, or practical). Forty possible combinations arise out of the four dimensions and their subcategories (see Table 8.3). This enables the researcher to precisely distinguish between outcome variables. In some cases, researchers may wish to be less specific or utilise only certain dimensions. Therefore, it should be stated that it is feasible for a researcher to apply any (and not necessarily all) outcome variable taxonomy categories to their own data set.

	Minor Effects	Major Effects
Short-Term Positive	Physical Psychological Social Behavioural Practical	Physical Psychological Social Behavioural Practical
Short-Term Negative	Physical Psychological Social Behavioural Practical	Physical Psychological Social Behavioural Practical
Long-Term Positive	Physical Psychological Social Behavioural Practical	Physical Psychological Social Behavioural Practical
Long-Term Negative	Physical Psychological Social Behavioural Practical	Physical Psychological Social Behavioural Practical

Table 8.3: Forty Ways to Classify Outcome Variables According to the Four Factor Taxonomy

3.2 Evidence for the Taxonomy

A graphical depiction of the taxonomy as supported by the current data follows. Although physical, social, behavioural, and practical effects theoretically also exist in the long-term, they have been excluded from the model since little evidence to support them was found in this study.

At first sight some of the long-term variables (preoccupation with mobility, transient friendships, intensified family bonds, and craving change) will appear qualitatively different from psychological outcomes. For instance, consider transient friendships. One might argue that anything related to friendship is a social relocation outcome. However, since the concept (mobile mentality) surrounding the dimension is psychological and the dimension is simply a reflection or symptom of its underlying basis, it should also be considered a psychological variable. In fact, it is the attitude or mindset behind the creation of shallow relationships rather than the relationships themselves that is of interest.

Another example would be the long-term lack of homeownership. Home ownership would likely be viewed
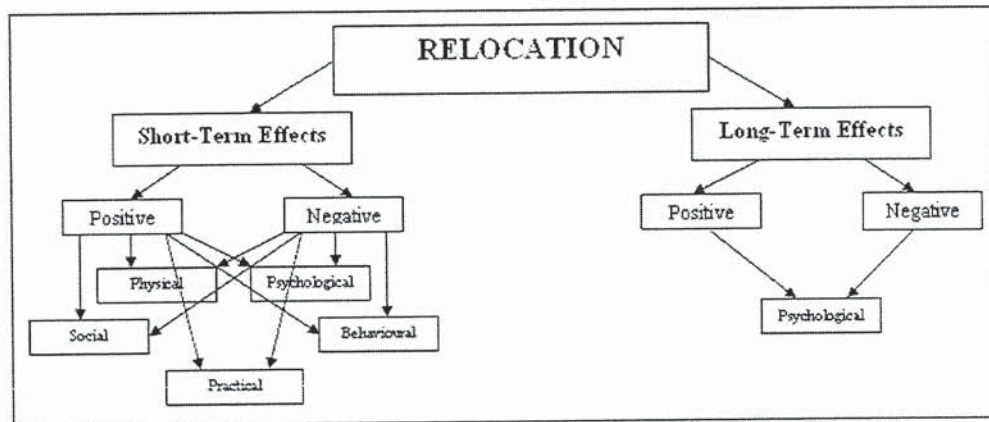
Figure 8.2: Graphical Depiction of the 4-Factor Taxonomy of Relocation Outcomes

as a practical outcome of relocation. On the other hand, those relocating frequently may steer away from homeownership in the long-term because of preconceived ideas they have about associated conditions. In other words, as a long-term outcome, homeownership may well be a consequence of one's mindset rather than a practical consideration. It thus has a psychological root, even though it may well arise out of practical considerations in the short-term.

Table 8.4 offers some insight into alternative examples of qualitative short- and long-term effects of relocation. These should be used as indicators only since at present no full set of variables has been defined and supported. The table should therefore only be used cautiously as a guide (in conjunction with the definitions provided above).

	Minor Effects	Major Effects
Short-Term Positive	Physical: Exercise Psychological: Excitement Social: Meeting people Behavioural: Observing Practical: Travelling	Physical: Exercise Psychological: Learning skills Social: Making friends Behavioural: Social activity Practical: Going abroad
Short-Term Negative	Physical: Poor diet Psychological: Sadness Social: Missing friends Behavioural: Fidgeting Practical: Increased cost	Physical: Moving Injuries Psychological: Exuberate OCD Social: Having no support Behavioural: Fighting/Violence Practical: Distance from family
Long-Term Positive	Physical: Health Behaviour Psychological: Confidence Social: Knowing many people Behavioural: Openness Practical: Increased earning	Physical: Healthy Lifestyle Psychological: Personal Growth Social: Having many friends Behavioural: Outgoingness Practical: Better education
Long-Term Negative	Physical: Mild back pain Psychological: Chronic sadness Social: Knowing few people Behavioural: Partial withdrawal Practical: Daily commute	Physical: Reoccurring conditions Psychological: Mobile Mentality Social: Having few friends Behavioural: Full withdrawal Practical: Weekly commute

Table 8.4: Examples of Qualitative Short- and Long-term Relocation Outcomes

3.3 Suggestions for Research

The recommended taxonomy should be tested in various settings and amended where necessary. As yet, little evidence for the existence of long-term positive and negative relocation consequences has been produced. However, at least in theory, effects of that nature may exist. Researchers should take it upon themselves to explore the presence of these consequences and also aim to establish how they arise. It would further be interesting to see the proportion of effects experienced by individuals under certain conditions.

For instance, it may be hypothesised that those moving more frequently would experience a greater host of effects and on the basis of their exposure would be more likely to exhibits symptoms related to long-term consequences. However, perhaps it is not the number of moves but rather the time interval (recovery period) between moves that is important. Perhaps those moves in close proximity to one another are more prone to producing long-term effects. Quantitative methodology will likely help to thrust this process forward.

4 Relocation Fatigue vs. Craving Change

Throughout the analysis for this project an observation opposing the idea of craving change was made and will now be discussed: Select service personnel may begin to desire and search for permanence. This behaviour generally follows extended exposure to relocation and its consequences but does not necessarily; it may be the result of a single but severely difficult relocation. For the purpose of this report, it has been labelled relocation fatigue. An illustrative quote follows:

> "I now want stability. So I don't want to move ... I've had enough of moving about.
> It's time to set down some roots ..."

4.1 Importance of the Construct

Employees are becoming increasingly reluctant to move (Feldman & Brett, 1985). Relocation fatigue is one possible explanation behind this trend. Some individuals dislike transience so much (generally only after exposure to it) that they have actively begun changing the face of military relocation. Instead of choosing the traditional approach to Royal Air Force transfers, moving as a family, service personnel and their families are increasingly opting for a number of mobility variations and alternatives: The daily commute, the weekly commute, and boarding school.

The daily commute occurs when a family elects to establish a *family base* and purchases/rents a private property. The family resides at this location all year around. The service member resides with the family but commutes (short to moderate distances) to work daily. Note: Single RAF personnel may experience a slightly amended version of the daily commute where they return to a purchased or rented property in the vicinity of their friends or parents.

The weekly commute occurs when a family elects to establish a *family base* and purchases/rents a private property. The family resides at this location all year around. The service member lives in 'single accommodation' and resides with the family only at weekends (generally moderate to long distances). Note: Single RAF personnel may experience a slightly amended version of the weekly commute by returning to a purchased or rented property in the vicinity of their friends or parents.

Boarding school has become a viable alternative to relocation for RAF families, especially since the organisation reimburses part of the boarding costs. In this situation, the service member and his/her spouse retain a relatively traditional military relocation pattern (*follow the flag*), while their children attend boarding school away from home. This is normally done to attain a level of emotional, social, and educational stability for children.

The feasibility of the traditional military relocation ideal, commonly known as *following the flag*, where families join the service personnel at the location of all of their postings, whether they are domestic or global, has become dramatically reduced in recent years. This is a result of two main social developments. Firstly, due to changes in the nature of employment many families now depend upon a second income to secure an acceptable standard of living. Relocation not only reduces the overall earning potential of the spouse by restricting employment opportunities but is also accompanied by various period of unemployment and thus loss of income.

Secondly, the increased importance of education, that in recent years has manifested itself through events such as the establishment of league tables at the primary and secondary school level, is proving to be a challenge for Service families and other frequent movers because mobility impacts adversely upon continuity in education. As a result, those relocating frequently may struggle to satisfy formal educational requirements. For Service members and spouses this may result in the disruption or discontinuation of degrees and diplomas in higher education.

For children, excessive mobility may result in attendance at schools with lower educational standards due to regional and national regulations surrounding *catchment areas*. The disruption associated with relocation may also lead to lower scholastic achievement, which may restrict their future career choices. Although many service families successfully cope with these challenges, highly mobile families are clearly disadvantaged in these areas. As one respondent eloquently put it:

> "*A lot of people do want the couple concerned to have a full career each. They do want to have children in a good school catchment area in their own home. Well - That's not compatible with being in the military.*"

4.2 Directions for Future Work

As we know from earlier discussion (review the section on *mobile mentality*), some individuals instead abstain from efforts to withdraw from moves and even continue to seek them out with great enjoyment. It is somewhat perplexing that individuals would engage in opposing behaviour (review the section on *relocation fatigue*) under similar conditions. However, many factors relating to transience have not been uncovered yet and there may be subtle but significant differences between these groups. It seems, for instance, plausible that the discrepancy in behaviour is a result of personality type or individual moving experience. Of course, a host of other factors could also be responsible. More research is needed. Despite the possibility that the root of the phenomenon lies with relatively unchangeable factors, the discovery of the role of certain skills or experiences may help to inform relocation policy in the future. Future research may make it possible to select those individuals for relocation who are *resilient* to its consequences - The implications for individuals and organisations are tremendous.

Summary

The preceding section delineated the main theoretical contributions of this doctoral research project. Firstly, the theoretical construct *mobile mentality* was introduced. Mobile mentality was defined as a situation when an individual, normally after extensive exposure to relocation, has an overly developed focus on moving and is based around four dimensions: Preoccupation with mobility, transient friendships, intensified family bonds, and craving change. Preliminary analysis indicated that 65% of interviews contained evidence for this concept. Next, the *Family Relocation Model* was introduced. The model aims to integrate family factors and recent findings of relocation into a comprehensive model. Three premises were established: Family members have direct and indirect effects on one another; members of a family are more likely to be similar than they are different; and finally that relocation is likely much more complex than previously assumed. *The Four Factor Taxonomy*, which categorises relocation outcomes according to four factors (duration, magnitude, valence, and quality), was also presented. The section concluded with a discussion around relocation fatigue and alternatives to relocation (the daily commute, the weekly commute, and boarding school).

Section III : Practical Implications

This section provides an overview of findings arising from the present study. It also outlines some of the implications for practice arising out of this study.

1 Overview of Findings

Each of the relocation themes was well supported by data: Change, tasks, difficulties, coping, outcomes, and support. Additionally, the categories were supported overall indicating that they represent an appropriate and comprehensive coding system. This system may usefully be employed by future researchers wishing to conduct comprehensive relocation research. It also suggests a host of variables individuals may take into account or investigate as part of relocation studies.

Overall, it can be concluded that relocation is associated with a number of significant changes in the physical and working environment. It appears that the degree of change influences how individuals react to relocation - Similarity and familiarity appear to foster adjustment. In addition, individuals are exposed to a vast number and range of relocation tasks and difficulties, which relate to both posting and physical move. In order to experience relocation positively, these must be managed effectively.

Further, interviewees admitted engaging in a range of coping methods and utilised numerous support methods. One of the more innovative techniques was the mirror-imaging of a child's bedroom at the new location in order to create a sense of familiarity and provide a comfort zone for the child to retreat into. Studies should aim to explore which techniques help to ameliorate the negative and enhance the positive effects of relocation.

The research also deduced that consequences of relocation may be physical, psychological, social, behavioural,

and practical. Thus one should not restrict research to solely one qualitative category of outcomes; otherwise the true effect of the move may elude us. The current study also provides further support for the notion that consequences of relocation may be both positive and negative. Finally, interviewees often observed (and were concerned about) the influence relocation had on their family.

2 Suggestions for Practice

This section will review the major issues in relocation arising out of this research project and aim to offer some viable suggestions for practice. Findings pertaining to the six major relocation themes will be reviewed in order and closely followed by suggestions for individuals and organisations. Overlap between groups is then briefly discussed. The final section concerns itself with military-specific results and related recommendations.

2.1 Change

The major issues with regard to the thematic category of change were the degree of isolation, the number and type of available facilities, and whether the relocation was domestic or international. Generally speaking, individuals felt less satisfied when moving to isolated locations with few facilities and reported international moves to be difficult. The latter should become less of a concern in coming years, since the RAF is considerably reducing its presence overseas. However, the issues of isolation and facilities may be addressed. It is unrealistic to expect the RAF to close their more isolated units, since it requires large open spaces for airfields. However, one strategy for the organisation to adopt would be to increase the support (and facilities) provided at these units. Additionally, it would be valuable to provide individuals with travel passes (or similar) in order to enable them to travel to more affluent / entertaining areas. Individuals themselves may employ similar strategies by founding support groups or joining more associations / clubs.

The present study also identified a number of potential mediating and moderating factors that were not directly related to relocation: Presence and age of children in the household, personality, moving experience, age, and spousal employment status. Although the existence and effect of these factors need to be tested quantitatively, the implications of such effects are interesting. Interviewees felt that having children, being introverted, having little moving experience, being older, and having a working spouse increased the difficulty of a move. The RAF may usefully employ this information to (A) provide more support to individuals in 'risk groups', (B) provide more stability to individuals in 'risk groups', or (C) use these characteristics as selection basis for the suitability of relocatees.

2.2 Tasks

The relocation tasks most often cited by respondents were packing, cleaning, and finding a new school for children. Although the present research cannot say beyond a reasonable doubt that these are in fact also the most challenging tasks, the frequency of citation provides some indication that they may be. Thus it would appear to make sense for the RAF to offer relocating individuals help in these specific areas. Packing is already partially covered for RAF personnel with families, spouses and children, since these are entitled to a full removal service. However, some items (precious and/or sentimental) are still packed by individuals themselves. Nonetheless, relocation continues to be a larger challenge for single individuals, who cannot take advantage of this service and are responsible for all of their own packing.

The RAF is also beginning to address the cleaning task by providing a cleaning scheme at most locations; however the scheme is still in its early stages and reported by some individuals to be excessively expensive. The final point, finding a suitable school for children, remains one of contention. The RAF does little to help parents locate suitable educational facilities and families are often caught up in 'catchments areas' battles. One possible solution would be for the RAF to work together with the Local Education Authority in order to ensure an adequate number of educational placement slots for Forces children.

2.3 Difficulties

Difficulties such as lack of notice, no accommodation, and breakages/losses were also mentioned often. Although the Royal Air Force has a 90-day notice agreement, this agreement can be breached under special circumstances (i.e. overriding Service needs). Considering that most individuals are aware of (or can estimate with a degree of certainty) their end of tour dates, a three-month notice period appears adequate. Indeed some respondents expressed anxiety associated with notice periods that were too long. However, the RAF should continue to do everything in its power to ensure that the amount of notice does not become significantly reduced. Once individuals begin expecting their posting notice, anxiety and uncertainty will reign, creating an unnecessarily stressful and negative time period for personnel.

Military accommodation will be discussed in more detail in the section examining findings unique to the Armed Forces. However, breakages and losses may be reduced by improving the physical relocation support that is offered. In other words: Higher quality removals service companies or better alternatives to the shipment of possessions by single individuals.

2.4 Coping

In terms of coping, interviewees mentioned requesting help from friends, accepting relocation as part of life in the RAF, and going out to meet people. While we must be careful not to make directional judgements on the basis of qualitative data, it seems likely that the most frequently cited coping techniques were also the most employed (and thus hopefully also the most successful) ones. If this is the case, those relocating should be encouraged to make use of these strategies. Perhaps individuals could meet in groups to discuss their efforts to cope (and the degree of their success). This could lead to a transmission of positive coping behaviour and the eventual creation of a positive coping culture.

2.5 Outcomes

Furthermore, the RAF should fight to maintain or enhance the positive outcomes of transience. For interviewees, these included seeing places and visiting new areas, meeting people, and excitement in general. Relocation will always be exciting and always be associated with meeting new people. The only part of these currently under threat is travel. A reduction in Service size, associated with several base closures in recent months, has led to a reduced number of possible posting locations. This, in turn, will translate into less travel (though not necessarily less relocation). The RAF should strive to continue making relocation attractive to individuals by offering a number of interesting and novel postings: Many individuals join the RAF to 'see the world'.

In a similar vein, the RAF should aim to reduce or eliminate the negative consequences of relocation. Friendship loss, stress, and shallow friendships were those mentioned most often. Relocation stress may be reduced through a number of techniques, including additional organisational and/or social support. The RAF could help by making information available in a timely fashion, providing additional relocation support, and giving personnel a set amount of 'relocation leave' so that they may be able to aid their spouse adequately. Friendships may be formed through various social associations and gatherings, which the RAF could support and encourage. The rebuilding of the RAF community (discussed later on) would also help.

2.6 Support

The support that was most often cited and may be considered most important by participants was the removals service, the HIVE, and information packs. These services appear to be meaningful to those relocation and both RAF and families may benefit from their enhancement. The removals service should be comprehensive and extended to include more support for single RAF personnel (a full move and disturbance allowance). The need for greater aid is further demonstrated by the fact that single RAF personnel produced the lowest quality of RAF support ratings - Significantly lower than their counterparts with families.

Today single individuals have different expectations and aspirations; they live a completely different lifestyle than even twenty years ago. Indeed, a series of societal shifts have occurred and the organisation may benefit from a review of the single - married divide. On the other hand, a comparison along three indicators and fifteen indices of moving attitude (in Chapter 7) showed that RAF personnel without families fare better when it comes to moving. This may justify the notion that they receive less support. More research should be conducted.

The HIVE and information packs also seem to be essential sources of support. Possible ways of improving these is by extending the amount of information they provide. A task force (or group of community volunteers!) could be set up to gather local *corporate knowledge*, intimate area information about details such as the nearest stores, doctors, dentists, hairdressers, and vets. Input for such a booklet should come from all levels and ranks of the organisation and contain information regarding all possible matters. That way individuals have one source to consult and may chose which material is important to them by simply scanning the index.

2.7 Overlap Between Groups

Although one must not overlook that there are differences between the groups (RAF-S, RAF-F, spouse, and children) represented in the sample, it must also be acknowledged that significant overlap exist. In terms of the most frequently cited item(s) for each category (as reviewed in Chapter 7), there appeared to be most overlap between single RAF personnel and RAF personnel with families. The next greatest amount of concurrence was found between personnel with families and spouses. Spousal observations matched those of children and single RAF personnel equally often. The least amount of overlap existed between single RAF personnel and children, and RAF personnel with families and children (respectively). These findings are fairly reasonable and would be expected. See Table 8.5.

Significant overlap between groups may be utilised usefully. For instance, the RAF may employ this data to inform which services the subgroups (or most subgroups) value and then move to improve these. For instance,

	RAF (S)	RAF (F)	Spouse	Child
RAF (S)	███████	5	3	1
RAF (F)		███████	4	2
Spouse			███████	3
Child				███████

Table 8.5: The Number of Times Groups Overlapped in their Observations

all of the subgroups mentioned packing and unpacking most frequently as relocation task - Thus the RAF may focus enhancements around this area. Another challenge for adults was the isolated nature of units, whilst preparation was considered a helpful coping mechanism. Therefore it would make sense for the Royal Air Force to improve isolate locations (e.g. add facilities, improve communication links etc) and encourage relocation preparation (e.g. provide information, entice early packing etc).

2.8 Military Sample - Unique Sample?

Numerous relocation-related findings specific to the Armed Forces were identified and presented in accordance with the six major relocation themes. This appears to support the notion that military relocation is more challenging than civilian relocation. A series of military-specific problems that were discussed should be addressed: Military accommodation; lack of control over relocation decisions; general lack of input regarding relocation; being pressured to relocate or agree to other RAF decisions; frequent or even excessive relocation; and excessive bureaucracy.

The importance of military accommodation was mentioned repeatedly; the fact that there is little standardisation between units complicates matters further. When military accommodation is available (on time), those relocating often do not know what to expect. The RAF would do well by upgrading all housing stock to a certain level and ensuring that individuals only experience minor changes with regard to accommodation (in terms of quality, size, features, layout etc). In other words, rooms in the Block / Mess and quarters should be fairly standardised.

Additionally, many RAF families feel both a lack of input and a lack of control when it comes to relocation decisions. At times, they even feel under pressure to conform to RAF decisions, resulting in frequent or even excessive relocation. Although the RAF currently asks its personnel about their most desired locations (via the Preferred Posting Proforma), airmen have no guarantee of posting. Thus, it would likely be beneficial if the RAF consulted personnel and families to a greater degree. Indeed, perhaps giving individuals a choice of two or three postings would encourage individuals to feel involved, experience a greater sense of control, and fewer negative consequences associated with uncertainty. Under no circumstances should the Service exert coercive pressure over an individual or his/her family.

Moreover, the organisation may investigate opportunities to allow individuals greater stability (i.e. less relocation) in their life. This type of scheme could be implemented on a volunteer basis and operate around the system of geographic postings suggested by Bett (1995). According to this model, individuals would locate to a point central to three bases. S/he would then rotate in 2-4 year cycles around the bases, living in the same accommodation, until a sufficient period of stability has been obtained (e.g. 8 years).

A different issue is the excessive bureaucracy that is often associated with the military. Respondents mentioned disqualifying for support on the basis of a technicality and spouses being unable to sign paperwork. Many individuals struggle with bureaucracy and it is thus not surprising that it was mentioned in this context. Support mechanisms (including allowances) should be robust and flexible enough to allow for minor individual variations. It is inappropriate to deny support on the basis of a technicality, when the resulting negative consequences may still ensue. Also, considering the likelihood of absence of RAF personnel from their household, spouses should be allowed to sign official paperwork. This should be granted in all cases but especially in the partner's absence.

A final idea worthy of discussion is the degeneration of the military community. The Armed Forces have always been renowned (even considered attractive) for their close community and strong sense of belonging. However, this RAF community spirit and community support is now eroding, and with it an essential support mechanism is disappearing. This makes it reasonable that military relocations will increase in difficulty in coming years. The RAF as an organisation, or individual members of the RAF, should begin implementing countermeasures to halt this degeneration and/or begin efforts to rebuild the community. The erosion of the community mirrors that taking place in the civilian community (Putnam, 2000) but is even more dangerous in a military sample because the high communal turnover will eventually lead to an isolated society of strangers.

However, when implementing measures to rebuild the community, the RAF and its members should be careful to avoid creating a cliquey subculture and/or forming an overly military mindset (becoming institutionalised or even dependent on the Service). Small steps towards the recreation of the 'community feel' could include the provision of a comprehensive welcoming service for new arrivals on unit (e.g. babysitting at move in; organising social events for adult and children). Rebuilding the community will likely be a long and difficult process. The creation of a Task Force and additional research will likely be required. However, the return of the military community should improve quality of Service life and may even influence variables such as combat readiness and retention.

Summary

This part of the paper concerned itself with practical recommendations for individuals and organisations arising out of the present research. It was suggested that greater support should be provided, especially to single individuals and trailing spouses. Further, physical relocation assistance should include a full move for all individuals, higher quality removals companies, allowances, and time off for RAF personnel. Likewise, the standardisation of accommodation and identification of 'relocation risk groups' would be beneficial. Adequate notice, information and involvement in relocation (including the idea of voluntary geographical posting) have the potential to improve relocation considerably. Also, one should aim to identify and encourage effective coping, enhance the positive outcomes of relocation, and reduce the negative consequences. The HIVE and information packs further appear to be essential sources of support. A group of individuals should aim to gather and distribute local *corporate knowledge* or intimate area information. Final recommendations include the reduction of bureaucracy and the rebuilding of the military community.

Section IV : Self-Critique: Study Limitations

Section IV represents a critique of the current study. The goal of the section is to critically review and evaluate the work presented in this dissertation. Commentary will focus on study limitations and their implications.

1   Sampling Issues

The military provides an interesting sample because of its extensive exposure to relocation. However, the use of a military sample also brings limitations with it. RAF samples are unique because employment is viewed as a way of life and encompasses additional strains such as deployment and long periods of separation (Moskos et al., 2000). In addition, relocation may be experienced differently in the RAF because of the frequency, because persons have little choice with respect to relocation, and because individual rather than group moves are employed. These factors limit the generalisability of finding to other populations and make study replications in civilian samples desirable.

The second sampling issues concerns the representative of the sample. Although the participants in this study are fairly characteristic of the RAF population in general with regard to gender and age (slightly over-sampling females and having a slightly higher mean age), the sample utilised in the present study is top-heavy. In terms of rank structure, the sample consists of 72% officers and 28% other ranks, versus a 20% - 80% proportion in the population. One of the possible implications of this is that findings may be more accurate for officers than airmen. Since there are currently only 9 770 officers (as compared to 39 400 airmen) in the Royal Air Force, this could limit applicability considerably.

The final concern regarding the sample is the relatively low number of child interviewees. Generally speaking, researchers should aim to have twenty-five to thirty participants in each sample subgroups (King, 2000). This number is deemed necessary for two reasons: (A) It allows a large enough number of interviews to ensure that all (or at least most) trends will be discovered, as becomes evident through increased repetition in later interviews; and (B) it permits statistical analysis. Unfortunately, only fifteen children could be interviewed, somewhat restricting the certainty with which claims can be made. The limited number of child interviewees may be due to a number of factors, including that access to children could only be obtained through parents and that a mutually convenient time had to be chosen. Since some the interviews involved considerable travel, it was often not feasible to conduct interviews at night. Additionally, parents tended to be unfavourable towards weekend interviews. Thus, most participants were actually interviewed during term break.

The second difficulty surrounding children was that the data they produced were somewhat limited. The reduced amount of information available from child interviews may have several explanations. First of all, children tend to have less moving experience than adults and are thus able to share fewer instances / experiences with the researcher. Secondly, children may not be as aware of the relocation process since they do not tend

to be directly involved in the organisation and execution of it. Finally, children may simply be too young to accurately remember or express ideas about specific moves and their consequences.

2   Design & Methodological Issues

The second set of issues relates to the design and methodology employed in this study. The utilisation of an almost exclusively qualitative methodology means that findings may be challenged based on the lack of generalisation outside of their core context (King, 2000). It would thus have been beneficial to confirm findings using quantitative methods in this and alternate settings. However, time and financial constraints prohibited this. Additionally, the exploratory nature of the research objectives not only justified but also necessitated the use of qualitative methods (King, 2000).

The research tool used in this study may also be critiqued. One of the limitations of interviews is social desirability (Leary, 2001). In other words, participants may answer questions in a way that will make them appear favourably to the interviewer. Similarly, they may attempt to provide answers they believe the researcher is looking for, rather than accurate and honest answers. This type of response bias is difficult to detect and therefore forms one of the major difficulties associated with interviews. In the present study, the researcher attempted to contain this effect by not informing participants of the hypotheses (Leary, 2001). For instance, the direction of the relocation consequences (positive or negative) was not prescribed by the interview questions.

Another drawback of interviews is the influence of memory effects. These may manifest themselves in the form of selective or false memory and are probable when individuals are asked to recall their past experiences (Leary, 2001). This was the case in the present study, since respondents were asked to describe specific instances of transience. However, relocation is a memorable event and difficulty of recall would not be expected, making the influence of memory effects on data less likely. Despite the two limitations associated with interviews, they remain a valuable instrument. The semi-structured interview, specifically, is a flexible research tool that enables us to uncover trends and themes otherwise hidden (Leary, 2001).

The study may also be faulted on the basis of two single-item measurements that were employed. Expressly, the measures regarding moving ratings and quality of RAF support relied on single item ratings. This may explain why no significant differences between the moving ratings of any of the groups were found. It may also help to explain why no correlation between moving rating and perceived quality of support was detected. Ideally, scientists should employ multi-item measurements in order to assure that all facets of a variable are assessed adequately. However, one-item instruments are considered appropriate and often employed when individuals are seeking a global measure of a construct (as was the case in the current study). Further, despite the limitations of the measurement tool, the study was able to determine that RAF personnel with family are significantly more satisfied than single RAF personnel and spouses.

3   Coding & Analysis

This section concerns itself with limitations in coding and analysis. First of all, it would have been ideal to code each transcript twice (Bauer, 2000). Unfortunately this was not realistic bearing in mind the number

of interviews that had been conducted. The time and resources available would not permit a more complete interrater assessment. Thus the less ideal but also acceptable alternative of coding ten percent of the data was utilised (Bauer, 2000). Although more extensive double-coding would have allowed the researcher to establish coding reliability with a greater degree of certainty, the current method was adequate.

Another point of controversy is the use of frequency counts in this research. Frequencies were used to help to quantify the data and allow the researcher to provide an estimation of the existence of each theme or effect. Although citation frequency may provide an indication of what may be important to interviewees, this is not necessarily so. Findings may also arise out of other factor (e.g. participants may talk about those items experienced most recently rather than those they consider most important) or may even be coincidental. Future research needs to replicated the current findings statistically.

Further, the three indicators and fifteen variables used to compare whether those with or without families fare better when it comes to moving may not be appropriate. The three indicators were: A) Percentage of respondents indicating an outcome; (B) number of passages used to describe a type of outcome; and (C) number of characters appropriated. Every single indicator was then used in relation to each one of the five outcome factors examined in this study to create the fifteen variables. Although each of the indicators (and its related variables) undoubtedly provides some suggestion of the effects of relocation, we cannot conclude with certainty that the effect exists. More research is needed to confirm these results.

Finally, some of the proposed relocation categories were not supported. Generally the unsupported categories were surplus *catch all* categories of little value to the researcher. Nevertheless, there was one exception. The subcategory *work-related physical tasks* was not supported by the data. This may be since no specific questions were asked about this type of task or because individuals may have been more focused on the personal side of the move. Despite this minor flaw, all remaining categories were well supported indicating that they represent an appropriate and comprehensive coding/analysis system.

Summary

Although the findings presented in this dissertation have promise, some weaknesses must be acknowledged. First of all, although the use of a military sample provides an opportunity to study an extreme case of relocation, it also may limit the generalisability of the results. Further, the representativeness of the sample and the relatively low sample size for the children subgroup may be challenged. In addition, the findings are based on purely qualitative methodology and the main research tool (the interview) may be critiqued. Also, some single-item measures were used and inter-rater coding was not complete. Problems surrounding the appropriateness of frequency counts and comparison indicators were also introduced. Finally, some of the coding / analytical categories could not be supported by the data.

Section V : Conclusion

This discussion chapter helped to integrate qualitative results obtained from the present study into the existing relocation literature. In addition, a series of theoretical contributions were made. These included mobile mentality, a theoretical concept that points towards the existence of long-term psychological effects of relocation. Additionally, a relocation model integrating the influence of family members on one another was introduced. In order to help organise the existing literature, a taxonomy for the classification of relocation outcomes was also suggested. As a final theoretical contribution, relocation fatigue and a few additional observations were discussed. Practical implications and study limitations completed the chapter. The next and final chapter concludes this dissertation. It will review the major conclusions that can be drawn from the research and offer some ideas for future research.

Chapter 9 : Conclusion

In this finally summary section it is the author's intention to review the fulfilment of the research aims. Additionally, a brief outline of the major research findings arising from this doctoral work will be offered and conclusions made on their basis. The relevance and implications of the original contribution will receive special attention, and suggestions for future work will be reviewed. Specific and testable hypotheses arising from this research will also be stated before this chapter finally concludes with a summarising statement.

Section I : Research Aims & Data

At the beginning of this project, eight research aims were set out. These aims will now be reviewed and their achievement will be evaluated.

- **Aim 1**: Determine whether Royal Air Force personnel perceive relocation as stressful by investigating the negative consequences of relocation they experience.

- **Aim 2**: Determine whether the families (spouses & children) of Royal Air Force personnel perceive relocation as stressful by investigating the negative consequences of relocation they experience.

The main question was whether RAF employees and their families perceive relocation as stressful. Additionally, the research aimed to identify the negative consequences of relocation they experienced. Generally speaking, relocation is stressful. Over 55% (N = 62; C 1, RS 13, RM 24, S 24) of the sample indicated experiencing relocation stress in the period surrounding the move. It is noteworthy that this number likely underestimates the proportion of individuals who experience stress as a result of transience, since no direct question pertaining to the stressfulness of the move was asked. In other words, interviewees volunteered this information freely when asked about the effects of moving. The omission of any stress-related inquiries was due to a condition the RAF set for the provision of interview permission: The word stress was not to be mentioned by the interviewer.

The experience of stress is accompanied by a range of additional negative outcomes. Indeed, every single participant mentioned at least some negative consequences associated with relocation. Please return to chapter six for an in-depth review of the findings.

- **Aim 3**: Identify some of the factors that possibly mediate / moderate the relationship between relocation and negative outcomes for Royal Air Force families.

This research has identified a number of possible mediators and moderators. Factors may either be objective factors related to changes in work or location or more general factors that are not directly related to relocation. A list of these factors follows:

Location Factors	Relocation-Unrelated
Centrality of location	Presence & age of children
Facilities	Personality
Domestic vs. international	Prior military experience
Quality of accommodation	Age & maturity
Distance from family / home	Spousal employment factors
Contacts at new location	Marital status & tenure
Size of accommodation	Rank and organisational tenure
Location of accommodation (on vs. off unit)	Moving experience for oneself
Communication links	Amount of possessions
Cost of living	Trade branch
Accommodation features	Parental age & health
Familiarity with new location	Policy changes
Additional Relocation-Related Factors	**Work-Factors**
Moving attitude	Type of job
Commuting	Workload & hours
Moving frequency	Local ethos
Support	Physical working environment
Family separation	Friendliness of a section or unit
Pre-move notice	Amount of time one spends away
Type of accommodation	

Table 9.1: Possible Mediating & Moderating Factors in Relocation

- **Aim 4**: Determine whether the consequences of relocation that RAF personnel and their families experience are physical, psychological, and behavioural.

RAF personnel and their families mentioned physical, psychological, and behavioural outcomes during their interviews. Physical outcomes (N 22; C 1, RS 7, RM 4, S 10) were mentioned least but included references to moving injuries and stress-related illness. Psychological outcomes (N = 108; C 14, RS 28, RM 33, S 33) were most frequently cited; indeed almost every respondent referred to this type of consequence. Examples of psychological effects include sadness, anger, depression, confusion, exuberating existing mental health conditions, etc. Behavioural outcomes (N = 69; C 1, RS 20, RM 21, S 27) comprised fidgeting, drinking, physical withdrawal, and a range of other unhealthy behaviours.

- **Aim 5**: Investigate whether individuals are aware of the negative consequences their family experience as a result of relocation. Determine whether individuals feel influenced by their family's adjustment / difficulties.

It is clear that individuals are aware of the negative consequences relocation has on their family. Indeed, negative familial outcomes of moving were mentioned by approximately 65% of the sample (N = 71; C 0, RS 10, RM 30, S 31). Perhaps unsurprisingly, spouses (N = 58; C 0, RS 6, RM 28, S 24) received the most attention, closely followed by children (N = 48; C 0, RS 5, RM 16, S 27). Extended family (N = 24; C 0, RS 3, RM 14, S 10) was also discussed. Details on the qualitative nature of these effects are available in chapter six.

> *"But to be fair to my wife both of us have come to the same position, her slightly earlier than me, to say that we would find it almost impossible to do it again. In fact the last move was so difficult for her that I think we then decided that we couldn't do this again."*

The above quote attempts to illustrate the influence one family member can have on another. In this case the negative attitude of the spouse towards relocation and its consequences convinces another member to view it as detrimental and develop an aversion to it. It is clear that family can influence its members - However, the extent of the influence and the exact process by which it is transmitted, remains somewhat ambiguous. While in some situations individuals will adopt their spouse's point of view, others try to protect themselves by ignoring the effect on their spouse:

> *"Psychologically I turn my back on that quite deliberately and I leave her with that baggage because I physically don't feel that I can't do it ... So it affects her psychologically far far more than it affects me."*

These efforts do not necessarily mean that the individual engaging in them is not affected by their family. However, it seems plausible that the effect would be less significant. More research is necessary to explain this phenomenon.

- **Aim 6**: Investigate the positive consequences of relocation Royal Air Force personnel and their families experience.

This study provides evidence of positive relocation outcomes for RAF personnel and their families. Every single interviewee mentioned one or more benefits arising out of moving for themselves. These benefits were physical, psychological, social, behavioural and/or practical. Increased exercise, excitement, confidence, personal growth, meeting people, gaining social skills, and travelling were among the advantages mentioned.

- **Aim 7**: Determine whether RAF personnel and their families experience long-term consequences of relocation.

Long-term effects of relocation appear consistent with the data. The construct of mobile mentality attempts to capture seemingly negative outcomes of mobility. Nonetheless, some of positive effects could also have an enduring effect. These include increased confidence, personal growth, greater experience, and skill development. However, most if not all of these effects appear to be psychological. Although, physical, social, behavioural, or practical consequence of relocation may theoretically exist in the long-term, no evidence for them has been documented in the present study.

- **Aim 8**: Determine whether RAF personnel and their families also experience social and practical consequences of relocation.

Familial outcomes of relocation also fall into the categories social (N 107; = C 13, RS 29, RM 32, S 33) and practical (N = 109; C 14, RS 29, RM 33, S 33). Examples of positive and negative social outcomes include: Losing friends, relationship tension, meeting people, and gaining social skills. Examples of practical outcomes include: Distance from family, additional tasks, seeing new places, and gaining experience. Social and practical consequences of relocation may be reviewed in greater detail in the chapter six.

Section II : Major Contributions

This study made three general contributions. Firstly, due to its qualitative nature this research study was able to outline relocation outcomes extensively and provide frequency counts for each category. Secondly, it was able to highlight some relocation outcomes that are unique to military families. Finally, to my knowledge this is the first paper attempting to capture long-term relocation effects in a theoretical construct. Although some researchers have acknowledged the existence of long-term consequences (e.g. Bach & Smith, 1977; Bolan, 1997; Glueck, 1974), little theoretical work has been done in the area. Empirical findings, theoretical suggestions, recommendations, and original contributions will be reviewed in turn.

1 Main Empirical Findings

The overarching findings from this research can be captured in eleven declarations and are presented in summary statements that follow.

	Summary Statement
1	Geographic transience can be summarised in six major themes: Change, new tasks, support, coping, relocation difficulties, and outcomes
2	Relocation is associated with a number of significant changes in the physical and working environment
3	Various changes are observed during relocation; the variables observed may represent mediating and moderating factors
4	Individuals are exposed to a vast number and range of relocation tasks
5	Those relocation experience difficulties relate to the posting & physical move
6	A range of coping methods & support mechanisms are employed
7	Relocation produces physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical outcomes
8	The consequences of transience may be positive or negative in nature
9	Relocation is experienced qualitatively differently by single individuals than those with families although significant overlap exists
10	Relocation is experienced qualitatively differently by different family members, although significant overlap exists
11	Military relocation samples exhibit considerable overlap with civilian samples; nonetheless sample-unique findings were obtained

Table 9.2: Main findings: Summary Statements

2 Theoretical Contributions

This study makes several important contributions to theory. In favour of brevity, these are presented in four summarising sentences.

	Summary Statement
1	Mobile mentality & the existence of long-term effects of relocation
2	Familial Relocation Model
3	Taxonomic model for the classification of relocation outcomes
4	Relocation fatigue & alternatives to relocation

Table 9.3: Theoretical Contributions: Summary Statements

3 Recommendations

Additionally, some recommendations were made based on the research. These are abridged below.

	Recommendation
1	Increased organisational support for single individuals and trailing spouses
2	Physical relocation package: High quality removals, allowances, and time off
3	Standardisation of accommodation
4	Identification of 'relocation risk groups'
5	Provision of adequate notice, information, and involvement in relocation
6	Identification and encouragement of effective coping strategies
7	Enhancement of HIVE and information packs: Local corporate knowledge
8	Reduction of bureaucracy
9	Recreation of the military community

Table 9.4: Recommendations: Summary Statements

4 Review of Original Contributions

It was the study's primary aim to outline the factors surrounding relocation in order to enable more through research and analysis on the topic. This necessitated the use of qualitative methodology, which is often ignored in psychological research for two reasons: (A) It is criticised on the basis of traditional validity, reliability, and rigor and plagued by accusations of subjectivity; (B) it is very difficult and time-consuming work. Through the utilisations of largely qualitative methodology, the research was able to make new contributions to both the empirical and theoretical literature. Some previously *unconsidered variables* emerged as promising and perhaps even pivotal factors in relocation (e.g. moving or military experience as a child; the degeneration of the community).

The theoretical contribution of the concept of *mobile mentality* is also significant. It embodies a first attempt to conceptualise and operationalise serious psychological relocation consequences of lasting duration. The developed relocation model attempts to incorporate the interaction between family members, as well as accounting for recent empirical developments. Finally, the relocation outcome taxonomy offers researchers one way of organising their data effectively.

Section III : Suggestions For Future Work

The importance of spousal and familial assistance has been highlighted by this study, providing further support that personal and familial factors should be taken into account when investigating or managing job relocation (Lu & Cooper, 1995). The present study was not only able to illustrate that there are qualitative differences between the relocation experiences of employee, spouse, and child (at least to some degree) but also showed that employees are aware of the difficulties their families go through. As the following two quotes should help to exemplify, family can have a real impact on organisational outcome variables:

> *"If my wife turned around to me and said: 'I don't want to do this anymore.' Then I'd leave ... My first loyalty is to my family, not to the Service ... I was with my family a long long time before I joined the Service and I will be with my family, with my wife, a lot longer after I've left. So that's my priority. And if she found she was really struggling with doing what we do, then I would just leave. I'd just walk away from it."*

> *"I'm very much a family man and coming home at night to my wife and kids is the most important thing in my life ... Going back to my little single flat on my own, I just wasn't happy. I didn't want to continue."*

However, more confirmatory research needs to be conducted in this area. For example, it would be interesting to determine the impact of familial (spousal and child) relocation services on employee satisfaction and performance. Another interesting issue is the difference between single and family relocation. Investigations of these issues may further the identification of important family factors.

It appears that if one wishes to optimise relocation for employees, one must attempt to optimise familial relocation. This doctoral study can make suggestions for the investigation of factors that are likely related to relocation. Future research should aim to shed light on whether these factors have an effect beyond the subjective influence perceived by interviewee participants. Science would also benefit from investigations into the extent and type of effect these variables have. For instance, does being a military child influence adult relocation? If so, does it hinder or facilitate the process? Under which conditions does the effect occur?

In essence, a quantification of the data is desirable. We have identified a series of variables that are thought to be important in transience research but cannot state beyond reasonable doubt what consequences these variables have or to what extent they will exhibit an effect. Further, one must acknowledge that the frequencies presented in exploratory research may over- or underestimate the true effect. This is due to the general nature of tentative work and the fact that qualitative studies generally use smaller samples sizes. In the present study it is more likely that effects are underestimated, since the sample size is relatively large (N = 110) and no specific questions were asked. Nonetheless, future research will be charged with offering further support. Additionally, research should aim to address the limitations of the current project. Specifically, studies should

aim to reproduce finding in other military and civilian populations. Additionally, more research with children and lower ranks would be desirable. Multi-item measurement would further strengthen future work.

The concept of *Mobile Mentality* - or MobMent - also deserves additional attention. The construct needs to be transformed from a purely theoretical creation into a quantifiable measurement. The four dimensions need to be fleshed out and verified. Some of the statements made by participants during interviews may provide an initial framework or battery of questions for each element of the construct to choose from. An expert q-sort or similar technique may further reduce the number of questions to be integrated into the questionnaire. Trial runs and preliminary studies will undoubtedly enable to researchers to eliminate many more before a vetted questionnaire can be introduced. The creation and testing of the MobMent questionnaire should make for an interesting continuation of this research project.

The construct is still in early stages of development but poses some interesting questions for future research. Firstly, it will need to be determined whether mobile mentality is positive or negative. Is mobile mentality the expression of a modern disease or an individual's successful attempt to cope? Secondly, we will need to examine whether mobile mentality is an unchangeable aspect of personality or whether it is in fact an acquired attitude. Do individuals who cannot cope with frequent relocation attrite from the organization, leaving only those with a mobile mentality, or do individuals simply adapt to the frequent relocation by developing a new mentality? Can mobile mentality be changed? Lastly, concept development would likely benefit from evaluation within an identity context.

Another interesting area of study is the degeneration of military community. Investigators could explore to which extent the community has vanished and also determine which factors are responsible for this deterioration. Once variables accelerating the degeneration of the community have been identified, measures to prevent the collapse can be put into place. Similarly, the identification of variables halting the disintegration or acting to rebuild the community may be useful in its reestablishment.

The research also deducted that consequences of relocation may be physical, psychological, social, behavioural, and practical. This indicates that researchers should not restrict studies to the investigation of a single qualitative category of outcome. The discovery of long-term consequences only strengthens this argument. It is impossible to estimate the true effect of relocation without measuring all of the variables involved. In a similar vein, studies should aim to explore which techniques help to ameliorate the negative and enhance the positive effects of relocation.

On a final note, the new lifestyles and family forms that are emerging should be incorporated into research. How does relocation affect employees with long-term partners compared to those who are legally married? Are the daily and weekly commutes viable alternatives to relocation? Parents are now beginning to send children to boarding school to spare them further relocations but there is no scientific research to guide them. Do children adjust better when they are living at home or when they are boarding? To date many questions have been left unanswered.

In close, the preceding paragraphs have highlighted the importance of future research in the determination of the impact of familial relocation services on employee satisfaction and performance; difference between single and family relocation; identification of novel family factors; investigations into the extent and type of effect these variables have; the rectification of current shortcomings; confirmation of the mobile mentality construct; incorporation of new lifestyle and family forms into research; and the study of the degeneration of the military community.

Section IV : Formation Of Hypotheses

As declared at the beginning of the dissertation, one of the goals of this research was to formulate a series of testable hypotheses. Based on the discussion and suggestions for future research, the following hypotheses were designed:

	Hypothesis
H_1	Do high quality familial relocation services impact upon employee satisfaction and performance?
H_2	Do adults whose parents are/were military personnel experience fewer relocation difficulties?
H_3	Is mobile mentality a form of coping that develops over time?
H_4	Are the categories of mobile mentality operationally distinct?
H_5	Which variables degenerate / regenerate the military community?
H_6	Does relocation affect employees with long-term partners in the same way as those who are legally married?
H_7	Does commuting offer a better quality of life than relocation?
H_8	Do children that are relocating or those who board exhibit higher levels of well-being?

Table 9.5: Hypotheses for Future Research

Clearly many other questions lie outside the scope of the present research project and have been left unanswered by it. These hypotheses are only meant to provide an indication of possible research questions for future projects and to act as a summary for the preceding section.

Section V : Dissertation Summary

This Ph.D. dissertation has examined the effects that transience has on Royal Air Force families. Through the utilisations of qualitative methodology, the researcher was able to offer various novel and reoccurring variables that appear to play an important role (at least subjectively) in relocation. Additionally, frequencies associated with these factors were presented. The findings were integrated with those from the literature in order to be able to offer an initial comparison and differentiation between civilian and military samples. The

writing climaxed with the introduction of the theoretical concept mobile mentality, the creation of the familial relocation model, and the development of the outcome taxonomy. It closed with a few additional observations, recommendations for future research, and a final summary section.

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Appendix A : Summary Table of Civilian Relocation Literature

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Moving Features			
Relocation stress	−	Family adaptation to the Army	Segal & Harris (1993)
Cost	N.S.	Actual relocation	Bach & Smith (1977)
	N.S.	Relocation satisfaction	Bach & Smith (1977)
Eustress (positive stress)	+	Motivation	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Physical move	+	Stress	Wickham (1983)
Perceived promotion through transfer	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
	+	Post-move attitude	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	+	Spousal satisfaction	Brett (1982)
	+	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
	+	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Increased pay	+	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Change in financial status (e.g. living cost & loss of wage)	+	Stress	Wickham (1983)
Appeal of the new job	+	Willingness to move	Feldman & Brett (1985)
Marketability	−	Rate of moving	Veiga (1983)
Job opportunities	+	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Type of job move (newly created jobs)	−	Adjustment sources	West et al. (1987)
	−	Informational support	West et al. (1987)
	−	Predictability material	West et al. (1987)
	+	Job rewards	West et al. (1987)
	+	Job discretion	West et al. (1987)
	+	Promotion opps	West et al. (1987)
	+	Work challenge	West et al. (1987)
	+	Accomplishment	West et al. (1987)
	+	Innovation	West et al. (1987)
	+	Motivation for growth	West et al. (1987)
Job changes* (vs. new hires)	+	Try to control & change job	Feldman & Brett (1983)
	−	Need support & help	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Type of move (intra-organisational)	−	Pre-transfer anxiety	West et al. (1987)
	−	Personal change	West et al. (1987)
	−	Self-concept	West et al. (1987)
	−	Novelty	West et al. (1987)
	−	Moving likeliness	West et al. (1987)
	+	Organisation size	West et al. (1987)
	+	Rule orientation	West et al. (1987)
	−	Ability to predict employer changes	West et al. (1987)
Objective change (rank)	0	Time to proficiency (work performance)	Pinder & Schroeder (1987)
Objective change (function)	+	Time to proficiency (work performance)	Pinder & Schroeder (1987)
Amount of raise in salary	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
Notice given by company before transfer	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
	−	Adjustment	Feldman & Brett (1985)
	+	Transfer smoothness	Mason (1996)
Notice given for assignments	+	Family Adaptation	Bowen (1989)
Reasons for moving	N.S.	Neighbourhood attachment	Bolan (1997)
Whether the transfer had been requested	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
Anticipated transfer	+	Smooth transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	+	Relocation	Bach & Smith (1977)
	0	Relocation sat.	Bach & Smith (1977)
Decision-making discretion	+	Spousal satisfaction Smooth	Brett (1982)
	+	spousal transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Degree of choice/control (timing & location)	+	Adjustment	Lee (1990)
	+	Post-move attitudes	Bolan (1997)
	+	Post-move behaviour	Bolan (1997)
	+	Housing satisfaction	Bolan (1997)
	−	Difficulty	Glueck (1974)
	+	Benefits	Sell (1983)
	−	Neg. consequences	Sell (1983)
	+	Family adaptation	Bowen (1989)
Wilful move	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Involvement in relocation decision	+	Spousal adjustment	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Followers (tied movers)	+	Sacrifices	Green (1997)
	+	Upset re: sacrifices	Green (1997)
Eligible for company buy-out	+	Relocation decision	Rives & West (1993)
Whether move is convenient	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Smoothness of the move	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
	+	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
	+	Spousal willingness	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Disruption strength	−	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
Disruption length (duration of move)	−	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
	N.S.	Neighbourhood attachment	Bolan (1997)
Personal change	+	Job novelty	West et al. (1987)
	+	Pre-transfer anxiety	West et al. (1987)
	+	Pr. employer change	West et al. (1987)
	−	Self-concept adjust.	West et al. (1987)
	−	Predictability	West et al. (1987)
	−	Post-transfer sat.	West et al. (1987)
	+	Job discretion	West et al. (1987)
	+	Ext. locus of control	West et al. (1987)
Establish new routines easily	+	Smooth spousal transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Establish new routines quickly	+	Smooth spousal transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Job success (one + aspect) within month	+	Smooth transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Domestic versus international* move	−	Adjustment	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
Cultural factors	N.S.	Willingness to move	Saunders & Thornhill (1997)
Cultural differences	−	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)

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APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Cultural variables	N.S.		Stroh (1999)
Amount of change in organisational culture	−	Adjustment	Feldman & Brett (1985)
Inability to relocate quickly	−	Stress	Forster (1990)
Support (supervisors predecessor, training)	+	Adjustment	Forster (1990)
	−	Stress	Forster (1990)
Logistical support (Information) (Communication)	+	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
	+	Smooth transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	+	Smooth transfer	Mason (1996)
Organisational relocation support (formal and informal)	+	Adjustment	Feldman & Brett (1985)
Personal support (EAPs)	−	Personal & family stress	Saunders & Thornhill (1997)
	+	Employee attitudes toward organisation	Saunders & Thornhill (1997)
Good transfer policies	+	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Using Army relocation assistance services	−	Personal and social resources	Orthner (2002)
	−	Adjustment to latest transfer	Orthner (2002)
	−	Stress	Orthner (2002)
	+	Well-being	Orthner (2002)
Stressors (recent & post-move)	+	Family Adaptation	Bowen (1989)
No retreat from relocation stressors	−	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
View relocation as part of their personal development	−	Withdraw name from transfer opportunities	Brett (1992)
Attitudes			
Gender role (traditional male*)	+	Unilateral decisions	Gill & Haurin (1998)
	−	Economic impact	Stroh (1999)
	−	Spousal career change	Stroh (1999)
Spousal gender role (traditional*)	−	Willingness to move	Markham et al. (1983)
Willingness to move	+	Moving decisions	Stroh (1999)
	+	Transfer acceptance	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	+	Transfer acceptance	Brett & Reilly (1988)
	+	Relocation behaviour	Markham et al. (1983)

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Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Belief that spouses should be willing to move (employee & spouse)	+ +	Willingness to move Spousal willingness	Brett & Werbel (1980) Brett & Werbel (1980)
Attitudes toward moving (children)	+ N.S. + + + +	Willingness to move Relocation success International moves Liking school Like neighbourhood Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993) Lee (1990) Brett (1992) Brett & Werbel (1980) Brett & Werbel (1980) Brett & Reilly (1988)
Pre-move attitudes	+	Post-move attitudes	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
Belief that moving does not damage marital relations (employee & spouse)	+ +	Willingness to move Spousal willingness	Brett & Werbel (1980) Brett & Werbel (1980)
Belief that moving brings new challenges (employee & spouse)	+ +	Willingness to move Spousal willingness	Brett & Werbel (1980) Brett & Werbel (1980)
View relocation as damaging for their children	+	Withdraw name from transfer opportunities	Brett (1992)
Confidence about children adjustment	+	Smooth spousal transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Parental adjustment	+ +	Child adjustment Child adjustment	Brett & Werbel (1980) Brett (1992)
Child adjustment	+	Spousal willingness	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Low motivation to adjust & reduce uncertainty	−	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
Realistic expectations	+ + − +	Pre-move satisfaction Adjustment Stress Family adaptation	Fisher & Shaw (1994) Feldman & Brett (1985) Feldman & Brett (1985) Bowen (1989)
Realistic job expectations	+ −	Adjustment Sense-making nec.	Feldman & Brett (1983) Feldman & Brett (1983)
Expectations	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Expected community satisfaction	+ 0	Pre-move attitudes Post-move attitudes	Fisher & Shaw (1994) Fisher & Shaw (1994)
Satisfaction with housing	+	Family Adaptation	Bowen (1989)
Actual community satisfaction	+ −	Post-move attitude Moving difficulties	Fisher & Shaw (1994) Bach & Smith (1977)
Work Attitudes			
Career attitudes & expectations	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Low motivation toward career advancement	−	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
Expected advancement	+	Pre-move attitudes	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	+	Post-move attitudes	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
Belief that transfers are related to career development (employee & spouse)	+	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	+	Spousal willingness	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Belief that moving is an opportunity for personal growth (employee & spouse)	+	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	+	Spousal willingness	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Overall sat. with company's transfer policy	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
Company identification	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Org. commitment	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
Loyalty	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)
Job involvement	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett & Reilly (1988)
Job satisfaction (advancement)	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Transfer withdrawal	Brett (1992)
	+	Rate of moving	Veiga (1983)
Morale	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Job benefits	−	Willingness to move	Veiga (1983)
Pre-move job satisfaction	−	Pre-move attitude	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	−	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Stability	−	Willingness to move	Veiga (1983)
Perceived job security	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Rate of moving	Veiga (1983)
Concern about job security	−	Willingness to move	Veiga (1983)
Labour force continuity	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
Distance from career goal	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Actual moving	Stroh (1999)
Opportunities for career develop	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Job/career commitment	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
Career stage	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
Believe qualified for promotion	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
Success important	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
Years want to do job	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Willingness to move	Sagie et al. (2001)
Believe in career future	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)
Believe in bright organisational future	+	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
	−	Transfer withdrawal	Brett (1992)
Fear of career consequences if transfer not accepted	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
Expected job satisfaction	+	Pre-move attitudes	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	0	Post-move attitudes	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
Actual job satisfaction	+	Post-move attitude	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
See move as success prerequisite	+	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
Achievement satisfaction	+	Rate of moving	Veiga (1983)
Stressful life events			
Life events	+	Relocation recall	Smith & Thomas (2003)
Finding housing (slow*)	+	Stress	Forster (1990)
	−	Spousal adjustment	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Living in temporary accommodation	+	Stress	Forster (1990)
	−	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
Family separation	+	Stress	Forster (1990)
	+	Stress Family	Wickham (1983)
	0	Orientation	Litwak (1960)
Illness	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
	−	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Coping			
Coping	+	Individual adjustment	Cornille (1993)
Coping	+	Familial adjustment	Cornille (1993)
Coping style	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Degree of preparation	+	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
	+	Adjustment	Lee (1990)
Interaction	+	Adjustment	Lee (1990)
Activity	+	Adjustment	Lee (1990)
Vigorous/combative style	+	Adjustment	Lee (1990)
Long working hours	N.S.	Work adjustment	Feldman & Brett (1983)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Changing work procedures	N.S.	Work adjustment	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Redefining the job	N.S.	Coping	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Innovation	+	Coping	Munton & West (1995)
New behaviours	N.S.	Coping	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Emotional distortion	N.S.	Coping	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Stimuli blocking	N.S.	Coping	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Palliation (distraction)	N.S.	Coping	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Cognitive appraisal	N.S.	Coping	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Delegating responsibility	N.S.	Coping	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Get others to provide task help	N.S.	Coping	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Seek out social support	N.S.	Coping	Feldman & Brett (1983)
E-mail (Maintenance bhvr)	N.S.	Coping	Finchum (2003)
Reciprocity (Maintenance bhvr)	N.S.	Coping	Finchum (2003)
Annual Christmas card (Maintenance bhvr)	N.S.	Coping	Finchum (2003)
Seek out information	N.S.	Coping	Feldman & Brett (1983)
Rekindling of old f/s (Maintenance bhvr)	N.S.	Coping	Finchum (2003)
Personal Characteristics			
Personal factors	+	Relocation stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
Demographics	N.S.	Willingness to move	Munton & Forster (1990)
	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Gender (male*)	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)
	+	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
	0	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
	+	Transfer withdrawal	Brett (1992)
	−	Susceptible to family factors	Stroh (1999)
	+	Willingness to move	Markham et al. (1983)
	+	Actual relocation	Markham et al. (1983)
Lifecycle	N.S.	Job changing decisions	Hill & Miller (1981)
	−	Willingness to move	Veiga (1983)

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Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Age	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
	0	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	−	Willingness to move	Gould & Penley (1985)
	−	Willingness to move	Sagie et al. (2001)
	N.S.	Willingness to move	Bach & Smith (1977)
	N.S.	Actual mobility	Bach & Smith (1977)
	−	Actual mobility	Justen-Horsten (2004)
	−	Relocation	Glick (1993)
Race (non-white*)	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Relocation	Brett et al. (1993)
	−	Relocation	Brett (1992)
	0	Relocation	Glick (1993)
Intelligence	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Parental education	0	Social intimacy	Fedor (2003)
	0	Loneliness	Fedor (2003)
Education	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)
	0	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
	+	Willingness to move	Markham et al. (1983)
	+	Voluntary moving	Glick (1993)
Skills	+	Voluntary moving	Glick (1993)
Economic position	+	Post-transfer satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Home ownership	+	Negative outcomes	Saunders & Thornhill (1997)
	+	Stress	Saunders & Thornhill (1997)
	−	Willingness to move	Markham et al. (1983)
	N.S.	Willingness to move	Bach & Smith (1977)
	N.S.	Actual mobility	Bach & Smith (1977)
Transitional objects (i.e. possessions)	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Cultural flexibility	+	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
Communication skills	+	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Adjustment	Brett (1992)

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Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Ambiguity tolerance	+	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
Attributional flexibility	+	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
Ethnocentrism	−	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
Conflict-prone	−	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
Have a stability zone (retreat)	+	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
Work Factors			
Job characteristics	N.S.	Adjustment Strategy	Munton & West (1995)
Career factors	0	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
Career options	+	Rate of moving	Veiga (1983)
Job novelty	+	Personal change	Munton & West (1995)
Job discretion	+	Role innovation	Munton & West (1995)
Job involvement of employee	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
Lateral job changes	−	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Annual promotions	+	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Organisational tenure	+	Willingness to move	Munton & Forster (1990)
	0	Relocation decision	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Relocation decision	Brett et al. (1993)
	0	Relocation decision	Stroh (1999)
	−	Relocation decision	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	+	Relocation decision	Rives & West (1993)
Job tenure	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Willingness to move	Gould & Penley (1985)
Rank (org. level) (status)	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Withdraw name from transfer opportunities	Brett et al. (1993)
	−		Brett (1992)
	+	Positive experience	Glueck (1974)
	+	Willingness to move	Markham et al. (1983)
Level of visibility	+	Moving rate	Veiga (1983)
Functional areas	INTER	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	INTER	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)

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Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Income (economic position) Income earners	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)
	+	Spousal satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
	+	Withdraw name	Brett (1992)
	+	Move	Stroh (1999)
	−	Willingness to move	Gould & Penley (1985)
	+	Relocation	Bach & Smith (1977)
	+	Willingness to move	Bielby & Bielby (1992)
Economic interests	N.S.	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
Long hours	+	Stress	Forster (1990)
High degree of role overload	−	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
Possessing low technical skills	−	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
Possessing the necessary skills	+	Adjustment	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	+	Smooth transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Fear of stagnation	+	Willingness to move	Veiga (1983)
Career impatience	+	Willingness to move	Veiga (1983)
High ambitions	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)
High career ambitions	+	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
	+	Positive experience	Glueck (1974)
Competence	+	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
Prior contact with supervisor	+	Adjustment	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Family Factors			
Family factors	−	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
	+	Relocation stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
	+	Difficulty	Glueck (1974)
Marital status (women only)	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Stress	Brett et al. (1993)
	+	Willingness to move	Forster (1990)
	−	Transfer withdrawal	Brett (1992) - Study
	+	Turn down transfer	Brett (1992)
	+	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
	0	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
	−	Family conflict	Markham et al. (1983)
	+	Relocation	Markham et al. (1983)
	−	Relocation	Glick (1993)
Spousal gender	0	Spousal willingness	Brett (1992)

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APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Spousal age	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
Spousal marital satisfaction	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Spousal Willingness	Brett (1992)
Living with spouse	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Non-traditional families (e.g. single parents) (e.g. female-headed)	+	Negative outcomes	Lu & Cooper (1995)
	−	Relocation	Sell (1983)
Family's position in developmental life cycle	−	Willingness to move	Munton & Forster (1990)
	0	Willingness to move	Gould & Penley (1985)
Responsibility for elderly family members	−	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
Close identification with family	0	Relocation	Litwak (1960)
Psychologically close with family	+	Willingness to move	Litwak (1960)
Family size (number of children)	0	Adjustment	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	−	Spousal	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Willingness	Martin (1995)
	−	Post-move relocation stress	Rives & West (1993)
	−	Relocation decision	Brett (1992)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
	N.S.	Willingness to move	Saunders & Thornhill (1997)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett & Reilly (1988)
Age of children (Adolescents)	−	Willingness to move	Munton & Forster (1990)
	+	Vulnerable to effects	Munton & Forster (1990)
	+	Adjustment probs	Feldman & Brett (1985)
Children at home	−	Spousal Willingness	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)
	0	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett & Reilly (1988)
Change in schools	+	Stress	Wickham (1983)
Spousal adjustment	+	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
	+	Worker adjustment	Flynn (1996)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Spousal employment	+	Post-transfer satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
	−	Willingness to move	Munton & Forster (1990)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Spousal willingness	Brett et al. (1992)
	+	Negative outcomes	Munton & Forster (1990)
	+	Stress	Forster (1990)
	0	Relocation decision	Rives & West (1993)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
	0	Spousal willingness	Brett (1992)
	−	Transfer acceptance	Stroh (1999)
	−	Spousal willingness	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	−	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	+	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	−	Willingness to move	Gould & Penley (1985)
Job change / loss	+	Stress	Wickham (1983)
	+	Uncertainty	Feldman & Brett (1983)
	+	Disruption	Feldman & Brett (1983)
	+	Threat	Feldman & Brett (1983)
	+	Financial detriment	Flynn (1996)
	+	Psych. detriment	Flynn (1996)
Career orientation	0	Spousal willingness	Brett (1992)
	N.S.	Actual relocation	Bach & Smith (1977)
	N.S.	Relocation satisfaction	Bach & Smith (1977)
Job/career involvement	N.S.	Spousal willingness	Stroh (1999)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	−	Willingness to move	Feldman & Brett (1985)
Dual-earner couples vs. Dual-career couples (*)	+	FT employment	Green (1997)
	+	Commute long distances	Green (1997)
	+	Two or more cars	Green (1997)
	+	Drive to work by car	Green (1997)
	+	Home ownership	Green (1997)
	+	Income	Green (1997)
	+	Commuting	Anderson & Spruill (1993)
	+	Separation	Anderson & Spruill (1993)
	+	Traditional division of family tasks (women do more)	Anderson & Spruill (1993)
Spouses' reluctance to leave job	+	Turn down transfer	Cetron et al. (1987)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Employment value	−	Willingness to move	Feldman & Brett (1985)
Employment status	−	Willingness to move	Feldman & Brett (1985)
Spousal earnings were (over $15,000 per year)	−	Relocation decision	Rives & West (1993)
	−	Willingness to move	Bielby & Bielby (1992)
Primary providers (generally males)	+	Willingness to move	Markham et al. (1983)
Spousal earnings / proportion of the family income	−	Relocation decision	Rives & West (1993)
	−	Willingness to move	Feldman & Brett (1985)
Length of continuous spousal employment	−	Relocation decision	Rives & West (1993)
Availability of new employment	+	Spousal willingness	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Spousal training	−	Willingness to move	Bielby & Bielby (1992)
Spouse attitude	+	Willingness to move	Munton & Forster (1990)
Spousal willingness to move	+	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1993)
	+	Willingness to move	Flynn (1996)
	−	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Children's reluctance	−	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Family support	+	Willingness to move	Sagie et al. (2001)
Spouse supports move	+	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
	+	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Perceived family stress	−	Work performance	Munton & Forster (1990)
Perceived family stress	−	Work satisfaction	Munton & Forster (1990)
Perceived family stress	−	Work mood	Munton & Forster (1990)
Perceived family stress	−	Work absenteeism	Munton & Forster (1990)
Family conflict	−	Willingness to move	Markham et al. (1983)
Family contact	0	Family identification	Litwak (1960)
Extended family movement	N.S.	Career development	Litwak (1960)
Personality Factors			
Personality	N.S.	Stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
Types A	+	Stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
Degree of extraversion	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
Sociability	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Exploratory tendencies / Openness to experience	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
External locus of control	+	Stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
Optimism	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Hardiness	−	Stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
Confidence	+	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Self-esteem	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
	N.S.	Adjustment strategy	Munton & West (1995)
	−	Role innovation	Munton & West (1995)
	+	Personal change	Munton & West (1995)
Social Support			
Well-being	0	Innovation	Munton & West (1995)
Social factors	+	Stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
	N.S.	Willingness to move	Saunders & Thornhill (1997)
Support	N.S.	Stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
Support	+	Effect of relocation	Cornille (1993)
Social Support (from interpersonal r/s)	+	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
	−	Distress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
Friends at the new location	+	Pre-move attitudes	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	+	Initial adjustment	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
Personal support	−	Stress	Forster (1990)
Perceived support at new location	−	Time to proficiency (work performance)	Pinder & Schroeder (1987)
Community support	+	Family Adaptation	Bowen (1989)
Community ties	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett (1992)
	+	Stress	Forster (1990)
	−	Willingness to move	Veiga (1983)
Community involvement	−	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
Found friends quickly	+	Smooth spousal transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
No. of support assets	+	Personal adjustment	Orthner (2002)
	+	Family adjustment	Orthner (2002)
	+	Army adjustment	Orthner (2002)
Personal, supervisory, and organisational support	−	Stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
Organisational culture (Supportive)	−	Stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
Environmental Factors			
External environmental influences	N.S.	Willingness to move	Saunders & Thornhill (1997)
Environmental circumstances	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
	N.S.	Relocation success	Bodenhoefer (1967)
Distance travelled	N.S.	Neighbourhood attachment	Bolan (1997)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Differences between locations	−	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
	−	Location satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	−	Adjustment	Lee (1990)
	−	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
	−	Smooth transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Direction of change	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Preference for new location over old location	+	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
Confidence in new community	+	Spousal adjustment	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Negative attitude to new location	−	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
Pre-move community satisfaction	−	Relocation	Bach & Smith (1977)
Post-move satisfaction	−	Pre-move anxiety	West et al. (1987)
	+	Discretion	West et al. (1987)
	+	Predictability	West et al. (1987)
	+	Work-life fit	West et al. (1987)
Type of new environment (e.g. public, private, institutional	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Organisational Factors	+	Relocation stress	Lu & Cooper (1995)
Job similarity	+	Adjustment	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	+	Time to proficiency	Pinder & Schroeder (1987)
	+	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
	+	Adjustment	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	+	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Functional change	−	Adjustment	Brett (1992)
Subjective change(job difficulty)	+	Time to proficiency	Pinder & Schroeder (1987)
Change of work task	+	Stress	Wickham (1983)
Change in responsibility	+	Stress	Wickham (1983)
Change in work hours	+	Stress	Wickham (1983)
Change in work conditions	+	Stress	Wickham (1983)
Trouble with superior	+	Stress	Wickham (1983)
Area standard (pre)	−	Willingness to move	Gould & Penley (1985)
Change in standard of living	+	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
	−	Spousal adjustment	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Price differences	−	Stress	Forster (1990)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Central location (NL)	+	Relocation decision	Green (1997)
Air quality	0	Location satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Accessibility to employment opportunities (NL)	+	Relocation decision	Green (1997)
Civic participation opportunities	+	Location satisfaction (spouse)	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Climate	0	Location satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Crime	0	Location satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Cultural opportunities	0	Location satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Motorway links (NL)	+	Relocation decision	Green (1997)
Rail networks (NL)	+	Relocation decision	Green (1997)
Education	+	Location satisfaction (spouse)	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Ethnic diversity	+	Location satisfaction (spouse)	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Growth rate	0	Location satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Health care	0	Location satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Housing	N.S.	Willingness to move	Saunders & Thornhill (1997)
Cost of housing (ratio of housing cost to family income)	+	Location satisfaction (employee)	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Quality of new home & neighbourhood	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Missing persons	0	Location satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Social relationships	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
	0	Moving decisions	Brett & Werbel (1980)
	N.S.	Willingness to move	Bach & Smith (1977)
	N.S.	Actual mobility	Bach & Smith (1977)
Distance from family	−	Family contact	Litwak (1960)
Parks	+	Location satisfaction (spouse)	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Semi-rural area (NL)	+	Relocation decision	Green (1997)
Police Efficiency	0	Location satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Population Turnover	+	Location satisfaction (employee)	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Vacancy rate	0	Location satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
Prior familiarity with the location	+	Post-transfer satisfaction	Carruthers & Pinder (1983)
	+	Post-move attitudes	Bolan (1997)
	+	Post-move behaviour	Bolan (1997)
Community perceptions	−	Willingness to move	Veiga (1983)
Community tenure	−	Willingness to move	Munton & Forster (1990)
	−	Pre-move attitude	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Relocation decision	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	−	Willingness to move	Rives & West (1993)
	N.S.	Willingness to move	Markham et al. (1983)
	N.S.	Actual mobility	Bach & Smith (1977)
	N.S.	Relocation satisfact.	Bach & Smith (1977)
Community attachment	−	Relocation decision	Rives & West (1993)
Satisfaction variables	N.S.	Willingness to move	Bach & Smith (1977)
	N.S.	Actual mobility	Bach & Smith (1977)
Pre-move community satisfaction	−	Pre-move attitude	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
Satisfaction with current location	−	Accept transfer	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Degree of attachment to past home	N.S.	Relocation success	Lee (1990)
Moving History			
Moving History	N.S.	Neighbourhood attachment	Bolan (1997)
Most recent move	N.S.	Neighbourhood attachment	Bolan (1997)
Problems with last move	+	Negativity about moves	Brett (1980)
	−	Pre-move attitudes	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	0	Post-move attitudes	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	−	Willingness to move	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Adaptation to past moves	+	Willingness to move	Stroh (1999)
Rate of previous transfers	+	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)

APPENDIX A. SUMMARY TABLE OF CIVILIAN RELOCATION LITERATURE

Category	Effect (+/−)	Outcome Variable	Authors (Theory / Empirical)
Amount of time elapsed since move	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
Total number of transfers (inside & outside company)	0	Transfer satisfaction	Pinder (1977)
	+	Domestic adjustment	Fisher & Shaw (1994)
	+	Positive experience	Glueck (1974)
Number of prior moves (None vs. four)	0	Willingness to move	Brett et al. (1992)
	0	Time in an area	Brett et al. (1993)
	−	Post-move wellbeing	Martin (1995)
	−	Relocation decision	Martin (1995)
	0	Relationship ability	Fedor (2003)
	0	Closeness & belonging	Fedor (2003)
Frequency of transfers	0	Time to proficiency	Pinder & Schroeder (1987)
	+	Pre-transfer anxiety	West et al. (1987)
	+	Personal change	Feldman & Brett (1985)
	−	Career satisfaction	Feldman & Brett (1985)
	−	Supervisor feedback	Feldman & Brett (1985)
	−	Adjustment	Feldman & Brett (1985)
Inexperienced & frequent movers	+	Difficulties	Martin (1995)
Length of stay	+	Home ownership	Haurin & Gill (2002)
	−	Post-move wellbeing	Martin (1995)
	−	Relocation stress	Martin (1995)
	+	Feelings of anxiety	Martin (1995)
	+	Work-related depression	Martin (1995)
	+	Work-related anxiety	Martin (1995)
Expected length of stay	+	Home ownership	Haurin & Gill (2002)
Feelings of transience (may turn into anomie especially if moves are frequent)	−	Adjustment	Brett et al. (1992)
Transaction costs	−	Home ownership	Haurin & Gill (2002)
Reject job transfer	0	Future willingness to relocate	Brett & Werbel (1980)
Time in first position	−	Rate of moving	Veiga (1983)
Predecessor's stay time	−	Rate of moving	Veiga (1983)

(NL)	New location
N.S.	Not stated
0	No effect
—	Negative relationship
+	Positive relationship
INTER	Interaction
*	Item with effect

Appendix B : Depiction of Society as System
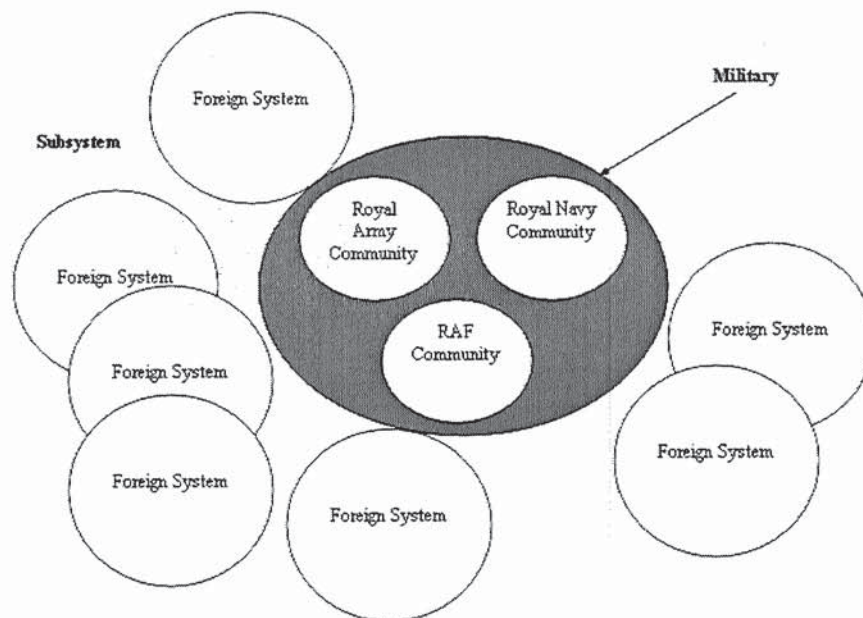
Figure B.1: Depiction of Society as System

Appendix C : The RAF Community as a Subsystem
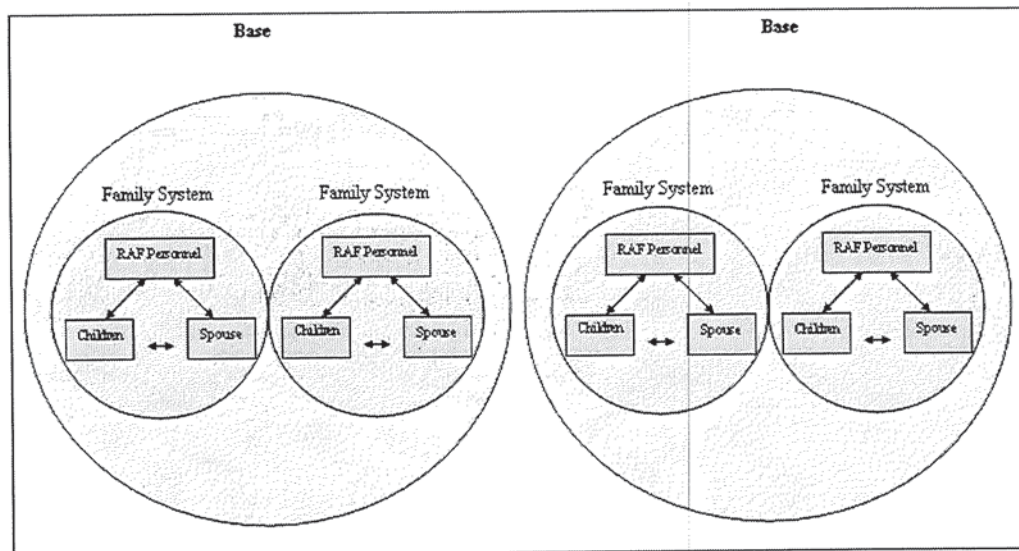
Figure C.1: The RAF Community as a Subsystem

Appendix D : The Individual Family Unit as Level of Analysis

Individual Family Unit
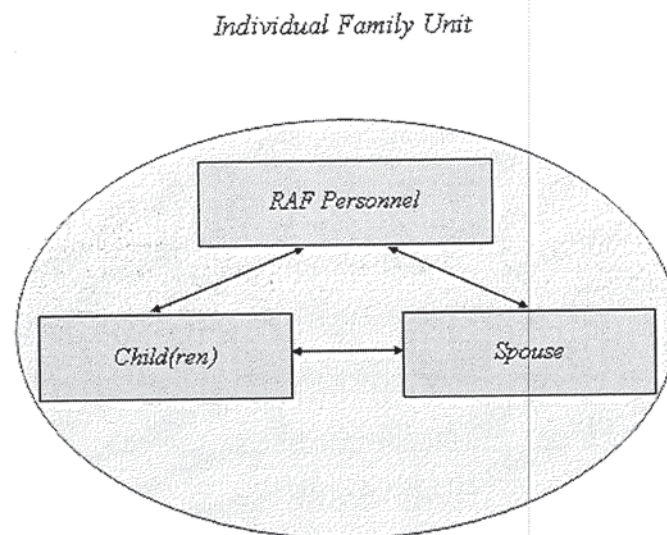
Figure D.1: The Individual Family Unit as Level of Analysis

Appendix E : Individual Level Mediators & Moderators in the Relationship Between Relocation and Outcome Variables
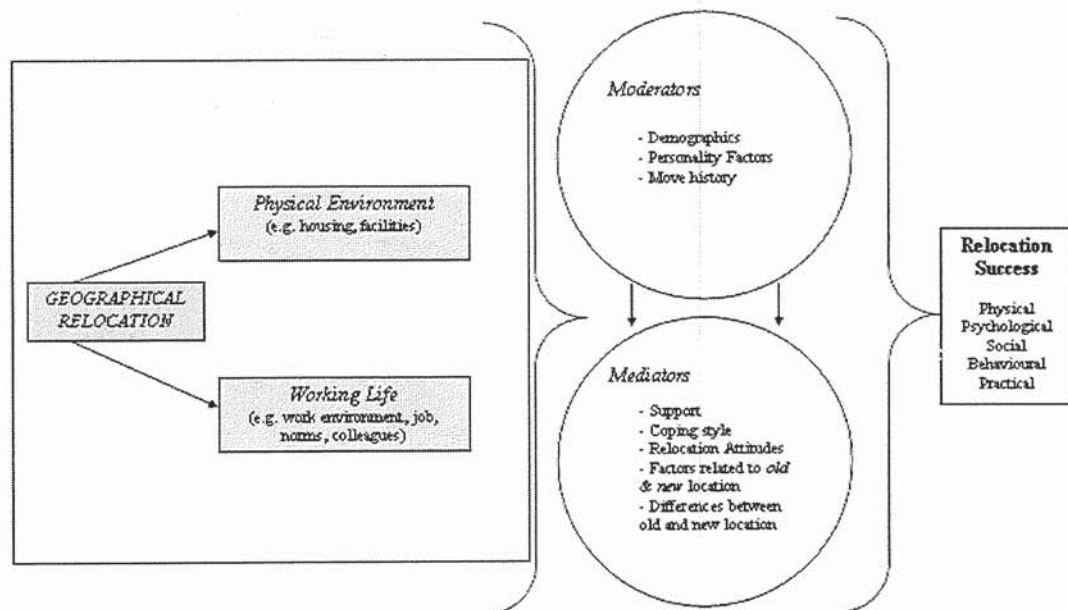
Figure E.1: Individual Level Mediators & Moderators in the Relationship Between Relocation and Outcome Variables

Appendix F : Summary Table of Variables Used in Conceptual Framework (& Their Origins)

Variables	Aspects Assessed (+/−)	Type	Researchers
Relocation Attitudes	• Expectations about new location • Expected consequences of transfer • Perceived control [including ambiguity, conflict] • Nature of move [including smoothness of move & degree of preparation] • Amount of pre-transfer notice given • Work-related factors [including company/job tenure (identification, commitment, loyalty, involvement, security); Rank/career Stage; career/job satisfaction; organisational culture] • Family Factors [including family members' attitudes toward moves & family members' adjustment]	Mediator	Anderson et al. (1981); Brett (1982); Brett et al. (1992); Brett et al. (1993); Fisher (1990); Fisher & Shaw (1994); Lee (1990); Mandler (1990); Munton & Forster (1990); Nicholson (1990); Oatley (1990); Pinder (1977); Pinder & Schroeder (1987)
Demographics	• Age Ethnic background • Education/intelligence • Marital status • Number of children at home (position in developmental life cycle) • Gender • Spousal employment • Income • Health (prior to move) • Self-esteem Morale	Moderator	Anderson et al. (1981); Brett (1980); Brett et al. (1992); Brett et al. (1993); Carruthers & Pinder (1983); Fisher & Shaw (1994); Lee (1990); Munton & Forster (1990)

Variables	Aspects Assessed (+/−)	Type	Researchers
Move History	• Past adjustment problems • Number/frequency of prior moves	Moderator	Brett (1980); Brett et al. (1992); Brett et al. (1993); Carruthers & Pinder (1983); Fisher & Shaw (1994); Forster (1977); Lee (1990); Munton & Forster (1990)
Support (Real or Perceived)	• Information • Financial resources • Logistical support • Induction/Training • Social/emotional support [including employer's concern for well-being]	Mediator	Anderson et al. (1981); Forster, (1990); Fried (1977); Lee (1990); Pinder (1977); Pinder & Schroeder (1987)
Factors Related to Old Location	• Community ties [including time in community; community similarity; community attachments; community satisfaction] • Urban geographic factors	Mediator	Brett et al. (1992); Carruthers & Pinder (1983); Fisher & Shaw (1994); Fried (1977); Lee (1990); Louis (1980); Munton & Forster (1990); Weiss (1990)
Factors Related to New Location	• Urban geographic factors • Prior familiarity with the location [including knowledge of area; friends at location]	Mediator	Brett et al. (1993); Carruthers & Pinder (1983); Lee (1990); Fisher & Shaw (1994); Fried (1977); Louis, (1980); Oatley (1990)
Differences between old and new location	• Community/Work/Social • Standard of living change • Preference for location • Cultural differences	Mediator	Brett et al. (1992); Fisher & Shaw (1994); Lee (1990); Louis (1980); Nicholson (1990); Mandler (1990); Pinder (1977) ; Pinder & Schroeder (1987)
Personality Factors	• Confidence • Flexibility • Sociability • Optimism • Openness to experience • Extraversion	Moderator	Brett et al. (1992); Fried (1977); Fisher (1990); Lee (1990); Nicholson (1990); Oatley (1990); Pinder (1977)

Variables	Aspects Assessed (+/−)	Type	Researchers
Coping Style	• Coping style		Smith, Haynes, Lazarus & Pope (1993); Fisher (1990); Fisher & Cooper (1990); Fried (1977); Folkman & Lazarus (1988); Folkman et al. (1986a); Folkman et al. (1986b); Lazarus (1977); Lazarus (1991a); Lazarus (1991b); Lazarus (2000); Mandler (1990); Monat & Lazarus (1977)
Relocation success	• Satisfaction with marriage, family life, friendships • Well-being [working life, self, family life, marriage, and interpersonal relationships] • Mental and physical health • Behavioural changes • Adjustment • Job proficiency • Quality of Life • Pre- and post-move attitudes	Outcome Variable	Anderson et al. (1981); Brett (1980); Brett (1982); Brett et al. (1992); Carruthers & Pinder (1983); Fisher & Cooper (1990); Fisher & Shaw (1994); Fried (1977); Forster (1990); Louis (1980); Munton & Forster (1990); Pinder (1977); Pinder & Schroeder (1987)

Appendix G : Methodology used in Relocation Research

CS	Cross-Sectional
L	Longitudinal

Researcher	Type	Methodological Details
Anderson & Spruill (1993)	Questionnaire (CS)	39 dual-career couples questionnaires
Bach & Smith (1977)	Interview	Interview data from 221 Caucasians
Bielby & Bielby (1992)	Interview	1977 Quality of Employment Survey (QES), based on 80-minute personal interviews with working adults over the age of 16. Focusing on married dual-earner families reduced the sample to 162 female and 197 male respondents.
Bowen (1989)	Questionnaire (CS)	1000 Army Families Dataset: enlisted members & spouses; officers & spouses
Brett & Werbel (1980)	Dual-Approach	Three phases: baseline survey I (questionnaire), movers study (series of 3 interviews), and baseline survey II (questionnaire)
Brett (1982)	Questionnaire (CS)	350 employees from ten large American companies; three different comparison groups
Brett et al. (1993)	Questionnaire (CS)	827 recent movers from 20 Fortune 500 companies
Carruthers & Pinder (1983)	Questionnaire (L)	405 employees and their spouses: pre- and post-transfer location satisfaction
Fedor (2003)	Questionnaire (L)	Series of questionnaires: Students between the age of 19 & 21 were recruited. Group 1: 43 individuals who relocated four or more times before 18. Group 2: The other group consisted of 54 children who had never moved.

APPENDIX G. METHODOLOGY USED IN RELOCATION RESEARCH

Researcher	Type	Methodological Details
Feldman & Brett (1983)	Dual-Approach	Interviews & questionnaires: 80 participants from one organisation participated in the study over a 2-year period
Finchum (2003)	Interview	Qualitative study utilising semi-structured interviews: 25 females over the age of 45
Forster (1990)	Dual-Approach	Interviews & questionnaires (426)
Glueck (1974)	Questionnaire (CS)	Surveyed 500 business executives
Green (1997)	Dual-Approach	In-depth interviews with 30 dual-career couples; Questionnaire data from 160 couples
Litwak (1960)	Questionnaire (CS)	920 Caucasian wives in the Buffalo area
Markham et al. (1983)	Dual-Approach	Interviews & questionnaires: Five offices and 897 employees of a federal agency
Martin (1995)	Questionnaire (L)	Thirty-eight individuals completed two questionnaires: six weeks pre-move; ten weeks post-move (domestic group move)
Munton & West (1995)	Questionnaire (L)	121 employees: three times throughout their relocation process
Pinder & Schroeder (1987)	Questionnaire (CS)	Mail questionnaires: 354 employees, mainly managers, within eight different companies in seven Canadian industrial sectors
Pinder (1977)	Questionnaire (CS)	Mail questionnaires: 196 employees, mainly managers, from three Canadian corporations (incl. spouses)
Rives & West (1993)	Questionnaire (CS)	224 questionnaires: individuals who were offered a move (plant relocation)
Sagie et al. (2001)	Questionnaire (L)	108 production workers: two weeks after the relocation announcement; one month after relocation
Sell (1983)	Questionnaire (CS)	1973-1977 Annual Housing Surveys
Veiga (1983)	Questionnaire (CS)	1216 people in three major American organisations
West et al. (1987)	Questionnaire (L)	Career development survey: 2304 British managers of which 1100 participated in the longitudinal aspect

Appendix H : Consent Forms

Section I : Adult Consent Form

⍟ ASTON
BUSINESS SCHOOL

> ASTON BUSINESS SCHOOL
> Work and Organisational Psychology Group
> Aston University
> Aston Triangle
> Birmingham B4 7ET

Interview Consent Form

The Effects of Moving on RAF Families

This project is being undertaken by Jane Matthiesen as part of a doctoral degree within the Work and Organisational Psychology Group at Aston University. The overall purpose of the project is to investigate the influence that moving has on the lives of RAF family members.

The purpose of this interview is to explore some of the issues surrounding the difficulties associated with moving. The information gathered from the interview will be used to model further interviews and design a questionnaire that assesses attitudes towards and consequences of moving.

The interview will last for approximately 60 minutes and will be recorded on tape, if you are in agreement. The tape is purely to assist the interviewer in remembering what has been said and to save time during the interview. You may switch the tape recorder off at any point during the interview, if you wish. The content of the tape will not be disclosed to anyone beyond the research team and the tapes will be destroyed at the end of the project.

You may terminate the interview at any stage and may withdraw your consent for the use of information gained from the interview. Further, any information that you provided to the researcher will be treated in the strictest confidence. Any personal material from your interview that is used in project reports, academic papers and feedback to Airways Families Association will be quoted anonymously and any references that could identify you will be removed.

During the interview you will be asked about your own moving experiences. You do not have to answer any question that you find upsetting and the interviewer will respect your decision. However, the interviewer is not a trained counsellor and if you find that you are upset during the interview or at some later time, you should approach a trained counsellor (contact information can be obtained from the interviewer).

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this interview. If you have any further queries, please do not hesitate to contact me:

<div align="center">

Jane Matthiesen

Doctoral Researcher

Work & Organisational Psychology Group

Aston University Business School

Aston Triangle

Birmingham B4 7ET

Telephone: 07903-319701

E-mail: Matthijk@aston.ac.uk

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* Page 2 *

The Effects of Moving on RAF Families

Consent to participate and assurance of confidentiality

I, the undersigned, agree to be interviewed as part of the project "The Effects of Moving on RAF Families". I have been given an explanation of the study and have been assured that:

- I will not have to answer any questions that I find upsetting;
- I may withdraw from the interview at any time without having to justify my decision and may withdraw my consent for the use of any information already gained from the interview;
- Similarly, I may switch off the tape recorder at any time during the interview;
- The content of the tapes will not be disclosed to anyone outside the research team at Aston University and will not be used for any purpose outside this project. The tapes will be destroyed at the end of the project;
- Any material used in project reports, academic papers or feedback to the Airwaves Families Association will be used anonymously and will not identify me in any way.

Signature		Date

Name of Interviewee (Optional)		Telephone Number

Address (Optional)

Name of Interviewer	Contact Details
Jane Matthiesen	Doctoral Researcher Work & Organisational Psychology Group Aston University Business School Aston Triangle Birmingham B4 7ET Telephone: 07903-319701 E-mail: Matthijk@aston.ac.uk

Section II : Child Consent Form

ASTON
BUSINESS SCHOOL

ASTON BUSINESS SCHOOL Work and Organisational Psychology Group Aston University Aston Triangle Birmingham B4 7ET

Child Interview Consent Form

The Effects of Moving on RAF Families

This project is being undertaken by Jane Matthiesen as part of a doctoral degree within the Work and Organisational Psychology Group at Aston University. The overall purpose of the project is to investigate the

influence that moving has on the lives of RAF family members.

The purpose of this interview is to explore some of the issues surrounding the difficulties associated with moving for children. The information gathered from the interview will be used to model further interviews and design a questionnaire that assesses attitudes towards and consequences of moving.

The interview will last for approximately 30 minutes and will be recorded on tape, if both parent and child are in agreement. The tape is purely to assist the interviewer in remembering what has been said and to save time during the interview. You and your child may switch the tape recorder off at any point during the interview, if you wish. The content of the tape will not be disclosed to anyone beyond the research team and the tapes will be destroyed at the end of the project.

You and your child may terminate the interview at any stage and may withdraw your consent for the use of information gained from the interview. Further, any information that your child provides to the researcher will be treated in the strictest confidence. Any personal material from your interview that is used in project reports, academic papers and feedback to Airways Families Association will be quoted anonymously and any references that could lead to identification will be removed.

During the interview your child will be asked about their moving experiences. He/she does not have to answer any question that he/she finds upsetting and the interviewer will respect the decision. However, the interviewer is not a trained counsellor and if you find that you are upset during the interview or at some later time, you should approach a trained counsellor (contact information can be obtained from the interviewer).

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this interview. If you have any further queries, please do not hesitate to contact me:

<div align="center">

Jane Matthiesen

Doctoral Researcher

Work & Organisational Psychology Group

Aston University Business School

Aston Triangle

Birmingham B4 7ET

Telephone: 07903-319701

E-mail: Matthijk@aston.ac.uk

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* Page 2 *

The Effects of Moving on RAF Families

Consent to participate and assurance of confidentiality

I, the undersigned, permit my child to be interviewed as part of the project "The Effects of Moving on RAF Families". I have been given an explanation of the study and have been assured that:

- My child will not have to answer any questions that he/she finds upsetting;

- I may withdraw my child from the interview at any time without having to justify my decision and may withdraw my consent for the use of any information already gained from the interview;

- Similarly, I and my child may switch off the tape recorder at any time during the interview;

- I understand that the content of the tapes will not be disclosed to anyone outside the research team at Aston University and will not be used for any purpose outside this project. The tapes will be destroyed at the end of the project;

- Any material used in project reports, academic papers or feedback to the Airwaves Families Association will be used anonymously and will not identify me or my child in any way.

Parental Signature   **Date**

Signature of Interviewed Child   **Telephone Number**

Address (Optional)

Name of Interviewer	Contact Details
Jane Matthiesen	Doctoral Researcher Work & Organisational Psychology Group Aston University Business School Aston Triangle Birmingham B4 7ET Telephone: 07903-319701 E-mail: Matthijk@aston.ac.uk

Appendix I : Ranks of The Royal Air Force

Rank	Abbreviation	Category
Marshal of the RAF		Air Rank
Air Chief Marshal		Air Rank
Air Marshal		Air Rank
Air Vice-Marshal	AVM	Air Rank
Air Commodore	Air Cdre	Air Rank
Group Captain	Gp Capt	Senior Officer
Wing Commander	Wg Cdr	Senior Officer
Squadron Leader	Sqn Ldr	Senior Officer
Flight Lieutenant	Flt Lt	Junior Officer
Flying Officer	FO	Junior Officer
Pilot Officer	PO	Junior Officer
Warrant Officer	WO	Warrant Officer
Master Aircrew	MA	Warrant Officer
Flight Sergeant	FS	Senior NCO
Chief Technician	Chief Tech	Senior NCO
Sergeant	Sgt	Senior NCO
Corporal	Cpl	Junior NCO
Junior Technician	JT	Airman
Senior Aircraftsman	SAC/SACW	Airman
Leading Aircraftsman	LAC	Airman
Aircraftsman	AC	Airman

Appendix J : Demographics of the RAF Population (Source: DASA, April 1st, 2005)

Age	Number (Male)	Percentage (Male)	Number (Female)	Percentage (Female)
All	9,230	100.0	1,390	100.0
15				
16				
17				
18				
19	10	0.1		
20	30	0.3		
21	50	0.5	10	0.8
22	100	1.1	30	2.3
23	185	2.0	55	4.0
24	245	2.7	85	6.3
25	275	3.0	75	5.5
26	300	3.3	90	6.5
27	250	2.7	85	6.2
28	250	2.7	65	4.8
29	235	2.5	75	5.5
30	215	2.3	85	6.1
31	275	3.0	65	4.7
32	295	3.2	65	4.6
33	375	4.1	70	5.0
34	345	3.7	65	4.8
35	355	3.8	80	5.8
36	400	4.3	65	4.7
37	480	5.2	55	3.9
38	415	4.5	45	3.2
39	395	4.3	35	2.4
40	380	4.1	25	1.7
41	325	3.5	20	1.6
42	290	3.2	20	1.5
43	285	3.1	15	1.2
44	245	2.7	20	1.6
45	265	2.9	10	0.8
46	250	2.7	15	0.9
47	210	2.3	5	0.4
48	200	2.2	15	1.1
49	200	2.2	5	0.4
50	225	2.4		
51	200	2.2	5	0.4
52	170	1.8	5	0.4
53	130	1.4		
54	135	1.5		
55 and over	235	2.5	5	0.4

Table J.1: Royal Air Force: Regular Officers by Age and Gender

Age	Number (Male)	Percentage (Male)	Number (Female)	Percentage (Female)
All	36,380	100.0	4,870	100.0
15				
16	5		10	0.2
17	160	0.4	65	1.4
18	525	1.4	165	3.3
19	950	2.6	255	5.3
20	1,365	3.8	320	6.5
21	1,565	4.3	335	6.9
22	1,515	4.2	340	6.9
23	1,640	4.5	300	6.1
24	1,555	4.3	320	6.5
25	1,640	4.5	305	6.2
26	1,360	3.7	260	5.3
27	1,080	3.0	210	4.3
28	970	2.7	190	3.9
29	910	2.5	155	3.2
30	860	2.4	155	3.2
31	1,040	2.9	180	3.7
32	1,335	3.7	195	4.0
33	1,375	3.8	215	4.4
34	1,415	3.9	175	3.6
35	1,470	4.0	145	3.0
36	1,550	4.3	120	2.5
37	1,420	3.9	85	1.8
38	1,470	4.0	85	1.7
39	1,340	3.7	70	1.5
40	1,170	3.2	55	1.2
41	1,180	3.2	40	0.8
42	1,030	2.8	25	0.5
43	915	2.5	20	0.4
44	725	2.0	20	0.5
45	630	1.7	20	0.4
46	545	1.5	10	0.2
47	400	1.1	10	0.2
48	235	0.6	5	0.1
49	235	0.7	5	0.1
50	205	0.6		
51	165	0.5		
52	135	0.4		
53	130	0.4		
54	115	0.3		
55 and over	45	0.1		

Table J.2: Royal Air Force: Regular Ranks by Age and Gender

	Armed Forces	RAF	Female (No.)	Female (%)
Overall	**201,100**	51,870	6,260	12.1
Officers	**33,000**	10,620	1,390	13.1
	OF-10[1]			
	OF-6 to OF-9	130		
	OF-5	340	14	4.1
	OF-4	1,320	85	6.4
	OF-3	2,870	260	8.9
	OF-2	4,650	720	15.4
	OF-1 / OF (D)	1,310	320	24.1
Other Ranks	**168,100**	41,250	4,870	11.8
	OR-9	1,200	31	2.6
	OR-8[34]			
	OR-7[4]	3,900	120	3.0
	OR-6	7,660	580	7.6
	OR-4	10,070	1,270	12.7
	OR-3[23]			
	OR-2	16,430	2,530	15.4
	OR-12	2,000	340	17.0

Table J.3: UK Regular Forces Rank Structure

NATO Rank	Male (Married)	Male (Not Married)	Female (Married)	Female (Not Married)
Officers	**6,660**	**2,575**	**510**	**875**
OF-10[1]				
OF-6 to OF-9	125	10		
OF-5	305	15	10	5
OF-4	1,160	75	45	40
OF-3	2,380	235	155	100
OF-2	2,535	1,395	270	450
OF-1 / OF (D)	155	845	30	285
Other Ranks	**20,560**	**15,820**	**1,520**	**3,350**
OR-9	1,085	80	20	10
OR-8[34]				
OR-7[4]	3,350	430	75	40
OR-6	5,865	1,225	330	250
OR-4	6,465	2,325	600	675
OR-3[23]				
OR-2	3,720	10,180	485	2,045
OR-12	75	1,580	10	330

Table J.4: UK Regular Forces Marital Status

Appendix K : Interview Questions

Section I : Questions used with Adult Sample

Demographics

1. Gender

2. Age

3. Employment (hrs/week)

4. Number & ages of Children

5. Living on/off base

6. RAF rank

7. Number of military postings (in how many years)

8. Number of moves

9. When last move occurred (i.e. time in current location)

10. When next move is expected

Moving Experience

Most recent move

1. Nature of the move

   - How are moves usually organized?

   - How do you go about moving (e.g. move after spouse had begun new posting, etc.)?

2. How do you feel about moving?

   - Is it generally a good thing or a bad thing? Why?

   - If you had to rate moving a scale from 1 - 5, where 1 is hating it and 5 is loving it, how would you rate moving?

3. What are some of the changes that you experience as a result of moving?

   - With respect to the physical environmental (e.g. housing)

   - With respect to interpersonal relationships (e.g. friends, family)

   - With respect to working life (e.g. working environment, colleagues)

4. What do you see as some of the problems associated with moving? What makes moving difficult

   - For yourself (work and private domain)

   - For your family (school, work and private domain)

5. How do you overcome these difficulties? What do you do to cope with moving?

   - Before the move (preparation)

   - During the move (coping)

   - After the move (adjustment)

6. How do you think moves affect you?

   - Psychologically (e.g. well-being, quality of life, tension, anxiety, confidence)

   - Physically (e.g. health)

   - Behaviourally (e.g. exercise, diet, alcohol consumption)

   - Socially (e.g. friendships, relationships, activities)

   - practically (e.g. smaller house, lose job)

7. Which types of moving support does the RAF offer?

   - Do you use this support mechanism?

   - How helpful do you find this support on a scale from 1 - 5, where 1 is very poor and 5 is very good?

8. Which types of support does your family offer?

   - Do you use this support mechanism?

   - How helpful do you find this support?

9. What is the most difficult thing about moving?

10. What is the best thing about moving?

Section II : Questions used with Child Sample

Demographics

1. Gender

2. Age

3. How many times have you moved?

Moving Experience

Speaking about your last move

1. What was the move like, what happened?

2. What changed when you moved?

   - Physical environment; friends; school

3. Did you like moving?

   - Do you think it is a good thing or a bad thing?

   - Why?

4. What did you find hard about moving? What did you not like about moving?

5. What did you find easy? What did you like about moving?

6. How do you feel after the move?

   - In your heart and head (e.g. did you become sad or unhappy)

   - In your body (e.g. did you feel ill)

   - Did your behaviour change? (e.g. did you eat more/less; were you angry with other kids for no reason?)

   - Did your relationships change? (e.g. friendships)

   - Did anything practical change? (e.g. school)

7. Did anyone help you when you were moving?

8. Did anyone try to make moving easier for you?

9. What did they do to make the move easier for you?

10. What was the most difficult thing about moving?

11. What was the best thing about moving?

Appendix L : Original Coding Scheme

Background Information	Definition	Example
Demographic	Factors include: Gender, age, employment (hrs/week), number & ages of kids, living on/off base, RAF rank, number of military postings (in how many years), when last move occurred (i.e. time in current location), when next move is expected	N/A
Relocation Attitude	How they feel about moving on a scale from 1-5 (where 1 is hate it and 5 is love it)	I hate moving (1) I don't like moving (2) I don't mind (3) I enjoy moving (4) I love to move (5)
Quality of Last Move	Was the last move a good move? Refer to question ONE (answers can be good, neither good nor bad, bad)	It went smoothly (g) Same as always (n/n) It was terrible (b)
Personality Factors	Whether individuals express having (YES or NO) a personality that is conducive to moving or not (e.g. confidence, flexibility, extraversion, optimism, openness to experience)	I'm very outgoing, so that helps make it easier (y) I'm very inquisitive and love seeing new places (y) I'm very shy - moving is hard for me (n) I don't like change (n)
Nature of Posting	Are they going somewhere they want to go? (YES or NO)	I'm looking forward to it, I'll be closer to family (y); I don't want to move (n)
Community ties	Do they have strong ties are their current location?	People know me here (y); It's similar everywhere (n)
Familiarity with location	Have they been there before?	This is my second tour here (y); It will be my first time there (n)
Friends at location	Do they know anyone at the location?	I have friends there (y); I'll get there and not know anyone - I hate that (n)
Worst thing about moving	What is the most difficult thing about moving?	Response (first)
Best thing about moving	What is the best thing about moving?	Response (first)

Table L.1: Coding Scheme for Background Information

Change	Definition	Example
	Factors that change as a result of moving	
Location Factors	Reported differences between locations with regard to environmental factors (including distance from family)	It's a bit more rural, more isolated than I'm used to; I'm much further away from my family now.
Work Factors	Reported differences between the old and the new work environment; includes physical environment, actual job, and colleagues.	Work-wise? It's not as sociable as at the old place; I guide planes in now - before I used to fix them and get them ready for action.
Other Relocation-Related Factors (Change)	Includes all other factors related to relocation associated change.	
Other Non-Relocation Factors (Change)	Includes all other factors associated with change.	

Table L.2: Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Change"

Tasks	Definition	Example
Work-Related Tasks	Relocation tasks associated with the move from one job to another	
Administrative Tasks	Tasks related to the official relocation process (e.g. paperwork)	In the morning I had an arrivals meeting; I had to sign off base
Logistical Tasks	Tasks related to the planning and organisation of the relocation	I had a chat with my desk officer to find out where I was going; I called PSF
Physical Tasks	Tasks related to the actual physical move itself	I packed up my office; I downloaded the files I needed off my computer
Social / Psychological Tasks	Tasks related to the social / psychological aspects of the move	I said good-bye to the people at work; Get to know colleagues
Other Work-Related Tasks	Includes all other work-related tasks	
Personal Tasks	Relocation tasks associated with the move from one house to another	
Administrative Tasks	Tasks related to the administrative elements of the move for the RAFer and family	I had to find a new doctor; Had to do change the address on all of bills.
Logistical Tasks	Tasks related to the planning and organisation of the relocation	I called the removals firm to book the move; Had to get the people from storage to assess my goods
Physical Tasks	Tasks related to the actual physical move itself	I packed about 100 boxes; I lifted boxes & furniture; Decorated the house
Social / Psychological Tasks	Tasks related to the social / psychological aspects of the move	I had to say good-bye to people; I've gotta make friends
Other Personal Tasks	Includes all other personal tasks	
Other Tasks (Relocation)	Any other relocation associated task	
Other Tasks (Unrelated)	Any other task	

Table L.3: Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "New Tasks".

Difficulties	Definition	Example
Relocation Difficulties with the Posting	Practical / Logistical difficulties with the posting	On Monday they told me I'd be going to Chester. Tuesday I found out there'd been a mistake. Going to London instead. When I got there, they didn't have a post for me.
Relocation Difficulties with the Physical Move	Includes problems with the physical move from one location to another	We had a lot of breakages. We got there and the house was flooded!
Other Relocation Difficulties	Includes any other difficulties related to relocation. Includes concerns about health and schooling.	Once I got there I couldn't find work. Day care was a major problem.
Other Non-Relocation Difficulties	Includes any difficulties not related to relocation. Includes additional stressful life events such as family death, marriage, and pregnancy.	It wouldn't have been so bad but I was pregnant. My mother had just died and the last thing I wanted to do was move!

Table L.4: Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Difficulties"

Coping Method(Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al., 1986a)	Definition	Example
Problem-Focused Coping		
Confrontive coping	Aggressive efforts to alter the emotion. Suggests a degree of hostility and risk-taking	Tried to convince my desk officer to send me to...; Took it (school rejection) to appeal
Planful problem solving	Deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytic approach to solving the problem	Made a plan of action and followed it; Went up to ...and had a look around the area
Emotion-Focused Coping		
Distancing	Describes effects to detach oneself (ignore / avoid it). Theme: Creating positive outlook	I don't think about the move until it's about to happen; I don't do anything until the removers show up; I try to concentrate on the new place
Self-control	Efforts to regulate one's own feelings and actions	Tried to keep my feelings to myself; Just sat back and observed for the first little while
Accepting responsibility	Acknowledging one's own role. Theme: Trying to put things right	I mean, it's our fault the kids have to move; I try to focus on my family during the move
Positive reappraisal	Efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth. Has a religious tone.	I just try to look at the situation positively; I find out all the good things about the location
Escape-Avoidance	Wishful thinking and behavioural tendency to escape or avoid	Tried to make myself feel better by eating, drinking, smoking, etc.; Avoided being with people in general
Both Forms of Coping		
Seeking social support	Efforts to seek informational, tangible, and emotional support	Talked to someone to find out more about the area; Cried on my spouse's shoulder

Table L.5: Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Coping"

Outcomes (+/−)	Definition	Example
Personal	Any outcome (+/−) related to oneself	
Physical Outcomes	Positive or negative outcomes related to one's physical health.	I feel much healthier (+) I had a lot of back pain (−)
Psychological	Positive or negative outcomes related to one's psychological well-being (includes emotional states and attitudes; could be short or long-term effects)	I am stronger now (+); I was so depressed at the thought of leaving (−) I've matured a lot (+); I absolutely hated them for making us move (−)
Social	Positive or negative outcomes related to one's social well-being (based around friendship, romantic, and familial relationships). Includes work-family conflict (WFC).	I've met a lot of amazing people and have a better relationship with my family now (+) I don't have as many friends now (−)
Behavioural	Positive or negative outcomes related to one's behaviour (these could be short-term effects or long-term effects)	I just go up to people now and say "hello" (+) We screamed at each other a lot (−)
Practical	Positive or negative practical outcomes (includes things such as work, financial factors, and status changes)	When you first get there, you're motivated (+); Got promoted (+) & made money of allowance (+); You can't own a house (−) You wind down, you don't work as hard (−); I moved & then I got divorced (−) [Note: divorce is seen as a practical outcome BUT relationship deterioration would be a social outcome]
Familial		
Spouse	Positive or negative outcomes for spouses (can be personal or work-related)	She worked in a lot of different professions (+); He doesn't have anyone to talk to here (−)
Child(ren)	Positive or negative outcomes for children (can be personal or school-related)	He's seen a lot of parts of the United Kingdom (+); She doesn't settle in well at school - tantrums (−)
Extended	Positive or negative outcomes for extended family (personal)	They travel a lot more now (+); They don't see us anymore (−)
Additional (Relocation-related)	Any other positive or negative outcomes arising from relocation	
Additional (Relocation unrelated)	Any other positive or negative outcomes (e.g. arising from RAF life)	Safety lies behind the wire (+); You get told what to wear and when to eat (−)

Table L.6: Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Outcomes"

Support	Definition	Example
RAF Support	Support provided by the RAF (directly, e.g. by means of policy, or indirectly, e.g. informally provided by other RAFers)	
Logistical Support	Support provided by the RAF that helps individuals in the actual planning and execution of the move	Well, they give you this document that lays out the whole moving process for you. You just gotta do it.
Administrative Support	Support with the administrative (paperwork) side of the move from the RAF.	I got to PSF, you know, and they give me all the right forms and help me fill them in.
Physical Support	Support from RAF with the actual physical move itself (anything provided by the RAF that makes the physical move easier)	They pay for a full removal service; We can go over and pick up boxes and packing materials.
Financial Support	RAF support with the financial cost of moving; e.g. RAF allowances	We get a disturbance allowance to help us pay for things after we move.
Informational Support	RAF support provided through the provision of information regarding the move itself, the new job, and/or the new location.	They send you a station handbook, with all sorts of details about the new unit.
Social/Emotional Support	RAF support aimed at addressing social/ emotional issues	There are always coffee mornings - where you can go introduce yourself.
Other Support	Any other support provided by the RAF. Includes unofficial support from uniformed RAFers such as bosses & colleagues.	My boss was really great. Sent me home early the first three days so I could start unpacking.
Social Support	Support provided by friends, family, or strangers	
Logistical Support	Helps individuals in the planning and execution of the move	My mum used to move - she taught me just how to do it. They take the kids.
Administrative Support	Support with the administrative (paperwork) side of the move	My brother is an accountant; he sorts that out for me.
Physical Support	Support with the actual physical move itself	My sister comes up and helps me clean. I like that!
Financial Support	Support with the financial cost of moving	My father lends us money so we can fight off the extra cost.
Informational Support	The provision of information regarding the move, the new job, and/or the new location	They send you a station handbook, with all sorts of details about the new unit.
Social/Emotional Support	Support aimed at addressing social/ emotional issues	I can call her and cry my little heart out.
Other Support	Any other support provided by friends, family, or strangers	

Table L.7: Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Support"

Appendix M : Sample Transcript

Demographics

Demographic information will be excluded from this transcript excerpt since information is fairly detailed and may eventually lead to the identification of the individual. This poses an unacceptable risk to anonymity and confidentially, and the information presented here has thus been cropped to preserve the rights of the interviewee.

Moving Experience (Excerpt Only)

Interview	Code
Interviewer: Okay. Right. Now if you think about the different places you've been to - if you think about the physical environment how have they differed from each other?	
Respondent: The two extremes I suppose. One would be Northern Ireland. I did three years at RAF Aldergrove where it was during the sort of the height of the troubles so you weren't allowed to use public transport, you're not allowed into certain areas of the province, you're not allowed... If you went to other areas you've got to be back on camp, you've got to sign out of camp and all the security restrictions.	Theme = Change; Category = Location Factors; Item(s) = Security / Restrictions
And the family was with me there so they endured that as well. So I suppose that's one extreme.	Theme = Change; Category = Other Factors; Subcategory = Relocation-Related; Item(s) = Family Presence
There's other ones like RAF..., which was great, seaside sort of place. Other facilities. Nice countryside, lots of things to do. Good school. Pleasure to be there. Must admit a big chunk of the time been in this area - RAF..., big camp, lots of facilities, lots going on. Nice places, yea, good place to be. So, I mean, in general they're okay. This camp's a bit poor, facilities are poor, standard of housing I know is not great, and standard of accommodation for our lads isn't good. So I wouldn't like to think I was stuck in here though. Or being posted here and being stuck a long time.	Theme = Change; Category = Location Factors; Item(s) = Quality of camp, countryside, facilities, activities, size of camp, standard of accommodation

Interview	Code
Interviewer: If you think about your personal relationships - relationships with friends and family - how have they been affected by moving?	
Respondent: I suppose for me I've kept a couple of friends that we've had before I joined up in Yorkshire. And they've stayed family friends. But they were well-established friendships before I joined up. It's not difficult but you have to work out, it would be easy to be away for two years and not to see people and just drift away.	Theme = Outcome; Category = Social; Item(s) = Distance from friends, seeing friends, losing friends
There's a couple of good friends that I've made in the services and I've been friends with those for sort of sixteens years plus now. And we've kept those friendships going but for most of the time you tend to make acquaintances. So your friends for a couple of years, then you drift off and you don't see anybody for another five or six years. But, you know, the key relationships we've formed have stayed. It, you see a lot of people that make acquaintances, they don't make real friends because every two years you move.	Theme = Outcome; Category = Social; Item(s) = Temporary / transient friendships, losing friends
And in terms of my family, my sons have all grown up this area and all their friends are here. And it's fairly key for them that we live here now to a certain degree. So that's about it really. My wife's got work here she enjoys, she's got friends around here now...	Theme = Change; Category = Other Factors; Subcategory = Relocation-Related; Item(s) = Community tenure / attachment to area
At this point in my life it becomes important for friendships because the older you get the harder it's gunna become.	Theme = Change; Category = Other Factors; Subcategory = Relocation-UR; Item(s) = Stage in lifecycle / age
Interviewer: Okay, that's fine. What do you see as some of the problems associated with moving? For yourself personally, what makes moving difficult?	
Respondent: Key things now are ... I'm 48, I can't afford to be out of the housing market now. I can't afford to say: "Right, I'm going to leave the housing market for two years." So I think the best way to illustrate it would be to give an example.	Theme = Change; Category = Other Factors; Subcategory = Relocation-UR; Item(s) = Stage in lifecycle / age
If I were posted to say Headquarter Strike Command (HQSTC) High Wycombe, a three/four bedroomed semi there whatever would cost 250,000/270,000 pounds. My house in Shropshire would be a 150,000. I can't afford to buy down South. I don't want to live down South so I wouldn't move their permanently. I can't afford to buy there	Theme = Change; Category = Location Factor; Item(s) = Cost of living

Interview	Code
I don't want to live there, so I would have to go into quarters or I could live apart from my wife for another two / three years.	Theme = Outcome; Category = Practical; Item(s) = Separated service Theme = Change; Category = Location Factor; Item(s) = Type of accommodation (quarters vs. private home)
So I can't afford to buy there, I don't want to live there	Theme = Outcome; Category = Practical; Item(s) = Separated service
- so I've got a choice of either going into a quarter. If I go into a quarter	Theme = Change; Category = Location Factor; Item(s) = Type of accommodation (quarters vs. private home)
and take my wife with me, she has to pack her job in and find another one. We either have to rent the house out, so you come to a point if she can't get a job straight away and we don't rent the house straight away, I've got a mortgage that needs to be paid so the move has instantly cost me - whatever - about 500 pounds a month plus or whatever it costs to rent the quarter. So I'm suddenly 500 pounds down just because the Air Force want me to move to High Wycombe and that is a big difficulty for people those days. So it would have been more of an up.	Theme = Change; Category = Location Factor; Item(s) = Ability to find employment (area affluence) Theme = Change; Category = Other Factors; Subcategory = Relocation-Related; Item(s) = Ability to rent house Theme = Outcome; Category = Practical; Item(s) = Spousal employment (lost), increased financial cost Theme = Tasks; Subcategory = Location Factor; Item(s) = Rent out house, seek spousal employment
If I got posted in that sort of manner the chances are I'd say: "No, I have to go and live in the Mess and leave my wife."	Theme = Outcome; Category = Practical; Item(s) = Refuse posting
So that instantly puts, not a strain, well it does put a strain on. It's a difficult...	Theme = Outcome; Category = Psychological; Item(s) = Strain

Interview	Code
because my sons are away	Theme = Change; Category = Other Factors; Subcategory = Relocation-UR; Item(s) = Children in household
so my wife's in a house by herself all week.	Theme = Outcome; Category = Spousal Outcome; Item(s) = Separation
And you've got the ludicrous position where I'm a Mess by myself all week and my wife's in a house by herself all week. So, yes, it does make it very difficult, very difficult.	Theme = Outcome; Category = Practical; Item(s) = Separated service Theme = Outcome; Category = Familial Outcome; Subcategory = Spousal Outcome; Item(s) = Separation
Interviewer: What about when you get to your new place - do you act any differently for the first three months after getting somewhere than you would normally?	
Respondent: I suppose you do, yea. It's new, isn't it? And it's like starting any new job. So quite often, I mean, I suppose it's two things - you're either really excited at a new job,	Theme = Outcome; Category = Psychological; Item(s) = Excitement
so you know you're like: "Right, this is it, I'm gunna do it all properly and I'm going to ..." And you either do that and maintain it but quite often I think you slip back into your old ways, whatever you do.	Theme = Outcome; Category = Behavioural; Item(s) = Increased effort at work
Or you're gunna go to a job and it's gunna be a par job and it's not interesting	Theme = Change; Category = Work Factors; Item(s) = Job type
It's very easy then in those first three months to slide in a cycle of lethargy because there's nothing to inspire you, the job isn't good. And this is what I mean, part of it is that you have ...	Theme = Outcome; Category = Behavioural; Item(s) = Decreased effort at work
I think as you get older, I don't know, I want more control. The difference between myself and my lads is that I want more control over my life, you know? I want to be able to make decisions whereas they're quite happy to shift along. It must something about being young. They ride the ups and downs all better than I do now.	Theme = Change; Category = Other Factors; Subcategory = Relocation-UR; Item(s) = Age
So, yes, when you're moving I think if it isn't a good move that can have long-term consequences in terms of your attitude.	Theme = Outcome; Category = Psychological; Item(s) = Attitude

Interview	Code
But I definitely want more control now and I actually think I've probably got less control now than when I first joined because it seems to be less consultation, more fire-fighting in terms of where you get posted. And that's definitively.	Theme = Change; Category = Other Factors; Subcategory = Relocation-UR; Item(s) = Policy changes
I mean, I'm coming up to - my tour review date is March so I'll start negotiating with my desk where I'm gunna go next. And, yea, I'm already concerned about what he's gunna try and where he's gunna try and post me. So that does cloud my view slightly of because I ...	Theme = Coping; Category = Problem-Focused; Subcategory = Confrontive; Item(s) = Negotiate w desk officer
So my behaviour before and after, I suppose it is different. It's different on the type of job that you're going to	Theme = Change; Category = Work Factors; Item(s) = Job type
and it's different on the stage of life you're at. It does affect you.	Theme = Change; Category = Other Factors; Subcategory = Relocation-UR; Item(s) = Stage in lifecycle / age
And you can see people winding down from jobs - you can see they're getting ship happy, that they're gunna jump ship. And the last few months, although they say they're firing on all cylinders, they're not, they've got an eye on the new job. So if they're only there for two years you only get one year and nine months work out of them.	Theme = Outcome; Category = Behavioural; Item(s) = Decreased effort at work

Appendix N : Coding Scheme
Adapted for Inter-Rater Reliability

Demographics	Description	Coding Categories
Gender	Demographic Factor	Male
		Female
Age (in years)	Demographic Factor	0-80 years
Employment (hours per week)	Demographic Factor	0
		1-5
		6-10
		11-15
		16-20
		21-25
		26-30
		20-35
		36-40
		41+
Children	Demographic Factor	0-5 children
Children (home)	Demographic Factor	0-5 children
Children (school)	Demographic Factor	0-5 children
Living on/off base	Demographic Factor	On base (wire)
		Off base (patch)
		Off base (excess rent/hirings)
		Off base (owned)
		Off base (rented)
		Boarding School
		Other
RAF rank	Demographic Factor	Commissioned Officer
		Non-commissioned
		Officer Airman
Military postings	Demographic Factor	0-25 moves

Demographics	Description	Coding Categories
Military moves	Demographic Factor	0-25 moves
Military years	Demographic Factor	0-30 years
Last move	Demographic Factor	0-3 months
		4-6 months
		7-12 months
		13-18 months
		19-24 months
		25+ months
Next move	Demographic Factor	0-6 months
		6-12 months
		13-18 months
		19-24 months
		25+ months
Relocation Attitude	How they feel about moving on a scale from 1-5 (where 1 is hate it and 5 is love it)	I hate moving (1)
		I don't like moving (2)
		I don't mind (3)
		I enjoy moving (4)
		I love to move (5)
Quality of Last Move	Was the last move a good move? Refer to question ONE (answers can be 1-5)	Worst move (1)
		Bad move (2)
		Neither good/nor bad (3)
		Good move (4)
		Best move (5)
Personality Factors	Whether individuals express having (YES or NO) a personality that is conducive to moving or not (e.g. confidence, flexibility, extraversion, optimism, openness)	Yes
		No
Nature of Posting	Are they going somewhere they want to go? (YES or NO)	Yes
		No
Community ties	Do they have ties at their current location?	Yes
		No
Familiarity with location	Have they been there before?	Yes
		No
Friends at location	Do they know anyone at the location?	Yes
		No
Worst thing	What is the hardest thing about moving?	First Response
Best thing	What is the best thing about moving?	First Response

Table N.1: IRR Coding Scheme for Background Information

Change	Definition	Example
	Factors that change as a result of moving	No change (1) Minor change (2) Moderate change (3) Major change (4) Total change (5)
Location Factors	Reported differences between locations with regard to environmental factors (including distance from family).	
Work Factors	Reported differences between the old and the new work environment; includes physical environment, actual job, and colleagues.	
Other Relocation-Related Factors	Includes all other factors related to relocation associated change.	
Other Non-Relocation Factors	Includes all other factors associated with change.	

Table N.2: IRR Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Change"

Tasks	Definition	Example
Work-Related Tasks	Relocation tasks associated with the move from one job to another	No tasks (1) Minor tasks (2) Moderate tasks (3) Major tasks (4) Overwhelming tasks (5)
Administrative Tasks	Tasks related to the official relocation process (e.g. paperwork)	
Logistical Tasks	Tasks related to the planning and organisation of the relocation	
Physical Tasks	Tasks related to the actual physical move itself	
Social / Psychological Tasks	Tasks related to the social / psychological aspects of the move	
Other Work-Related Tasks	Includes all other work-related tasks	
Personal Tasks	Relocation tasks associated with the move from one house to another	
Administrative Tasks	Tasks related to the administrative elements of the move for the RAFer and family	
Logistical Tasks	Tasks related to the planning and organisation of the relocation	
Physical Tasks	Tasks related to the actual physical move itself	
Social / Psychological Tasks	Tasks related to the social / psychological aspects of the move	
Other Personal Tasks	Includes all other personal tasks	
Other Tasks (Relocation)	Any other relocation associated task	
Other Tasks (Unrelated)	Any other task	

Table N.3: IRR Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Tasks"

Relocation Difficulties	Definition	Example
Relocation Difficulties with the Posting	Practical / Logistical difficulties with the posting	No difficulties (1) Minor difficulties (2) Moderate difficulties (3) Major difficulties (4) Overwhelming diffs (5)
Relocation Difficulties with the Physical Move	Includes problems with the physical move from one location to another	No difficulties (1) Minor difficulties (2) Moderate difficulties (3) Major difficulties (4) Overwhelming diffs (5)
Other Relocation Difficulties	Includes any other difficulties related to relocation. Includes concerns about health and schooling.	No difficulties (1) Minor difficulties (2) Moderate difficulties (3) Major difficulties (4) Overwhelming diffs (5)
Other Non-Relocation Difficulties	Includes any difficulties not related to relocation. Includes additional stressful life events such as family death, marriage, and pregnancy.	No difficulties (1) Minor difficulties (2) Moderate difficulties (3) Major difficulties (4) Overwhelming diffs (5)

Table N.4: IRR Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Difficulties"

Coping Method (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Folkman et al., 1986a)	Definition	Example
Problem-Focused Coping		No coping (1) Some coping (2) Moderate coping (3) Major coping (4) Complete coping (5) * Depends upon number of coding mechanisms of each type employed
Confrontive coping	Aggressive efforts to alter the emotion. Suggests a degree of hostility and risk-taking	
Planful problem solving	Deliberate problem-focused efforts to alter the situation, coupled with an analytic approach to solving the problem	
Emotion-Focused Coping		
Distancing	Describes effects to detach oneself (ignore / avoid it). Theme: Creating positive outlook	
Self-control	Efforts to regulate one's own feelings and actions	
Accepting responsibility	Acknowledging one's own role. Theme: Trying to put things right	
Positive reappraisal	Efforts to create positive meaning by focusing on personal growth. Has a religious tone.	
Escape-Avoidance	Wishful thinking and behavioural tendency to escape or avoid	
Both Forms of Coping		
Seeking social support	Efforts to seek informational, tangible, and emotional support	

Table N.5: IRR Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Coping"

Outcomes	Definition	Example
Personal	Any outcome (+/-) related to oneself	No effect (1) Mild effect - one minor effect (2) Moderate effect - several minor (3) Strong effect - one major effect (4) Full effect - several major & minor (5)
Physical Outcomes	Positive or negative outcomes related to one's physical health.	
Psychological	Positive or negative outcomes related to one's psychological well-being (includes emotional states and attitudes; could be short or long-term effects)	
Social	Positive or negative outcomes related to one's social well-being (based around friendship, romantic, and familial relationships). Includes work-family conflict (WFC).	
Behavioural	Positive or negative outcomes related to one's behaviour (these could be short-term effects or long-term effects)	
Practical	Positive or negative practical outcomes (includes things such as work, financial factors, and status changes)	
Familial		
Spouse	Positive or negative outcomes for spouses (can be personal or work-related)	
Child(ren)	Positive or negative outcomes for children (can be personal or school-related)	
Extended	Positive or negative outcomes for extended family (personal)	
Additional (Relocation-related)	Any other positive or negative outcomes arising from relocation	
Additional (Relocation unrelated)	Any other positive or negative outcomes (e.g. arising from RAF life)	

Table N.6: IRR Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Outcomes"

Support	Definition	Example
RAF Support	Support provided by the RAF (directly, e.g. by means of policy, or indirectly, e.g. informally provided by other RAFers)	No support (1) Some support (2) Moderate support (3) Good support (4) Ideal support (5)
Logistical Support	Support provided by the RAF that helps individuals in the actual planning and execution of the move	
Administrative Support	Support with the administrative (paperwork) side of the move from the RAF.	
Physical Support	Support from RAF with the actual physical move itself (anything provided by the RAF that makes the physical move easier)	
Financial Support	RAF support with the financial cost of moving; e.g. RAF allowances	
Informational Support	RAF support provided through the provision of information regarding the move itself, the new job, and/or the new location.	
Social/Emotional Support	RAF support aimed at addressing social/ emotional issues	
Other Support	Any other support provided by the RAF. Includes unofficial support from uniformed RAFers such as bosses & colleagues.	
Social Support	Support provided by friends, family, or strangers	
Logistical Support	Helps individuals in the planning and execution of the move	
Administrative Support	Support with the administrative (paperwork) side of the move	
Physical Support	Support with the actual physical move itself	
Financial Support	Support with the financial cost of moving	
Informational Support	The provision of information regarding the move, the new job, and/or the new location	
Social/Emotional Support	Support aimed at addressing social/ emotional issues	
Other Support	Any other support provided by friends, family, or strangers	

Table N.7: IRR Coding Scheme for Thematic Category "Support"

Appendix O : Frequency Distribution Tables

Changes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Location Factors	**14**	**28**	**32**	**33**
Abroad vs. UK	4	9	23	13
Vegetation / scenery	4	4	4	9
Weather & climate	2	1	2	4
Cost & standard of living (including the affluence of an area and ability to find work)	1	2	9	10
Facilities	10	9	13	22
Activities	4	4	0	3
School size	4	0	0	0
Degree of isolation (central vs. remote; distance from city)	2	20	20	26
Communication links (bus, roads, motorway)	2	6	8	6
Crime	0	0	1	1
Water quality	0	0	0	1
Familiarity with location (been stationed there before; family lives there)	2	4	9	5
Already been to unit	1	0	3	2
Community ties (e.g. number of friendships)	4	7	3	4
Already know people at location	1	14	13	11
Distance from family / home	1	9	19	17
Distance from school	5	0	1	4
Quality of Mess / food	0	1	3	0
Wire / no wire (pass; safety; distance of married patch from unit; on vs. off base)	4	4	7	10
Accommodation (general)	0	4	0	2
Size of accommodation	8	6	7	16
Accommodation quality	0	12	17	20

APPENDIX O. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLES

Changes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
House features (garage; fence; parking; carpet; garden; showers; double-glazing)	7	2	4	9
Work Factors	**0**	**28**	**32**	**28**
Working / not working (giving up work)	0	0	0	13
Job type (new job)	0	25	30	18
Workload / hours	0	8	12	4
Career status / advancement / promotion	0	1	0	13
Working environment	0	4	9	2
Size of unit / section	0	6	7	0
Time away (deployments etc)	0	2	13	0
Job satisfaction	0	0	1	0
Ethos (respect; freedom; local rules)	0	11	9	0
Friendliness (getting along)	0	5	9	1
Relocation-Related	**1**	**27**	**33**	**30**
Community tenure (posting length; moving frequency)	0	6	18	15
Type of service (Army vs. RAF; regimental)	0	0	2	0
Difficulty of move / stress	1	3	12	14
Quality of removals	1	2	9	0
Quality / amount of support	0	4	14	18
Whether one wants to move (unfavourable location; other reasons)	0	8	21	16
Reason for moving (e.g. last tour, medical grounds, unit move, requested, new house, training, promotion)	0	7	12	8
Expectations	0	0	1	0
Timing of move (holidays; term; weather)	0	4	11	14
Amount of Notice	0	9	8	17
Distance moved	0	4	5	8
Whether one has to train	0	14	8	1
Commuting	0	12	20	10
Separation	0	4	19	12
Type of accommodation (whether one is moving into a house, quarter, Block, excess rent etc)	0	7	13	14
Amount of moving experience	0	5	10	15
Moving efficiency	0	0	1	0
Relocation-Unrelated	**0**	**26**	**33**	**33**
Age / maturity (self)	0	5	14	9
Rank (organisational tenure)	0	4	11	7
Trade branch (admin / aircon)	0	0	10	5
Health status (incl. disability)	0	0	4	8

Changes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Military experience (self previously - e.g. forces child; spouse - e.g. forces child; brother in forces etc.)	0	1	16	14
Moving experience (self previously - e.g. preacher's child / boarding; spouse - e.g. mobile family)	0	2	8	9
Personality (calm vs. nervous; outgoing; confidence)	0	9	22	17
Attitude	0	0	4	0
Romantic relationship (yes / no)	0	11	1	0
Marital status & tenure	0	8	10	4
Family relationship (emotional closeness)	0	1	5	8
Spousal support (whether / degree)	0	0	13	2
Spousal employment (yes / no; type)	0	0	15	11
Children & their age (including pregnancy)	0	12	27	29
Pets	0	1	3	2
Parental age / health	0	1	7	7
Skills (e.g. used to travelling; able to move; memory)	0	1	3	1
Driver's licence	0	4	0	5
Accommodation (military vs. private)	0	6	10	6
Amount of possessions	0	8	8	2
Generational changes / expectations / desires	0	1	0	1
Place in career lifecycle (near end of career?)	0	0	11	2
Policy changes	0	3	5	7

Table O.1: Relocation Associated Change Mentioned in Interviews

APPENDIX O. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLES

Tasks	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
WORK-RELATED (C - 0, RS - 26, RF - 25, S - 5)				
Logistical	**0**	**18**	**21**	**30**
Gather location information (area information, orientation, directions)	0	7	9	18
Plan / organise Move	0	9	10	22
Notify PSF	0	0	1	3
Arrange removals & storage	0	2	7	17
Supervise / coordinate removals (including looking after them; give tea & food)	0	0	1	5
Arrange childcare	0	2	1	4
Arrange transport (goods)	0	8	3	2
Arrange cleaning	0	0	0	1
Arrange hotel / temporary accommodation	0	1	0	2
Find a house	0	1	0	0
Buy new things / furniture	0	2	2	0
Administrative	**5**	**21**	**30**	**32**
Paperwork	0	4	7	12
Get car pass	0	2	2	1
Accommodation	0	16	11	10
Quarter handover (march in & march out)	0	1	10	12
Buy / sell house	0	1	4	6
Apply for allowances	0	2	1	0
Get removal insurance	0	2	4	1
Change address	1	3	12	14
Forward mail	0	1	2	2
Find a job (spouse)	0	0	14	10
Find a new school	3	2	13	21
Find childcare	0	1	5	3
Locate specialist (doctor, dentist, educator)	0	0	5	17
Find new activities, clubs, churches	1	0	0	3
Physical	**7**	**29**	**30**	**32**
Pack & unpack	5	22	23	28
Move belonging (load car)	1	18	13	3
Arrange house (hang up pictures; move furniture)	2	8	6	12
Run down fridge	0	0	0	4
Sort out / clear out	1	7	6	14
Clean	1	5	13	21
Re(decorate): remove all visible traces; make home	0	0	5	5
Reconnect appliances / phones	0	0	2	1

Tasks	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Travel	0	0	5	5
Social / Emotional	**5**	**15**	**20**	**13**
Saying good-bye	1	4	6	8
Making new friends	2	13	8	0
Starting again	0	1	2	0
Adjusting / settling in	1	5	11	6
Establishing routine	0	0	1	3
Learning localisms	0	0	2	0
Other	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
PERSONAL (C - 11, RS - 29, RF - 33, S - 33)				
Logistical	**0**	**8**	**3**	**2**
Gather job information (co-ordinate with receiving unit)	0	6	3	0
Take info / download files	0	2	0	0
Job agency	0	0	0	1
Write CV	0	0	0	1
Administrative	**0**	**22**	**20**	**2**
Action Paperwork	0	7	5	1
Handover / takeover	0	12	9	0
Tie up (Post)	0	3	0	0
Clear station	0	4	2	0
Arrivals	0	14	7	0
Apply / selection process	0	1	2	1
Physical	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Social / Emotional	**0**	**21**	**17**	**1**
Training	0	14	9	1
Learning (re: work; "isms")	0	11	11	0
Adjust to work	0	0	2	0
(Re)build work relationships	0	9	8	0
Establish self	0	1	0	0
Other	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Other Relocation-Related Tasks	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**
Other Relocation-Unrelated Tasks	**0**	**0**	**0**	**0**

Table O.2: New Tasks Associated with Relocation Mentioned in Interviews

APPENDIX O. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLES

Relocation Difficulties	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Posting	**2**	**19**	**24**	**24**
Not enough information (family; outdated)	0	5	6	13
Not enough notice	0	7	6	15
Too much notice (worry)	0	0	0	1
No input	2	3	2	0
Postings are too short	0	3	1	2
Posting unwanted / bad location	0	3	4	1
Changes to posting (timing, location, length)	0	5	11	9
Gapped Post (temporarily empty)	0	3	2	0
Being in a surplus post	0	1	4	1
Unqualified for post	0	1	0	0
Unclaimed (unclear which post / section)	0	2	0	0
No (or poor) handover	0	3	3	0
No co-posting	0	2	2	0
Physical Move	**5**	**26**	**28**	**28**
No time off (additional leave)	0	7	8	8
Bad timing (GCSE, Xmas)	0	2	3	0
Poor moving companies (poor packing)	0	1	6	8
Breakages / losses (including things left behind; goods being tampered with)	3	5	12	6
Late deliveries / delays (poor shipping)	0	5	4	3
Bureaucracy (technicalities)	0	1	3	2
Paperwork problems (delayed; can't sign)	0	2	2	4
Move before family / move without spouse	0	1	6	12
No support: Singleys	0	16	2	0
No support: Families	0	0	4	2
No support: Working wives	0	0	2	0
No support: Pets	0	0	0	1
No support: Emotional	0	1	3	1
No support: Own home	0	1	2	0
No support: 1st posting	0	1	0	1
Support: One size fits all	0	2	0	0
Unaware of support	0	0	1	1
Insurance (not paid / out)	0	0	1	3
Smaller quarter	1	2	2	3
Poor quality / needs repair	2	3	10	6
Not clean	0	3	2	2
Not available (or on time)	0	9	9	8
Poor communication (DHE)	0	1	1	4

Relocation Difficulties	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Can't have it longer/earlier	0	1	0	0
Allocated late	0	1	1	5
Other: Relocation-Related	**0**	**13**	**14**	**12**
Block / Mess Life (inappropriate/constrained)	0	9	2	2
No community	0	3	3	5
Hear say / patch rumour (re: post & location)	0	1	0	3
Services / standards differ	0	1	2	5
RAF shrinking (less bases, travel, locations)	0	1	8	1
Unfair treatment: People moved ahead/halted	0	1	1	0
Continuous work assessment (no post-move recovery period)	0	1	1	0
Rank differentiation (relocation allowance)	0	1	0	2
Other: Relocation-Unrelated	**0**	**9**	**20**	**11**
Deployment / detachment	0	9	19	10
Courses / education (Sep.)	0	1	1	1
Coercion / pressure	0	0	1	4
Service dependency	0	0	2	0
Restructuring / drawdown	0	0	8	0
Civilianisation of posts	0	1	0	0
Undermanned	0	1	1	0
Not recognise partnerships (or divorcees)	0	5	1	0
High pressure job / competition	0	2	0	1
Alcohol culture	0	1	2	3
Medicalisation of problems	0	0	1	0
Military / security constraints	0	0	4	0
Isolated locations	2	20	20	26
Serious life events (death, illness, divorce, elderly parents, redundancies, eviction)	0	6	5	5

Table O.3: Relocation Difficulties Mentioned in Interviews

APPENDIX O. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLES

Coping	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Emotion-Focused Coping (C - 9, RS - 29, RF - 33, S - 32)				
Self-Control *Regulate own feelings*	**1**	**14**	**12**	**6**
Put up a front (happiness; project confidence)	1	0	1	4
Sit back & observe (keep self to self; careful)	0	13	12	3
Don't bring work home	0	0	1	0
Don't bring home to work	0	2	0	0
Distancing *Detach oneself & minimise significance*	**0**	**12**	**14**	**21**
Deny effect (I'm used to it; it has no effect)	0	6	7	7
Reduce significance (not important; everywhere is same; they'll cope; I adapt)	0	3	3	7
Temporise effect (it's not forever; meet again)	0	2	3	2
Emotional hardening / detachment ("get on")	0	5	6	8
Justify effect / relocation (happens anywhere)	0	0	0	2
Accepting Responsibility *Acknowledge own role & try to "put it right"*	**0**	**17**	**20**	**22**
Accept / expect it as part of RAF role	0	15	16	17
"It's my own decision" (volunteer; ask to go)	0	0	4	3
"Self-imposed" (e.g. pets, commuting, house)	0	1	5	4
Deal with it alone	0	5	3	1
Mentally prepare	0	2	1	1
Positive Reappraisal *Create positive meaning; personal growth*	**2**	**13**	**21**	**18**
Highlight general advantages (e.g. new places)	0	1	1	1
Able to learn / grow	0	1	1	2
Less family time but quality time	0	3	2	0
Able to "live for the moment"	0	1	0	0
Opportunity to start again (reshape self)	0	2	1	1
Positive attitude (be positive; build move up)	0	6	11	14
"Everywhere has good parts"	0	0	9	13
Be open-minded	0	1	0	2
"Change is good" (I get bored; excitement)	2	4	5	0
"We're lucky" (look after our own)	0	0	1	1
Escape-Avoidance *Behaviour to escape problem; Wishful thinking*	**7**	**18**	**18**	**25**
Leave setting (leave; go on holiday; eat out)	0	2	5	10
Withdraw	0	14	9	8
Don't think about it	0	4	2	4

APPENDIX O. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLES

Coping	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Focus on work, house/play (throw self into it)	1	1	0	6
Cut ties / avoid new friends / avoid occasions	0	0	4	6
Avoid people you don't like	0	0	1	0
Keep military & private life separate	0	1	1	1
Distract children / do not let them witness it	6	0	2	13
Let packers to all the work	0	1	1	11
Use cleaning service	0	0	3	4
Problem-Focused Coping (C - 8, RS - 27, RF - 32, S - 32)				
Confrontive Coping *Aggressive efforts to alter situation; hostility & risk-taking*	5	21	28	30
Private dentist	0	0	0	1
Get removal company (not paid by RAF)	0	0	0	2
Store things	0	0	0	1
Don't move bank	0	0	0	1
Make changes at work	0	0	1	0
Additional effort in relationships	0	2	2	0
Ring around / gather info	0	9	2	2
Discussions with desk officer	0	0	5	0
Complain / challenge (e.g. appeals / DHE)	0	1	3	9
Visit area / house / work	4	3	17	16
Explore area	2	9	12	14
Unpack in order (beds; mirror kid's bedrooms)	0	0	3	8
Unpack quickly	0	0	4	18
"Make it home" (refit / restructure)	0	1	2	5
Buy new furniture	0	1	0	0
Help / look after packers	0	0	3	7
"Fire fighting" (deal with it as it arises)	0	0	0	1
Throw away / sort out	0	6	3	5
Stop working / retrain	0	0	2	5
Planful Problem-Solving *Try to alter the situation; Analytical approach*	6	26	32	29
Research area / gather info	1	6	13	20
Prepare (pack, organise, move things ahead; make lists, note content, plan ahead)	0	20	23	26
Phone ahead	0	2	5	2
Take leave	0	5	10	4
Not move	0	3	11	3
Buy house: Live in own accommodation	0	8	14	7

Coping	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Commute	0	13	21	11
Boarding school	6	0	10	6
Leave RAF (come out early)	0	1	11	1
Both Forms of Coping (C - 6, RS - 27, RF - 30, S - 33)				
Seeking Social Support *Seeking out info, tangible or emotional support*	**6**	**27**	**30**	**33**
Saying good-bye (party)	0	3	1	1
Friends / family take children	0	2	9	20
Partner helps with the relocation-related work	0	2	8	14
Help from friends / family	0	12	14	25
Staying in touch	4	11	14	14
Visit	1	4	1	10
Go out and meet people (get yourself known)	0	16	13	17
Ask people questions	0	11	0	0
Family discussions & support	1	0	17	15

Table O.4: Ways of Coping with Relocation Mentioned in Interviews

Outcomes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
PERSONAL				
PHYSICAL				
Negative	**1**	**2**	**3**	**9**
Sleeplessness / insomnia	1	0	0	1
Exhaustion	0	2	2	6
Weight gain	0	0	0	2
Lack of medial support / continuity	0	0	0	1
Miscarriage	0	0	0	1
Stress-related illness	0	0	0	1
Moving injuries (broken arm)	0	0	1	0
Poor health	0	0	1	0
Positive	**0**	**5**	**1**	**2**
More health checks	0	0	0	1
Increased exercise (encouraged, facilities)	0	4	1	1
Better health	0	1	0	0
PSYCHOLOGICAL				
Negative	**12**	**27**	**33**	**32**
Depression	1	4	3	11
Sadness	8	7	14	17
Nervous / worried	2	0	19	20
Stress	1	13	24	24
Lack of permanence (no roots or stability)	1	6	16	15
Discomfort	1	0	1	0
"Itchy feet"	2	5	15	9
Insecurity / lack of confidence	1	8	4	9
Frustration	2	1	0	3
Having to "start again"	1	10	9	11
Upheaval	0	0	1	4
Feel "shut out"	1	0	0	0
Confusion	1	0	0	0
Adjustment period	2	8	8	12
Unknown / uncertainty	1	9	8	16
Lack of control	1	5	6	6
Overwhelmed / information overload	1	0	2	2
Guilt	0	3	4	4
Exuberating existing psych conditions	0	0	0	1
Institutionalisation (live & breathe RAF)	0	3	3	1
Military mindset (different from civilians)	0	4	9	0

Outcomes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Relocation fatigue: Dislike moving & not wanting to move (at all or as much)	1	3	11	6
Quality of life	0	4	2	2
"Invasive experience"	0	0	1	0
Fear / panic	1	3	2	5
Isolation / loneliness	1	3	8	12
Pressure	0	0	4	1
Anger	1	1	0	8
Emotional hardening	0	0	5	3
Preoccupation with mobility (just wanting to go / focus on it too much)	0	3	8	13
Moody	0	1	0	3
Not invest in location / home / live for today	0	2	6	5
Disappointment	0	0	5	1
Emotional dependence	0	0	1	0
Positive	**12**	**28**	**33**	**28**
Excitement / avoid boredom / interesting	11	10	15	19
Change	1	1	4	9
Tigger / honeymoon period	0	0	2	0
Rewarding	0	0	4	0
Challenge	0	9	15	6
Confidence (personal & work-related)	0	17	7	13
Self-discovery	0	3	0	0
Growth / broadening	0	7	3	5
Openness	0	3	1	2
Resilience / personal strength	0	3	3	2
Independence	0	4	0	3
Learn / Gain knowledge	0	11	7	0
Learn to move (get better / lose anxiety)	1	2	11	10
Gain skills	0	0	0	1
Able to learn quickly	0	0	3	0
Become more organised	0	1	2	0
Maturity	0	4	2	0
Stay young / active / alert	0	3	0	2
More capable	0	3	2	0
Flexible / adaptable	0	4	3	3
New start / clean slate	1	8	5	4
Personal satisfaction	0	0	2	0
Job satisfaction / service price	0	0	3	1

Outcomes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Sense of belonging	0	1	0	0
Freedom	0	0	0	1
SOCIAL				
Negative	**12**	**26**	**30**	**31**
Relationship Stress	2	14	16	9
Losing / Leaving friends (move away or lose things in common)	11	19	22	25
Difficult to stay in touch	1	4	0	1
Not knowing anyone	5	3	4	11
Difficulties making new friends	4	14	9	12
Social transience / turnover (friends & colleagues leave)	0	7	7	7
You are careful about investing in people	0	1	6	7
Transient friendships (depth / strength)	0	10	24	18
Civilians don't understand (people & orgs)	0	2	5	7
Bullying / rejection	1	0	0	0
Civilians don't want military friendships	0	3	4	0
Can't integrate into civilian community	0	1	2	2
People are careful about investing in you	0	0	3	5
Air Force = cliquey	0	2	1	7
Making enemies	0	1	0	0
Meeting similar people (homogeneity)	0	1	4	2
Making friends only with military families	0	4	5	2
Positive	**8**	**27**	**31**	**28**
Meeting people / forming new friendships	6	25	25	20
Meeting people again	1	8	15	13
Friendships are easier to rekindle	0	1	5	5
Gain social skills	0	9	8	10
Better / deeper friendships (maybe even more important than family)	1	3	3	6
Diversity / variety of friends & colleagues	0	7	6	3
Realise who your friends are	0	1	0	1
Close family relationships (high expectations / pressure on bonds)	1	1	6	5
Community / belonging / support	0	6	8	7
BEHAVIOURAL				
Negative	**1**	**20**	**23**	**27**
Short-temperedness	0	4	3	14
Aggression	0	1	1	0

APPENDIX O. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLES

Outcomes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Fidget	1	0	0	0
Increased alcohol consumption	0	1	2	6
Self-centredness (focus on self / stressed)	0	1	0	0
Withdrawing physically	0	14	10	8
Poor diet	1	0	0	12
No exercise	0	2	2	5
Bite nails	0	0	0	1
Decreased performance at work (wind down: lack of focus; reduced effort)	0	4	13	0
Positive	**0**	**3**	**9**	**0**
Discussions / clear air	0	0	1	0
Increased effort at work (input)	1	3	9	0
PRACTICAL				
Negative	**13**	**29**	**33**	**33**
Additional tasks / work	2	16	10	20
Job (give up / find again)	0	0	0	12
Don't understand qualifications	0	0	0	3
Reduced job progression	0	0	0	2
Employers discriminate (don't want to hire RAF spouses)	0	0	0	5
Finding childcare	0	2	0	0
Having to retrain	0	3	5	0
Not being able to take/finish courses	0	0	0	5
Doctors / Dentists (can't find NHS)	0	0	5	14
Medical Waiting Lists (starting again)	0	0	2	4
Increased cost	0	4	10	11
Furniture does not fit	0	2	5	10
Not know the area (and house)	4	7	4	9
Can't find things	2	1	0	1
Not able to look after family	0	1	6	3
Not enough time at home	0	5	2	0
Not enough time with friends	0	2	0	0
Distance from family	1	20	17	13
Distance from partner	0	9	3	1
Distance from friends	4	10	11	6
Distance from house (not able to live there)	0	3	4	0
Commuting	0	13	21	11
Separation	0	4	19	12
Divorce	0	5	0	0

Outcomes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Live Minimalist life	0	1	1	0
Can't plan ahead	0	2	2	4
"Missing out" (not able to attend family meetings; parties; no Christmas tree)	5	1	0	1
Inconvenience (living without certain things; crammed; sleep in same room etc)	2	3	7	9
Having to live on base	1	1	1	2
Not being on the property ladder	0	1	7	5
Frequent school changes	3	0	1	2
No choice over schools (catchments-areas)	0	0	9	12
School don't take service kids	0	0	1	0
Changing church	2	0	0	0
Having to give up hobbies	0	0	0	2
Leave RAF	0	1	11	1
Promotion = service extension	0	0	1	0
Positive	**12**	**29**	**33**	**31**
Gain experience	0	14	12	4
Opportunity for improvement (change; get away; e.g. bigger house)	2	9	12	6
New opportunities / activities	3	5	6	8
Closer to family / home / school	2	7	6	6
New job (self)	0	0	0	3
New job / new ideas (RAFers)	0	12	23	0
Career advancement (self)	0	0	0	2
Career advancement (RAFer)	0	4	7	3
See places	6	24	25	26
Go abroad	1	6	15	9
New house / things	10	0	1	0
Don't horde; have a sort out	1	3	7	4
Financial gain	0	1	0	1
Safe neighbourhood	0	0	0	2
Stay at home	0	0	0	4
FAMILIAL				
Spouse Negative	**0**	**6**	**28**	**21**
PRACTICAL	**0**	**6**	**24**	**12**
Difficulty getting job	0	1	5	0
Slows advancement / less opportunity (no career) / less respect	0	1	8	0
Can't do courses / education	0	0	2	0

Outcomes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Affects performance	0	0	0	1
Employers discriminate	0	0	1	0
Separation	0	1	2	0
Commuting	0	2	2	1
Left alone (physically & psychologically: start job immediately; leave early)	0	1	8	2
Divorce / Separation	0	1	3	0
Relationship tension / poor family dynamics	0	1	8	6
Do everything (because RAFer is away)	0	1	5	1
Giving up things (sort out)	0	0	1	0
Distance from family	0	0	8	1
Give up hobbies	0	0	2	1
Physical move itself	0	0	4	4
Living in quarters	0	0	1	1
PSYCHOLOGICAL	**0**	**4**	**20**	**16**
Anger (we're not soldiers / didn't sign up)	0	1	2	3
Conflict (RAFer & homemaker)	0	0	0	2
Fear / apprehension	0	0	2	4
Loss of control	0	0	1	3
Depression	0	0	3	1
Frustration	0	1	0	0
Upheaval / unsettled	0	1	3	1
Starting over	0	3	3	0
Unhappiness	0	1	2	2
Boredom	0	0	1	0
Homesickness	0	0	2	0
Lack of confidence	0	0	1	1
Poor mental health	0	0	1	0
Trauma	0	1	0	1
Stress	0	0	7	10
Nervous	0	0	1	0
Military mindset (sucked in)	0	0	0	1
No local knowledge	0	0	0	1
Pressure	0	0	1	2
Dislike moving	0	0	2	0
PHYSICAL	**0**	**0**	**0**	**3**
Blood pressure	0	0	0	1
Exhaustion	0	0	0	1
Skin Problems	0	0	0	1

APPENDIX O. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLES

Outcomes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
SOCIAL	0	3	17	5
Lose friends	0	2	10	1
Rebuild social networks	0	1	10	5
Isolation	0	0	5	0
Careful forging relationships / less depth	0	0	2	0
Spouse Positive	0	1	8	13
PRACTICAL	0	1	6	10
Experience gains (jobs, locations, overseas, credibility)	0	1	4	2
Job variety (change & advancement)	0	0	0	9
Opportunities	0	0	1	0
Closer to family	0	0	1	0
PSYCHOLOGICAL	0	0	1	1
Open-mindedness	0	0	1	0
Confidence	0	0	0	1
SOCIAL	0	0	4	3
Friendships (making & having friends)	0	0	3	3
Meeting similar people	0	0	1	0
Better family life	0	0	0	1
Children Negative	0	5	16	27
PRACTICAL	0	2	20	23
School / Nursery: Change	0	2	14	19
School / Nursery: Disruption	0	1	1	0
School / Nursery: Turbulence (turnover)	0	0	2	2
School / Nursery: Different system	0	1	6	3
School / Nursery: Fall behind	0	1	10	4
Boarding school	0	0	6	6
Not see parents	0	0	2	2
Parents fight	0	1	0	0
Relationship with parents	0	0	1	0
Distance from family	0	0	1	0
Labelling	0	0	0	1
Rejoin clubs	0	1	1	3
Sheltered life	0	1	0	2
No facilities	0	0	0	1
PSYCHOLOGICAL	0	5	14	18
Long-term effects	0	0	0	1
Unhappiness / sadness	0	1	3	5
Upheaval	0	1	8	11
Loneliness	0	1	0	0

Outcomes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Trauma	0	1	1	0
Boredom	0	1	1	1
Nervousness	0	0	0	1
Insecurity	0	0	1	3
Stress	0	0	1	4
Lack of control	0	0	2	0
Parental dependency	0	0	1	0
Not wanting to move	0	0	1	2
Do not respect parents	0	0	1	0
Lack of understanding	0	0	1	1
Feeling "in the way"	0	0	0	1
BEHAVIOURAL	**0**	**0**	**2**	**2**
Act out	0	0	0	1
Aggression	0	0	0	1
Careful about making friends	0	0	2	0
SOCIAL	**0**	**4**	**16**	**22**
Lose Friends	0	4	16	19
No long-term friendships (continuity)	0	0	1	1
No friends at location / holidays (because boarding or camp demographics)	0	0	1	4
Strained family relations (child / grandparents; cousins)	0	0	6	4
Civilians don't want military friends	0	0	1	0
Children Positive	**0**	**0**	**7**	**12**
PRACTICAL	**0**	**0**	**6**	**6**
Facilities (park, room etc)	0	0	1	2
New activities	0	0	0	2
Boarding	0	0	1	0
Better education	0	0	2	0
Experience	0	0	3	2
Being protected / safe	0	0	0	1
PSYCHOLOGICAL	**0**	**0**	**2**	**11**
Excitement	0	0	1	8
Happiness	0	0	0	1
Broadening	0	0	0	1
Maturity	0	0	1	0
Resilience	0	0	0	1
Independence	0	0	0	2
Confidence	0	0	0	1

Outcomes	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
SOCIAL	0	0	2	3
Meeting people	0	0	2	2
Social skills	0	0	1	1
Extended Family Negative	0	3	8	8
Family doesn't understand lifestyle	0	0	0	2
Strained relationships (grandparents & kids; grand-parents & grandkids; in-laws; nephews)	0	2	8	6
Having to take time off	0	0	0	1
Distance from family	0	2	2	1
Stress	0	1	0	0
Extended Family Positive	0	0	4	4
Visit (family & places)	0	0	3	4
Visit family more	0	0	1	0
Additional relocation related	0	0	0	0
Additional relocation unrelated	0	0	0	0

Table O.5: Relocation Outcomes Mentioned in Interviews

Relocation Support	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
RAF SUPPORT				
Administrative	**0**	**6**	**10**	**6**
Clerical Support (PSF; paperwork & forms)	0	3	8	4
Accommodation (DHE; quarter allocation)	0	3	2	2
Allowance applications (finance)	0	1	3	1
Physical	**4**	**22**	**29**	**30**
Removals	4	9	25	30
Moving Goods: Store, supply, movements	0	12	6	0
Transport (MT / rental): Self & goods	0	11	6	1
Cleaning contract	0	1	3	4
Logistical	**0**	**20**	**28**	**21**
Arrange & organise move (very detailed info incl. time scale for tasks)	0	7	14	11
Time off (unofficial or as part of leave)	0	7	6	0
Timing (allow move on weekend / holidays; with possibility to defer)	0	1	4	0
Temporary accommodation (hotel / transit)	0	2	10	4
Accommodation (Block, Mess, quarter including furnishings)	0	7	12	10
Get quarter early (or at least patch assigned)	0	0	2	1
Hiring / Excess Rent	0	1	0	4
Storage	0	4	3	7
Financial	**0**	**21**	**25**	**15**
Baggage allowance	0	8	2	0
Travel allowance	0	10	3	0
Disturbance allowance (new curtains, carpets, cleaning, contractors, reconnection)	0	7	16	8
Incl. children's allowance (uniforms etc)	0	1	7	1
Stamp duty / legal fees	0	1	9	1
Long Service Advance of Pay (£5000)	0	0	2	0
Long Separation Allowance (LSA)	0	0	0	1
Boarding School Allowance	0	1	5	0
"Basic Food Charges": Rent reduced because of separation	0	0	1	0
"Travel Charges": Way to duty is paid because no accommodation is available	0	0	1	0
Good / increased pay (+13%)	0	0	2	2
Pension	0	0	5	1
Lump sum (upon exit)	0	2	5	0

APPENDIX O. FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION TABLES

Relocation Support	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Informational	**0**	**24**	**28**	**31**
Notice (incl. information regarding move)	0	5	10	8
Information packs / letters	0	7	13	15
Unit booklet	0	1	3	6
Arrivals brief (letter, interview, manual, induction)	0	9	9	2
Training / Education	0	7	6	0
Handover	0	9	4	1
PSF / SHQ Info	0	6	8	5
Chain of command	0	2	3	0
Stations tours	0	4	1	1
HIVE	0	1	11	24
Coffee Shop	0	0	5	3
Families' Office	0	1	1	0
Services Children Education	0	0	1	1
SSAFA	0	0	1	2
DHE (view house, get choice; or get colour schemes / floor plans)	0	1	6	5
Airwaves	0	0	1	1
Roadreps	0	1	6	7
Job posts	0	0	1	0
Social/Emotional	**0**	**15**	**15**	**14**
Arrivals' / squadron vehicles	0	8	5	0
Mess / dining in nights	0	2	3	1
Introductions	0	3	1	0
Colleagues / command	0	1	2	2
Padre	0	4	2	4
SSAFA (incl. counselling & social worker)	0	3	2	5
Airwaves	0	0	0	2
RoadRep	0	1	4	3
Coffee morning / clubs	0	1	5	6
Other	**0**	**19**	**27**	**11**
Similar structure & processes (Binbrook Model; station template)	0	5	17	3
Similar job	0	1	0	3
Dream sheet (list your three preferred postings)	0	12	19	7
Applied postings (e.g. environmental, volunteer jobs, medical grounds, compassionate posting, last tour, disestablished units get preference, longest in post, personality clash)	0	6	6	0

Relocation Support	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Co-postings (married or very serious)	0	1	2	0
No posting / detachment within 12 months of marriage	0	0	1	0
Single parents = quartered	0	2	1	0
Minimum Turbulence Policy (draw down)	0	0	4	0
Pre-march in / proxy march out	0	0	3	1
Choice in removals	0	0	3	0
School visits	0	0	1	0
RELOCATION-UNRELATED				
Option Points (get out)	0	0	1	0
Exceptions / exemptions (pregnancy support, time off, admin work, day release, educational needs, disability)	0	0	2	2
Medical care / respite	0	0	1	3
Free gym	0	1	0	0
Contact house	0	1	1	0
Compassionate leave	0	1	1	0
Deployment support	0	1	2	1
SOCIAL SUPPORT				
Administrative	**1**	**0**	**7**	**12**
Rejoin clubs & activities	1	0	0	0
Changing address & redirecting mail	0	0	5	2
Official paperwork (incl. applying for house, furniture and allowances)	0	0	2	10
Legal contracts (house sale)	0	0	1	0
Move out (administrative)	0	0	1	1
Organise paperwork	0	0	0	1
Phoning	0	0	1	1
Looking at new house	0	0	0	1
Physical	**5**	**9**	**17**	**23**
Un/Packing	4	7	7	16
Transport (self)	1	2	0	0
Transport (things)	0	3	2	0
Food (meals)	0	0	4	2
Move / Lift	0	2	3	2
Cleaning	0	0	4	5
Redesign / decorate (curtains, close up holes, paint)	0	0	2	5
Sort Out	0	0	0	4
Logistical	**4**	**2**	**17**	**25**
Baby-sit / take kids	0	2	9	20
Pet-sit	0	0	1	1

Relocation Support	Child	RAF-S	RAF-F	Spouse
Accommodation (temporary)	0	0	11	11
Storage	0	0	1	1
Planning	4	0	0	1
Arrange / organise (e.g. removals, make lists)	0	0	1	8
Financial	**0**	**0**	**0**	**2**
Given allowance to spend	0	0	0	1
Financial help from family	0	0	0	1
Informational	**5**	**2**	**10**	**17**
Be shown house	2	0	0	0
Area information (including camp: restaurants, schools, vet, pubs, facilities)	4	2	10	14
Move information (how/when)	1	0	1	2
Involvement in decision-making	0	0	5	8
Social/Emotional	**4**	**11**	**26**	**27**
"Community"	0	0	8	4
Conversation (say hello; listen)	3	2	9	17
Show around / practical help	1	1	1	0
Visit / be visited	0	1	4	9
Arrivals vehicle / social activity	0	3	9	0
"Support" (accepts lifestyle, make sacrifices)	0	5	15	10
Other	**0**	**1**	**0**	**0**
Keep eye on house	0	1	0	0

Table O.6: Relocation Support Mentioned in Interviews