

The Impact of Work-Life Balance on the Relaxation Effect of Holidays

Master Thesis submitted in fulfillment of the Degree

Master of Science

in International Tourism Management

Submitted to Dr. Ivo Ponocny

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Vienna, November 28th, 2013

AFFIDAVIT

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ABSTRACT

This master thesis analyzes the impact of work-life balance on the relaxation effect of holidays. Despite the ever-increasing importance of work-life balance, hardly any studies have investigated how work-life balance influences one of the most important outcomes of holidays, namely the relaxation effect. Drawing on psychological theories, this thesis posits that life satisfaction, which is strongly driven by the balance of life domains displays a positive effect on the duration of the relaxation effect of holidays. Furthermore, it is suggested that holiday satisfaction and the coming home experience are also affected by work-life balance. The empirical part of this thesis consists of 16 interviews, which were analyzed both statistically as well as qualitatively. Generally speaking, the results of the empirical analysis reveal that people with a very good work-life balance tend to have a lower level of holiday satisfaction. However, they have a better coming home experience and consequently their relaxation effect lasts longer. On the contrary, people who are not content with their balance of life domains report on the one hand a higher level of holiday satisfaction. On the other hand, they have a worse coming home experience and thus a shorter relaxation effect. The results of this thesis hint at the importance of analyzing work-life balance as a precursor of the relaxation effect of holidays.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Travelling is an increasingly important activity for a large number of people around the globe. Certainly, holidays can be perceived in many different ways. According to Urry (1996) vacations can be seen as something which is not important or necessarily needed, however, the importance of travelling is rising not only in terms of relaxation. Travelling can be perceived as an act of status seeking and prestige. Apart from that, people like going on trips because they strive for positive experiences away from the daily routine, which would provide them with something new. Holidays allow people to forget about their everyday lives, thus vacations stand for a period of time when tourists can take a break from their work, family life and all pleasant as well as unpleasant aspects of their lives and life domains. Ryan (1997) states that vacations are sold as a unique experience which cannot be repeated and thus have to create positive unforgettable memories. Most people from the developed parts of the world go on short trips during the week-end or long trips in the course of their vacations (Krippendorf 1986). The importance of travelling is rising continuously; hence holiday frequency is equally growing. Moreover, holidays are becoming a common activity (Opperman 2005). The amount of holidaymakers and the frequency of trips is expected to gradually increase in the next years (UNWTO 2008).

Numerous studies have been done about the importance of holidays in terms of motivation (Crompton 1979; Dann 1981; Gilbert 1991; Iso-Ahola 1982; Mannell/Iso-Ahola 1987; Wahlers/Etzel 1985), experience (Cohen 1988; Ryan 1997) and satisfaction (Zalatan 1994). It is unclear whether a holiday might cause a higher level of happiness by fulfilling emotional needs and thus causing an increase in life satisfaction (Gilbert/Abdullah 2004). Tinsley (1979) believes that when a person goes on holiday, a satisfaction of some psychological needs must occur and the level of happiness and overall satisfaction should necessarily rise. Insufficient leisure time, on the other hand, can have a strong negative impact on life quality (Neulinger 1982). Dumazedier (1967) argues that tourists can profit from holidays in various different ways, such as active and passive relaxation, enjoyment, experience and learning. Gilbert and Abdullah (2004) point out that travelling successfully reduces the level of stress and thus increases subjective well-being and overall quality of life.

A work-life misbalance is a frequently observed phenomenon around the world. People strive for more monetary security and tend to increase the amount of work by working overtime or having two or more jobs. Nonetheless, they wish to spend a sufficient amount of time with their families and friends, as well as dedicate time to various interests and hobbies. However, this seems to be gradually problematic, especially as today's society consists of numerous divorced or single parents and working mothers. Rising expectations in terms of financial security and wealth equally play a crucial role. With this respect, the connection between travelling

and life satisfaction is obvious. People travel in order to get away from the everyday routine and relax, spend time with their families and forget about unpleasant duties and pressures. Low satisfaction levels or a work-family misbalance leads to increased stress levels. Holidays enable people to get away from all kinds of discomfort. Moreover, people believe that going on holidays makes them happier. Advertisements show positive images of happiness, enjoyment and relaxation. This is what the tourism industry wants to transmit. It is questionable whether travelling really makes people more satisfied and happier than before the trip (Kahneman/Krueger/Schkade/Schwarz/Stone 2006).

Interestingly, for some tourists, travelling may evoke a feeling of sadness and insecurity caused by the absence of their familiar surrounding (Vingerhoets/Sanders/Kuper 1997), whereas for others it may lead to high stress levels, particularly if thoughts about daily routines, such as work and household, are involved (Vingerhoets/VanHuijgevoort/VanHeck 2002). Thus it is unclear whether holidays provide people with a sufficient relaxation effect, or whether it only changes the kind of stress and the way people experience it.

1.1 Research question and objectives

The aim of this research project is to determine the effects of work-life balance, as a factor influencing life satisfaction, on the relaxation effect of holidays. Work-life balance is viewed as a valid indicator of subjective well-being (Greenhaus/Collins/Shaw 2003). Kofodimos (1993) believes that a strong misbalance between certain life domains leads to stress and consequently diminishes the quality of life which in turn has a negative impact on productivity at work. Furthermore, it is expected that a low level of subjective well-being might have a negative impact on the extent to which travelers are able to profit from their holidays in terms of positive cognitions directly after coming home from their vacation trip. Additionally, research has shown that any kind of an increase in life satisfaction and happiness levels after vacations do only last for a very limited amount of time (Nawijn/Marchand/Veenhoven/Vingerhoets 2010). Especially individuals with an unsatisfactory overall quality of life and a strong work-life misbalance experience a very short relaxation effect after coming home (Westman/Etzion 2001). People travel in order to relax and forget about stress, but once they come home they have to face the same worries and strains as before departure and thus the relaxation effect and hence the whole holiday outcome may be negatively influenced. Still, holiday satisfaction and the relaxation effect in particular, are perceived as a main goal of holiday-making. It is obvious that not only the holiday experience itself, but certainly also the post-trip experience, are strongly influenced by psychological aspects.

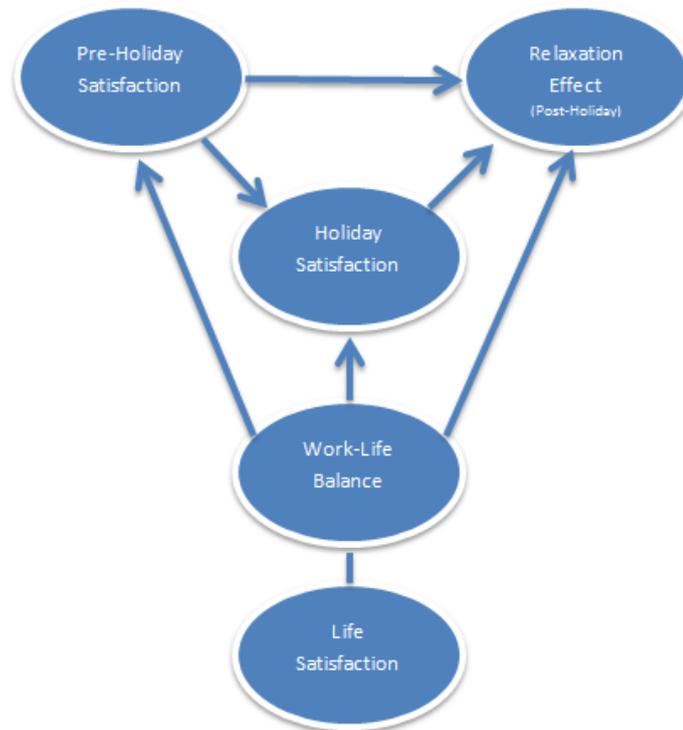


FIGURE 1: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND PRE-TRIP SATISFACTION, HOLIDAY SATISFACTION AND RELAXATION EFFECTS OF HOLIDAYS (OWN ILLUSTRATION).

The assumption of this thesis is visualized in figure 1, which shows the connections between holidays and work-life balance. First of all, it can be assumed that pre-holiday satisfaction displays an impact on the way tourists experience their holiday, especially in terms of everyday stress and work-related thoughts. Nonetheless, also short-term satisfaction levels, caused by the rosy view, can have an impact on the pre-trip time, although it might not be as significant as the long-term state of mind. The rosy view stands for a period of time before a holiday, when optimistic outlooks improve the level of happiness (Mitchell/Thompson/Peterson/Cronk 1997). Yet, the last days prior to vacations may also be filled with increased amounts of stress and discomfort. Furthermore, a worse work-family balance might also occur. This phenomenon is usually caused by the higher amount of tasks which need to be accomplished before a trip (DeFrank/Konopaske/Ivancevich 2000), as well as holiday and travel planning (Westman 2005). Holiday satisfaction may have an influence on the relaxation effect of holidays. Although, vacations are supposed to be a relaxing time full of positive experiences, negative events, such as illness (VanHeck/Vingerhoets 2007), culture shock (Pearce 1981), family problems (Ryan 1991), as well as work-related stress caused by pessimistic thoughts, might equally occur. However, pre-trip satisfaction may also have a direct impact on the relaxation effect of holidays, meaning that a low level of well-being before holidays is automatically causing a worse relaxation effect and post-trip satisfaction. This is directly linked to work-life balance, which is an indicator of overall life satisfaction. Work-life balance has an impact on all phases, pre-trip satisfaction, holiday satisfaction and post-trip satisfaction. However, it can be assumed that a work-life misbalance, which is an indicator of pre-holiday happiness, is inevitably having

a direct impact on the holiday outcome. In general, it can be said that holidays positively influence overall life satisfaction and happiness by pre-trip prospects, holiday experiences and post-trip memoirs (Larsen 2007; Morgan/Xu 2006).

- Research question:

What is the impact of work life balance, as an indicator of life satisfaction and subjective well-being, on the relaxation effect of holidays and the coming home experience?

It can be assumed that overall life satisfaction has a direct impact on how people experience holidays and to what extent they are able to profit from the relaxation effect after their trips. If people have a dissatisfactory work-life balance, they are likely to become very stressed right after a holiday, or even during the last days of their vacations. In a similar vein, high life satisfaction and a balance between life domains may cause an increased satisfaction with travelling and its outcome in particular. Hence, work-life balance may play a crucial role in travelling and holiday-making in general.

1.1.1 Theoretical importance

The question of relaxation effects and their duration is directly linked to the issue of tourism outcome which is highly important. The relaxation effect after holidays impacts the extent to which vacations are remembered in a positive manner. Positive memories and associations are relevant when it comes to future destination choices. A high level of relaxation is one of the desired outcomes in tourism. Psychological issues, such as work-life balance, subjective well-being and life satisfaction are very current topics which can significantly influence the duration and intensity of the relaxation effect after a holiday as well as the coming home experience. Additionally, this study gives an opportunity to identify the importance of travelling in terms of relaxation and defines its importance for mental health and happiness. Further indicators, such as length of a holidays or travel company can equally influence holiday satisfaction and holiday outcomes.

1.1.2 Practical importance

The outcome of this thesis could be valuable for marketing purposes. Destinations can create an innovative holiday environment where tourists would be able to gain more awareness about the positive aspects of life or how to cope with difficulties. This is interesting in particular, as the main purpose of holidays is to provide people with a more relaxed view in general. The stress factor is constantly growing, as people become more and more challenged in work but also in family life, especially in terms of balance between the two sectors and other life domains. New trends will be needed in order to satisfy travelers mainly when it comes to relaxation. A tourist experiencing a very short relaxation effect is likely to also forget about the positive effects of holidays and thus is less likely to return to the destination. The tourism sec-

tor could profit from considering current psychological trends and developments in tourists' needs. Hobson and Dietrich (1994) believe that the usual marketing strategy focusing on hotels, beaches and sunbathing does not accurately point out the effect on physical and mental health as well as happiness. In these terms, current trends such as wellness and spiritual holidays focus more on an overall relaxation. It is obvious that there is a need for more alternative tourism innovations (Puczkó/Smith 2012). Knowing about the relation of pre-trip and post-trip satisfaction levels, as well as holiday experiences may help to create an improved overall marketing strategy, by recognizing new targets and adjusting the offer in terms of travelling.

1.2 Research design

In order to address the research question, this master thesis follows a quantitative and qualitative approach. The assumption that life satisfaction, particularly work-life balance, has an impact on the relaxation effect of holidays and thus holiday satisfaction in general is tested by a set of questions asked to a number of interviewees. The target population consists of employed adults in Austria who are chosen accordingly to the convenience and snowball sampling method. Each interview contains a set of 36 questions. The questions are chosen in line with the matter of interest and consist of scale questions, which will further be used for a quantitative statistical analysis, and open-ended questions, which will provide valuable information for a qualitative study. Open-ended questions may equally provide a further basis for quantitative testing.

1.3 Outline of the thesis

Generally speaking, this thesis consists of a theoretical part and an empirical part.

The theoretical part deals with previous research on the three main topic areas, namely subjective well-being, work-life balance and holiday satisfaction. Subjective well-being is further explained in terms of happiness and overall quality of life, as well as a number of theories. Moreover, several factors, which may have an impact on subjective well-being, are introduced. Work-life balance is explained in terms of its contribution to life satisfaction, hence overall quality of life, and its crucial importance with respect to mental health. The theoretical part on holiday satisfaction comprises various theories on the relaxation effect and holiday outcomes, as well as influencing factors. The importance of holiday-taking is pointed out, as well as its contribution to happiness and stress relief.

The empirical part of this thesis contains a description of the hypotheses and related measurement constructs used in past research. Furthermore, a report of data collection and a description of the interviews are put forward. The respondents participating in this study are

being introduced. The last two parts contain the results and the discussion of the results as well as a conclusion.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

A variety of research has been done in order to connect tourism to other domains of everyday life and to investigate connections between travelling and overall life satisfaction (Uysal/Perdue/Sirgy 2012). Dolnicar, Yanamandram and Cliff (2012), however, claim that only few studies have addressed connections between tourism and subjective well-being. Hardly any studies have been done on the link between subjective well-being and the quality of vacation experiences (McCabe/Johnson 2013). A research by McCabe and Johnson (2013) showed that, in general, there is a connection between holidays and a higher level of satisfaction when coming home after a trip.

2.1 Subjective well-being and overall life satisfaction

The issue of well-being had already been discussed in ancient times. Aristuppus (436-366 B.C.) taught about the “doctrine of hedonism”, a theory expressing the need of all human beings to decrease pain and increase joy (Watson 1895). Aristupuss’ follower Epicurus (342-270 B.C.) formulated the theory of “ethical hedonism” that describes the responsibility to “maximize our experience of pleasure” (Peterson/Park/Seligman 2005, p. 25). Peterson, Park and Seligman (2005, p. 25) further describe the impact of Christianity on hedonism which did not go together with the idea of avoiding immorality. It was during the end of the 15th and the beginning of the 16th century that people again showed more understanding for hedonistic thoughts, stating that human beings were created by God in order to experience pleasure in life and not only to be afraid of sin and its consequences, particularly hell. Today, the hedonic theory is very popular and formed out into what Kahneman et al. (1999) call “hedonic psychology”. There is a rising importance of pleasure and enjoyment in the developed world. People tend to focus on fun and being happy is their priority. They do not accept sadness or misery as part of their lives anymore. Simply expressed, hedonism is what is well known as “don’t worry – be happy” (Peterson/Park/Seligman 2005, p. 26).

Opposed to hedonic theories, the “notion of eudemonia” was coined by Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) and further developed by John Stuart Mill and Bertrand Russel in the 19th and 20th centuries. The theory of “eudemonia” teaches to be “true to one’s inner self”. According to Aristotle (2000) “eudemonia” stands for real joy which occurs when a person recognizes his or her personal qualities and strives to make them best out of them. Peterson, Park and Seligman (2005, p. 26) mention several theories closely related to “eudemonia”:

- Maslow’s (1970) “concept of self-actualization”
- Ryff and Singer’s (1996) “vision of psychological well-being”

- Deci and Ryan's (2000) "self-determination theory"

All these concepts express the importance for every person to further develop his or her best and most unique personality features so that those skills can serve the whole community. Today, this idea can be best described by the famous slogans: "Be all that you can be" and "Make a difference" (Peterson/Park/Seligman 2005, p. 26).

Subjective well-being is an "emotional" or "cognitive" "evaluative reaction" to one's life (Diener/Diener 1995, p. 653). It stands for "living well" and the "good life" (after Aristotle, Ryff 1989, p. 1070). It can further be described as the "degree to which an individual judges the overall quality of his life-as-a-whole favourably" (Veenhoven 1991a, p. 7). Well-being is of high importance to define and understand subjective well-being in proper terms, as a low-level of happiness represents "depression and anxiety, stress and the need for therapy", whereas a high-level of subjective well-being means "enjoyment of work, happiness and life satisfaction" (Steger/Frazier/Kaler/Oishi 2006, p. 81). Several studies find a positive impact of holidaymaking on subjective well-being. Nawijn et al. (2010) and Strauss-Blasche et al. (2000) found a relationship between holidays and satisfaction.

Well-being is frequently associated with happiness. A large number of research projects have been done to understand what causes happiness, as it has been recognized as a substantial goal of all people around the world (Lyubomirsky/Lepper 1999). Hence, it can be stated that happiness is a state of mind that a large majority of all people strive for and most of them try to continuously achieve a higher level of happiness than they have already reached (Nawijn 2011). Consequently, there is no absolute happiness. Nonetheless, it is possible to improve the level of happiness by changing some behavioral patterns (Sheldon/Lyubomirsky 2006): dedicating time to "(social) relationships" (Diener/Seligman 2002, p. 83), participating in "life coaching" programs (Green/Oades/Grant 2006, p. 143), making use of "signature strengths" (Seligman/Steen/Park/Peterson 2005, p. 419), "mindfulness" (Brown/Ryan 2003, p. 843) and trying not to associate one's life with the life of another person (Lyubomirsky 2008).

Quality of life can be described in terms of life satisfaction and happiness (Dolnicar/Yanamandram/Cliff 2012). It can be defined as "a feeling of overall life satisfaction, as determined by the mentally alert individual whose life is being evaluated" (Meeberg 1993, p. 37) or "a conscious cognitive judgment of satisfaction with one's life" (Rejeski/Mihalko 2001, p. 23). Overall quality of life is closely connected to happiness with a variety of "individual life domains", such as "personal, health, work, family, love" and "money" (Dolnicar/Yanamandram/Cliff 2012, p. 60).

According to Diener (1984, p. 543), subjective well-being can be divided into the following three groups:

- First, happiness can be defined by external stimuli such as "virtue and holiness".

- Second, research has put a focus on what makes people evaluate their level of satisfaction in a positive way. This dimension is dependent on the subjective values of each individual and the extent to which he or she is able to perceive things in an optimistic manner.
- The third explanation focuses on the type of emotions a person is experiencing during a particular period of life, or an individual's "predisposition" to experience certain kinds of feelings.

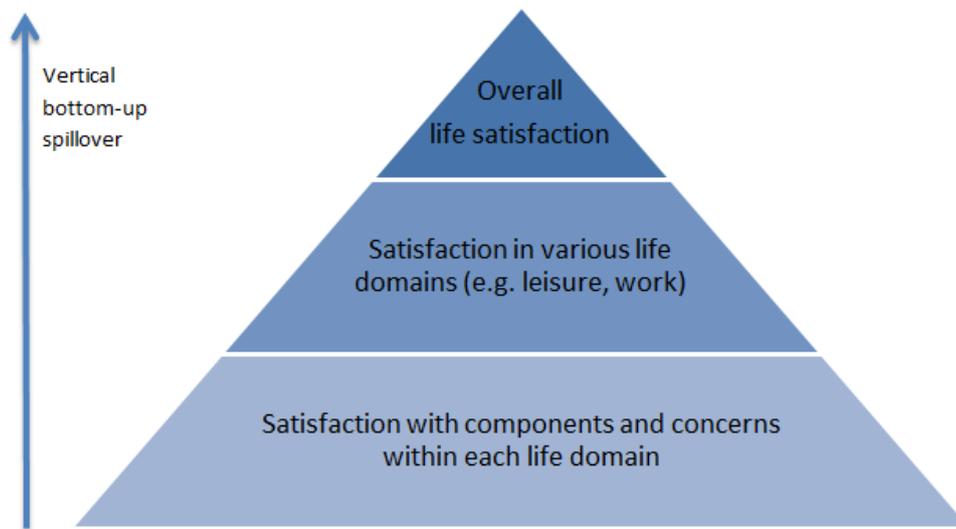


FIGURE 2: THE HIERARCHY MODEL OF LIFE SATISFACTION (NEAL/SIRGY/UYSAL 1999, P. 155).

The hierarchy model (figure 2) proposed by Meadow (1988) visualizes the hierarchical links between leisure satisfaction and overall well-being. The essential idea of the model is that "life satisfaction is functionally related to satisfaction with all of life's domains and subdomains" (Neal/Sirgy/Uysal 1999, p. 154). According to the pyramid, life satisfaction is affected by "life domains". This means that the extent of satisfaction with "health, work, family and leisure" directly influences life satisfaction in general.

Each and every person reacts differently to diverse situations. Situations are being judged based on personal approaches, personality features, individual expectancies and understanding as well as beliefs and value systems (Diener/Suh/Smith 1999). Stones and Kozma (1985) argue that subjective well-being mainly consists of emotions and happiness with various domains. Also the individual perception of the importance of happiness and the weight society puts on life satisfaction play an important role.

Vermuri and Constanza (2006, pp. 123-124) propose that people need five diverse kinds of capita in order to improve their quality of life:

- Social capita: Encompasses the relationship people have with others and the advantages and disadvantages of these relationships.

- Human capita: Health, abilities, awareness and chances.
- Physical capita: Services and organization and structure which are available.
- Natural capita: Stands for the natural surrounding and the extent to which it improves life.

One of the factors that play the largest role when it comes to subjective well-being is the personality factor. Each individual has a “genetic predisposition to be happy or unhappy” (Diener/Suh/Smith 1999, p. 279). Tatarkiewicz (1976) states that personality features are strongly affecting well-being. Temper and mental predispositions influence happiness more than external factors caused by certain events or other people. Furthermore, Headey and Wearing (1989) believe that if the level of happiness is given by genes then each individual consequently goes back to a certain typical set of emotions, once the person has overcome a particular event, no matter whether it had a positive or negative impact on well-being. According to Headey and Wearing (1992) each individual has so-called set points of subjective well-being. These set points are determined by personal behavioral features. Lykken and Tellegen (1996) found out that inborn temperament is causing 80% of changes in subjective well-being. Individuals react to certain actions; however, they tend to “return to baseline levels of well-being that are determined by personality factors” (Lucas/Clark/Georgellis/Diener 2004, p. 8). Lucas et al. (2004) conducted research on set points by examining the level of life satisfaction among unemployed people.

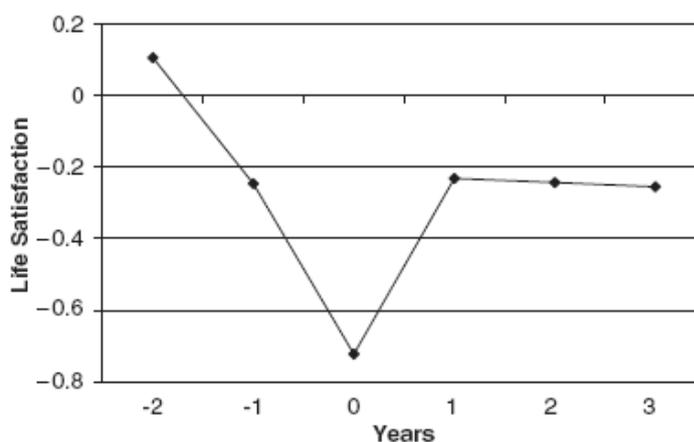


FIGURE 3: UNEMPLOYMENT LIFE SATISFACTION (LUCAS/CLARK/GEORGELLIS/ DIENER 2004, P. 11).

Figure 3 shows the result of the study. Year 0 visualizes the actual year of employment loss. It is clearly visualized that before being unemployed, people reported the highest level of happiness, whereas year 0 shows a very low happiness level. One year after unemployment, the situation is getting better again, but the level of life satisfaction is still lower than during employment time (Lucas/Clark/Georgellis/Diener 2004, p. 11). Hence, it can be concluded that, after a shock which can be represented by an either positive or negative event, people return

to a certain level of well-being, which does not necessarily have to be as high as before the incident.

Diener (1984) defines some of the most prominent psychological theories that describe subjective well-being:

- Telic theories: These theories, also called “endpoint theories”, assume that subjective well-being is achieved when a particular need or aim is reached (Diener 1984, p.562).
- Pleasure and pain: Diener (1984, p. 563) describes the connection between pleasure and pain. He states that “an individual only has goals or needs to the extent that something is missing in that person’s life” and that “lack or deprivation is a necessary precursor of happiness”.
- Activity theories: Subjective well-being is an outcome of activity. According to this theory, travelling, as an act of a higher activity level, leads to more life satisfaction (Diener 1984, p. 564).
- Associationistic theories: “Cognitive approaches to happiness are in their infancy (Diener 1984, p. 566). Positive things are more likely to result in higher levels of subjective well-being when they are credited to “internal, stable factors” (Diener 1984, p. 566).
- Judgment theories: Overall life satisfaction is an outcome of a “comparison between some standard and actual conditions”. Real situations surpass the usual situations then an increase in happiness will occur (Diener 1984, p. 566).

The question of overall life satisfaction is very closely linked to Maslow’s theory of human motivation (Maslow 1943). Figure 4 (McLeod 2007) visualizes the hierarchical structure of Maslow’s theory.

According to Maslow (1943) every human being strives to achieve particular needs. According to the pyramid of needs, people first seek to accomplish a lower level before they move on to the next one. McLeod (2007) describes the characteristics of people who reached the top of the pyramid, self-actualization, and thus are expected to be highly satisfied as all their needs have been met.

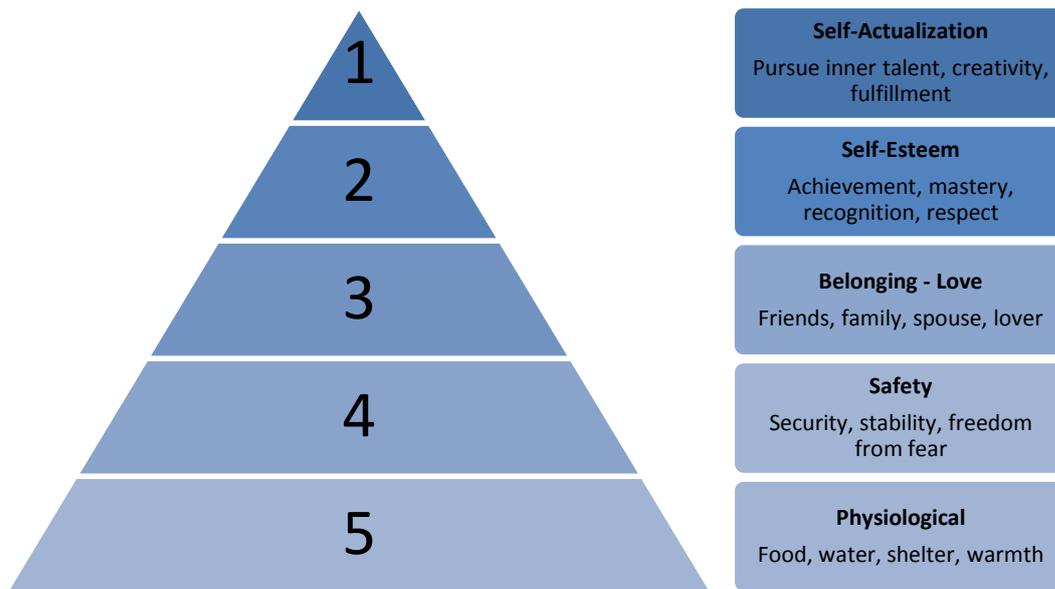


FIGURE 4: MASLOW'S PYRAMID OF NEEDS (MCLEOD 2007).

The personality of "self-actualizers" can be described in the following way (McLeod 2007):

- Ability to accept uncertainty
- Tolerance towards themselves and others
- Spontaneity
- "Problem-centered"
- Outstanding "sense of humor"
- Ability to perceive life from an objective point of view
- Creativity
- Reluctance to enculturation, but not intentionally unconventional
- Concern about the well-being of society
- Gratefulness for "basic life-experience"
- Ability to have a deep interpersonal relationship with a few individuals
- Peak experiences
- Seek privacy

- Democratic worldview
- Strong moral and ethical principles

Furthermore, McLeod (2007) describes behavioral structures that are likely to end up in “self-actualization”:

- Experiencing life as concentrated as a child
- Courage to try new way instead of keeping the old ones
- Following the own instincts and feelings instead of listening to authorities and old moral structures
- Honesty
- Readiness to lose popularity
- Responsibility and hard work

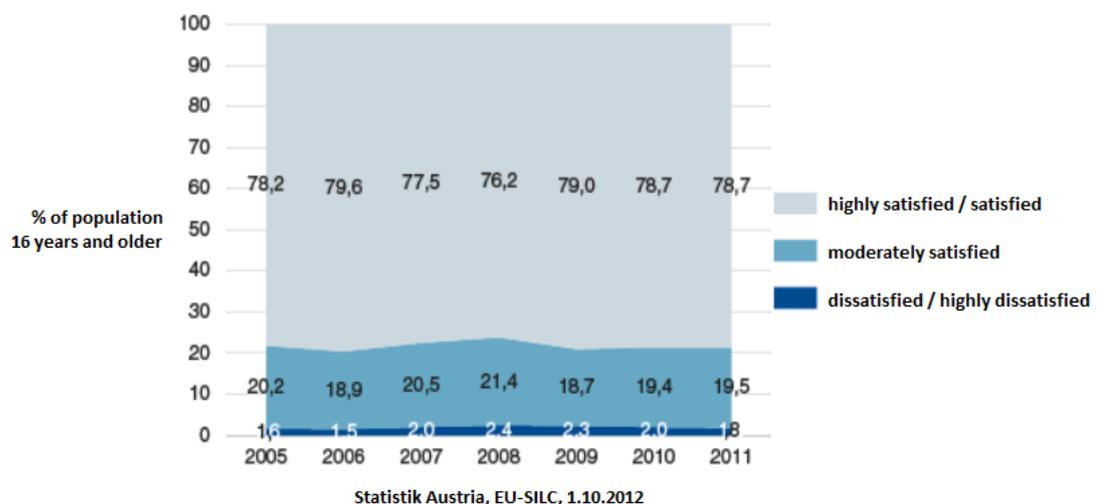


FIGURE 5: OVERALL LIFE SATISFACTION IN AUSTRIA (STATISTIK AUSTRIA).

Figure 5 shows the overall life satisfaction in Austria. All respondents were Austrians and at least 16 years old. The graph shows a constant trend of from 2005 to 2011. The peak of dissatisfaction (2.4%) and average satisfaction (21.4%) was in 2008 as possible result of the economic crisis (Statistik Austria 2012). The percentage of satisfied and highly satisfied persons was high (78.7%). The percentage of dissatisfied and highly dissatisfied individuals, on the other hand, was only 1.8%. These results are relatively stable. Therefore, the situation in Austria is said to be positive, although the level of satisfaction is hardly changing (Statistik Austria 2012).

2.2 Factors influencing well-being

Life satisfaction and well-being are an increasingly prominent area of interest. Numerous research approaches dealing with this topic have already been introduced. However, it is interesting to take a closer look at the particular factors that may have an impact on subjective well-being in general (Diener/Diener/Diener 1995). "Societal resources that allow people to make progress in achieving their goals should lead to life satisfaction and affective well-being" (Diener/Diener/Diener 1995, p. 851). Diener et al. (1995) also believe that wealth and human rights can be considered as valid influencing factors, because they have an external impact on what a person can achieve and thus influence the level of life satisfaction. They further assume that happiness can be influenced by "cultural heterogeneity, equality, and individualism". Differences in subjective well-being are "systematically related to salient cultural values" (Oishi/Diener/Lucas/Suh 1999, p. 980). Also education and marital status can be considered as valid factors when evaluating happiness and overall quality of life (Myers/Diener 1995).

2.2.1 Wealth

Diener et al. (2010) propose wealth as one of the factors that may have an impact on subjective well-being. Diener et al. (1995, p. 851; 2010, p. 52) question whether "the association of income with well-being is mediated by the fact that wealthy people are more likely to have their physical and/or psychological needs met or whether wealthy people are more satisfied because they have more of their material desires fulfilled". According to Emmons (1986) self-fulfillment causes a higher level of overall life satisfaction and income is frequently one of the factors that ease the process of self-actualization.

Diener et al. (1995, p. 851) explain the close link between Maslow's (1954) pyramid of needs and wealth: "Income confers advantages in terms of basic needs, security, and the actualization of one's abilities". Naturally, wealth is the aim of a majority of people around the globe. Consequently, wealthy individuals should be the ones with the highest levels of happiness which again would mean that it is possible to buy satisfaction to a certain extent (Diener/Diener/Diener 1995).

Contrarily, relatively high levels of well-being have been recognized within very poor cultures, such as the Maasai and Amish. These people indicate to be happy without any modern facilities, such as running water, gas or electricity (Biswas-Diener/Vittersø/Diener 2005). The main factor explaining these results might be the fact that these people have "low material aspirations", as they are not used to any higher standards of living (Diener/Ng/Harter/Arora 2010, p. 53). Another interesting finding, by Graham and Pettinato (2002), shows that individuals with quickly growing incomes tend to feel stressed because their wants have suddenly become much larger than the amount of money they dispose of. These results clearly show a connection between wants and happiness additional to needs and well-being.

A possible explanation for these findings was formulated by Easterlin (1974) who claims that people automatically tend to compare the amount of money they have with the amount of money other people in their surrounding have. Thus, people in poor countries tend to be happier with less income than individuals in richer countries, as they do not see so much wealth around them. Subjective well-being based on wealth is therefore dependent on social surroundings and cultural differences. Furthermore, Myers (2000) believes, that certain phenomena of modern society, such as increased consumption, can possibly lead to a decrease in life satisfaction, as it may result in a dramatic drop of the importance of moral principles within a society and shifts in priorities as well as values.

2.2.2 Marital status and gender differences

In general, married people indicate to be happier than those who are not married. However, people who have never been married turned out to be more satisfied with life than those who are divorced or widowed (Glenn/Weaver 1979; Gove/Style/Hughes 1990; Mastekaasa 1994; Veenhoven 1984). Being married strengthens one's individuality and self-confidence (Gove/Umberson 1985). Williams (1988) believes that the stability and reliability provided by marriage is causing a better overall quality of life and higher satisfaction with other life domains in general.

Life satisfaction varies across different cultures around the world. Emotions were more valid predictors of happiness in individualistic cultures, whereas norms and emotions were equally strong indicators of life satisfaction in collectivist cultures (Suh/Diener/Oishi/Triandis 1998). Thus, it is obvious that the relationship of marital status and life satisfaction varies across cultures (Diener/Gohm/Suh/Oishi 2000).

Barnett and Hyde (2001) state that working women indicate to be more satisfied with life than those who are not employed. Additionally, working women, who are married and have children, appear to be the ones with the highest level of overall life satisfaction. However, Barnett and Hyde (2001, p. 781) equally point out that people get married later in their lives and on the other hand, "life expectancy and family size is decreasing". Women are spending less time at home with their children and more time at work.

Traditional theories of work and family life:

- **Functionalist theories:** Parsons (1949) believes that traditional roles of men and women are complementary and thus ideal. He states that both, men and women should take advantage of their naturally given skills in order to achieve a good quality of life. The relationship between a mother and her children is biologically given and thus women should put main focus on childcare, whereas men's main occupation should be earning money and thus taking care of the material needs of the family. "The broad structural outlines of the American nuclear family, as we have delineated it, are not "fortuitous" in the sense of being bound to a par-

ticular highly specific social situation, but are of generic significance with respect to the structure and functions of the family in all societies” (Parsons/Bales 1955, p. 355).

- Psychoanalytic theories: Freud (1905) argues that especially the childhood is crucial in terms of personality development and future personality traits. According to Freud’s theory, children learn from their parents and tend to take on their parents’ personality features. Boys identify with fathers and girls with mothers in particular. “Young women often ask whether they can “have an identity” before they know whom they will marry and for whom they will make a home... Something in the young woman’s identity must keep itself open for the peculiarities of the man to be joined and that of the children to be brought up” (Erikson 1968, p. 283). Erikson (1968) considers that a young woman needs to marry in order to find her place in the world and form her personality.

Both theories are based on the spirit of their time and the socio-psychological background and the role of women in society (Barnett/Hyde 2001). As a response to traditional theories, Barnett and Hyde (2001, p. 784) introduce a theory called “expansionist theory” which consists of four principles:

- Both, men and women can profit from taking several roles. Working women and men helping in the household is very useful in terms of “mental health, physical health, and relationship health.
- A variety of “multiple roles” means numerous advantages such as “buffering, added income, social support, opportunities to experience success, expanded frame of reference, increased self-complexity, similarity of experiences, and gender-role ideology”.
- Multiple roles have a positive impact on men and women, particularly when the roles performed are perceived as “high quality” roles. The amount of roles, and thus the time spent with performing a particular role, is not important in this respect. However, “multiple roles” can also lead to dissatisfaction especially in case of “low-wage work, workplace discrimination, and sexual harassment”.
- From a psychological point of view, there are hardly any differences between men and women. Thus, neither men nor women are forced into a certain scheme and are free to take over any role they prefer (Barnett/Hyde, p. 784).

Barnett and Hyde (2001, p. 785) equally formed their theory of “multiple roles” according to the social context, “historical period” and thus “current norms and roles”. They point out that the concept of numerous roles taken by both, men and women, does not necessarily have to be more accurate than traditional theories of family life and work, but it is likely to better reflect the ideology of today’s developed world.

Even though, women are historically expected to be less happy than men, especially because of the fact that they have a smaller decision power and less autonomy in general, several studies have proved that there are hardly any variances between the sexes concerning happiness and well-being (Herzog/Rodgers/Woodworth 1982).

2.2.3 Cultural differences

Self-esteem is perceived as one of the major indicators of subjective well-being. Yet, there are major differences between Western and Eastern societies. Whereas, Western cultures are highly individualistic and every individual is mainly focused on himself, Eastern parts of the world tend to perceive collective thinking as more important and thus are more focused on the well-being of the society as a whole. Consequently, “feeling good about oneself” might be praised in some parts and maladjusted in other parts of the world. Thus, there are major differences in the understanding and the perception of self-esteem (Diener/Diener 1995, p. 653). Triandis (1989) points out that self-esteem is a stronger predictor of happiness in individualistic countries.

Family and friends are more dominantly correlating factors in collectivist cultures than in the Western society. In Eastern parts of the world, an individual’s level of happiness is likely to be more influenced by the immediate surrounding as well as the whole community. However, family is usually considered as the most prominent part (Triandis 1989).

Equally, the above mentioned wealth and the related happiness are fluctuating with respect to different cultures. However, as Diener and Diener (1995, pp. 653-654) state, happiness related to wealth is closely related to “the economic level of the society” rather than on factors such as individualism or collectivism. The level of income has a larger impact on subjective well-being in poorer countries (Veenhoven 1991b). This phenomenon can simply be explained by Maslow’s theory of needs (1954), where basic physiological needs form the bottom of the pyramid and thus the most important part. These needs are closely connected to income, as a major part of them is formed by material goods. In a poor society these basic needs can frequently not be fulfilled which results in a dramatically decreased level of happiness (Diener/Diener 1995). People in developing countries “suffer from a lack of financial security and adequate housing”. “Physiological and safety needs”, in general, cannot always be met (Oishi/Diener/Lucas/Suh 1999, p. 981; Maslow 1970). Maslow’s need gratification theory assumes that:

- Individuals from richer countries tend to be happier with their lives.
- Individuals from richer countries connect their level of satisfaction to “the level of gratification of higher needs” whereas people from poor countries focus on “the level of gratification of more basic needs.

Diener et al. (1993) found support for this hypothesis by examining the relation between wealth and subjective well-being in the United States of America. They found rather weak connections.

2.3 Work-life balance

The work-life, or work-family, balance is a frequently cited phenomenon. As stated by Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003, p. 511), the term can be used either as a noun, or as a verb or even an adjective. Various definitions of work-life balance have been proposed by researchers in the past. Kirchmeyer (2000, p. 81) perceives a balanced life as “achieving satisfying experiences in all life domains”. He further states that “energy, time, and commitment” need to be equally spread across all domains in order to achieve life satisfaction. Clark (2000) points out the importance of minimizing the role conflict between work and family life when it comes to balance in life and overall life satisfaction. Individuals are facing a work and life a misbalance and as a result, they report a lower overall quality of life (Kossek/Ozeki 1998). Negative developments in work-life balance are caused by boundaries between work and home domains, especially long working hours, working overtime and prolonged physiological activation as a result of pre-occupation with work (Fritz/Sonnentag 2005; VanHoof/Geurts/Kompier/Taris 2007; Akerstedt 2006). Growing salaries and the wide choice of products available on the market cannot “compensate for lack of time for what we really want to do, lack of time for our families and friends, lack of time for ourselves, (...) lack of time for living” (Krippendorf 1986, p. 133). Kofodimos (1993) believes that work-life balance depends on a happy and active life that encompasses work, family and free time. It is more than obvious that these statements share a number of common points. Work-family balance is directly linked to the “equality or near-equality” between work and free time (Greenhaus/Collins/Shaw 2003, p. 512). Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003, p. 512) further argue that work-life balance considers both, the input factors and outcomes of equality. The inputs are “personal resources that are applied to each role”.

Krippendorf (1986, p. 133) points out both, positive and negative sides of today’s working society. He believes that people have gained more security in terms of financial income and thus “eliminated poverty” and long “working hours” to a certain extent. On the other hand, individuals experience “a loss of human contact at work; reduced satisfaction with work, and hence with life generally; rigid clock discipline, and above all, growing unemployment”. People perceive life differently than in the past and are more willing to criticize what makes their level of satisfaction decrease. This is what Krippendorf calls “the greatest intellectual revolution since the renaissance”. As a result of the work changes, people are eager to experience something different and they put more value on individualism, autonomy and contribution.

Brief and Nord (1990) describe a number of changes resulting from shifts in the society, where an increasing number of people have important family and work duties:

- A growing divorce rate
- Increased number of single parents
- More working women
- More part-time jobs
- Better mobility
- Changing expectations resulting in an increase in awareness of well-being in all life domains
- An increasing number of family fathers getting involved in housework and family life

Improving the balance between work and free time often means to spend less time at work in order to be able to focus more on family life. This is what is believed to be the crucial thing to do in order to achieve a satisfactory balance between life domains (Kofodimos, 1993). The subjective perception of well-being is directly linked to the amount of free time people have and the time they spend on relaxation in particular (Eriksson/Rice/Goodin 2007). Eriksson, Rice and Goodin (2007) further state that people often choose to devote more time to work voluntarily, as they strive for a higher income. Likewise, especially women decide to spend more time on housework, although they are not receiving any monetary reward. The satisfaction with work-life balance is determined by the autonomy of time planning. Gechman and Wiener (1975) believe that the relationship between working hours and well-being are rather complicated and directly dependent on the difficulty of work, and the question whether extra hours have been performed on a voluntary bases or not.

Clark (2000, p.748) points out that work and family are strongly interrelated. "Emotions spill over between the two systems" and furthermore the "disappointment one may experience in one system may propel individuals to pursue fulfilling activities in the other". Clark (2000, p.748) also emphasizes that the "border theory" creates a human link between work and family. Individuals are so called "border-crossers" who have to switch between two domains every day and cross imaginary boundaries. Everyone is forming his or her own surrounding and on the other hand, people are formed by their environment. The border theory describes possibilities how to merge family and work domains in order to minimize the borders which are separating them, although they have an impact on each other. The global society does often force people to jump literally between two worlds, adapting to one culture at work and another at home, by using different language and customs. The borders one has to cross every day are divided into three groups: "physical", "temporal" and "psychological". The physical border is the only physical border and is represented by the actual building where people work or live, whereas temporal borders stand for working hours and the time dedicated to family. Psycho-

logical borders, however, such as “thinking patterns, behavior patterns and emotions” describe certain guidelines about what is suitable at home and what is appropriate at work (Clark 2000, p. 756). Clark (2000, pp. 756-758) proposes a division of these borders according to their qualities:

- **Permeability:** Permeability describes the extent to which parts of one domain may access another (Beach 1989; Hall/Richter 1988; Piotrkowski 1978). Although some domains might have physical boundaries, elements from other domains might still have access. However, such boundaries can also be psychological, which can have both, positive and negative effects. They can either be a source of inspiration, especially when ideas from one domain enter another domain, but they can also create negative sentiments and reactions (Clark 2000, pp. 756-757).
- **Flexibility:** Flexibility stands for the elasticity of the boundary, thus the ability to either “contract or expand”. Temporal borders, such as shifted and adjusted working, as well as “psychological borders”, such as freedom of thought, can be perceived as flexible (Clark 2000, p. 757).
- **Blending:** Blending arises once flexibility and permeability are strong enough to create some sort of common area which does no longer belong to any particular sphere, but includes family and work instead (Clark 2000, p. 757). Anzaldua (1987) warns that blending can be risky if the spheres are very unlike. Nonetheless, similar domains profit from blending as they can “lead to integration and a sense of wholeness”.
- **Border strength:** The border strength is defined by strength permeability, blending and flexibility at the same time. If all factors are weak, the border remains strong. Commonly, “borders will be stronger in the direction of the more powerful domain”, however, “domain interests” do not always correspond to the “individual’s interests” (Clark 2000, p. 758).

The role of control is very important when it comes to daily life. Having a personal control over one’s life plays a significant role when it comes to satisfaction and well-being (Langer/Rodin 1976, Pulkkinen et al. 1998, Marmot e al. 1991, Marmot 2004). The reasons for the importance of control over time are purely instrumental. Eriksson, Rice and Goodin (2007, p. 513) believe that “the more control you have, the more you get what you want”. Peterson (1999) states that if an individual believes in his or her ability to have an impact on what happens, it is more likely that this person is able to solve a problem which again leads to a higher number of problems being solved and thus a higher level of life satisfaction and sense of well-being.

Marks and MacDermid (1996) propose three components of work-life balance:

- **Time balance:** the same amount of time spent with work activities and free time or family roles.

- Involvement balance: the same intensity of psychological devotement in work and free time or family.
- Satisfaction balance: the same level of satisfaction with both.

Generational questions also play an important role in the perception of work-life balance. Beuttel and Berman (2008, p. 508) believe that understanding each generation's approach to work and family may have crucial positive effects for individuals as well as the companies they are working for. They see the main advantages for work in "work adjustment, career management, teamwork, organizational citizenship, leadership, job performance, turnover intentions and satisfaction". Advantages for families comprise "family unit cohesion, communication, child rearing, and marital and family satisfaction".

Today's working society consists of three generations: Baby boomers, born between 1941 and 1960, who are representing the older working generation; generation X, born between 1961 and 1976 represents today's largest working group; and Generation Y born between 1977 and 1992 (Glass 2007, p. 99). However, exact data concerning the year of birth is not available, as research differs at this point. Yet, it can be said, that baby boomers are today approximately 53 to 72 years old, hence most of them are workers who are already retired or approaching the age of retirement. They are equally considered to be the ones with the most working experience. Generation X is represented by roughly 52 to 37 years old. They are considered to be the major working group of experienced workers. Generation Y is viewed as the newcomers. They are aged 21 to 36. Many of them are still students, but a large part is already working. Generation Y is considered the group with the most highly educated people (Glass 2007; Beuttel/Berman 2008). Scott (2000, p. 356) explains what is called generational effects as follows: "Those born at the same time may share similar formative experiences that coalesce into a "natural" view of the world. This natural view stays with the individual throughout their lives and is the anchor against which later experiences are interpreted".

Generation Y and Generation X both frequently come from divorced families or families where both parents were employed. Thus, both of these generations were raised to be highly independent. Representatives of generation Y await a lot of freedom and self-decision power at work. On the one hand they want rich instructions and support from their employer, but on the other hand they also wish to keep their autonomy and independence at work and get their job done the way they want. Another interesting characteristic of generation Y is the preference for group work. They highly appreciate teams (Martin 2005). Generation X is said to be autonomous, causal and looking for stability innovation. (Howe/Strauss 2007). Generation X works in order to have a better life and baby boomers perceive work as main occupation and to a certain extent as a sense of being. Generation X values work-life balance, development, and pleasant work relationships more than baby boomers (Chao 2005) who were shaped by

uproars, “walk on the moon” and various political movements and tend to be more “individualistic, self-absorbed, cynical, and focused on social causes” (Beuttel/Berman 2008, p. 509).

Baby boomers were the first generation getting to know shifting work and family roles including “new social roles for women and men”. Consequently, they were the first ones who experienced more women going to work and more men getting involved in the household chores and showing more interest for children. Hence, it can be assumed that baby boomers were already involved in some kind of “work-family conflict”. Generation X, however, can be seen as the first generation with a large divorce rate of parents, a growing number of single parents as well as working mothers and thus they are said to be the first generation seeking more work-life balance (Beuttel/Berman 2008, p. 509). “Xers have begun to construct the strong families that they missed in childhood” (Howe/Strauss 2007, p. 45), thus they highly value work-life balance (Beuttel/Berman 2008).

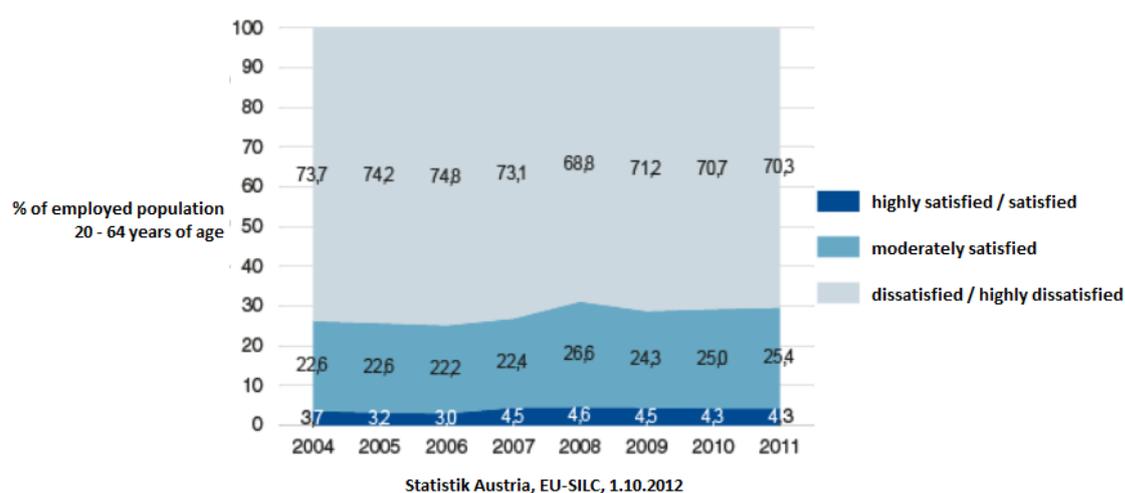


FIGURE 6: WORK SATISFACTION IN AUSTRIA (STATISTIK AUSTRIA).

Figure 6 visualizes satisfaction with work of Austrians from 20 to 64 years of age. The number of moderately satisfied and dissatisfied people rose from 2004 to 2011. The peak was reached in 2008 as a cause of the economic crisis. 70.3% of all respondents indicated to be satisfied or highly satisfied with work in 2011, 4.3% admitted to be dissatisfied or highly dissatisfied (Statistik Austria 2012).

Figure 7 shows the amount of hours dedicated to leisure time every day. Again, the respondents were Austrians and all were at least 19 years old. In 2012, men had slightly more leisure time than women. Altogether, Austrians spent 3.4 hours per day with free time activities (Statistik Austria 2012).

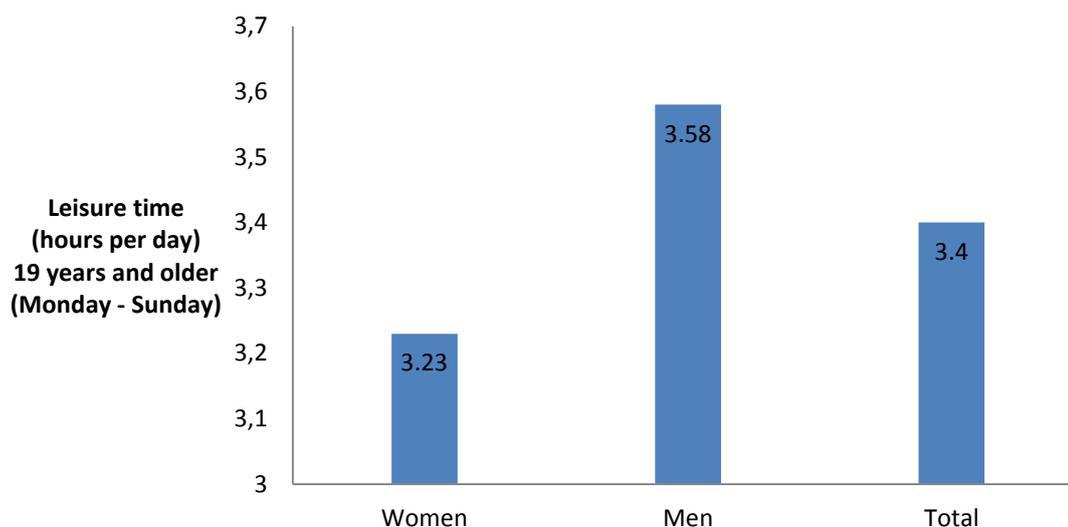


FIGURE 7: LEISURE TIME IN AUSTRIA (STATISTIK AUSTRIA).

Years	In employment		Full-time employment		Part-time employment	
	Total	Thereof employees	Total	Thereof employees	Total	Thereof employees
Average hours of work by person and week						
Total						
2004	39.8	38.0	44.7	42.7	21.7	21.7
2005	39.5	37.9	44.7	42.7	21.3	21.3
2006	39.3	37.7	44.7	42.6	21.2	21.2
2007	39.1	37.7	44.7	42.6	20.9	21.3
2008	38.6	37.4	44.4	42.5	21.0	21.3
2009	38.2	37.0	44.1	42.3	21.1	21.3
2010	37.9	36.9	44.0	42.2	21.0	21.3
2011	37.9	36.7	44.0	42.1	20.9	21.1
2012	37.8	36.6	43.6	42.0	20.5	21.0
Males						
2004	43.9	42.0	45.4	43.2	21.1	20.9
2005	43.8	42.0	45.5	43.4	20.6	20.4
2006	43.7	41.8	45.5	43.3	20.6	20.2
2007	43.4	41.7	45.4	43.2	19.8	20.1
2008	42.8	41.4	45.1	43.1	19.7	19.8
2009	42.5	41.1	44.8	42.9	20.3	20.3
2010	42.2	40.9	44.6	42.7	19.8	20.1
2011	42.2	40.7	44.6	42.6	19.5	19.6
2012	42.0	40.6	44.3	42.4	18.5	18.9
Females						
2004	34.4	33.1	43.4	41.5	21.8	21.9
2005	34.2	33.1	43.1	41.5	21.4	21.5
2006	33.9	32.7	43.2	41.3	21.3	21.4
2007	33.7	32.8	43.2	41.5	21.2	21.5
2008	33.5	32.7	42.9	41.4	21.3	21.6
2009	33.1	32.4	42.6	41.3	21.3	21.5
2010	32.8	32.2	42.6	41.3	21.3	21.6
2011	32.8	32.0	42.6	41.1	21.2	21.4
2012	32.7	32.1	42.4	41.0	21.0	21.4

FIGURE 8: AVERAGE NUMBER OF WEEKLY HOURS OF WORK BY FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME IN AUSTRIA (STATISTIK AUSTRIA).

Figure 8 visualizes the working average of “all weeks of a year” in Austria. The table shows full-time employed people as well as part-time employed people. Full-time employment stands for at least 36 hours per week. The number of working hours is decreasing since 2004 for all employment groups. Men are working more hours per week in full-time as well as in part-time job compared to women.

2.4 Relaxation effect and holiday satisfaction

Travelling is an activity which is important to a majority of people all around the world and can be viewed as a phenomenon of the post-industrial world (Bell 1973). Relaxation is a main factor influencing quality of life (Karnitis 2006). Both work satisfaction and holiday satisfaction have a strong positive impact on happiness and thus overall quality of life (London/Crandall/Seals 1977). Holidays substantially influence quality of life with respect to stress release (Iwasaki/Mannell/Smale/Butcher 2005). However, as and McCabe (2002) points out, there is no accurate distinction between leisure, travelling, and everyday life anymore, as numerous kinds of experiences, which used to be exclusively part of vacations, are nowadays available even without travelling (Lash/Urry 1994). However, people like holidays, because they like having “something to look forward to”. This is why tourists prefer shorter, but more frequent, holidays (Miller/Rathouse/Scarles/Holmes/Tribe 2010, p. 638). Yet, previous research could not prove any connections between the actual length of the holiday and satisfaction after the trip (Gilbert/Abdullah 2004; Kemp/Burt/Furneaux 2008; Lounsbury/Hoopes 1986). Travelers who are going on a trip more frequently and tend to choose comparable kinds of vacations are more likely to identify their expectations (Ryan 1998) and consequently are more satisfied with their holidays (Nawijn/Marchand/Veenhoven/Vingerhoets 2010). Tourist behavior is dependent on the changes in society and on an individual’s daily life experiences. Tourism is not changing, but travelers are. They have changing expectations accordingly to their changing life. Hence, holiday experience is directly linked to quality of life. It can be said that vacations “feed back to everyday life” (Krippendorff 1986, p. 133).

Jafari (1990) proposes four methods of travel-related research:

- Advocacy approach: Solely economic advantages of tourism are being investigated, as the advocacy approach only considers the economic value of the sector.
- Cautionary platform: The focus is put on the negative effects of tourism. Travelling is presented as something purely undesirable.
- Adaptacy platform: New, innovative and unconventional tourism options are put into focus as a response to the “cautionary platform”.
- Knowledge based platform: A scientific and system oriented method, excluding standards and expectations connected to “personal perspectives on tourism”.

Travelling is active relaxation, including activity away from everyday life (Kelly 1985). Iso-Ahola (1984, p. 98) believes that people “seek stability and change, structure and variety, and familiarity and novelty in leisure”. Bloom, Geurts and Kompier (2013, p. 614) claim that vacations influence well-being remarkably, but for a short time only. They further argue that holiday experiences such as “pleasure, relaxation, savoring and control, seem to be especially important for the strength and persistence of vacation (after-) effects”. Holidays contribute through “social interaction, personal development and individual identity formation” to overall quality of life (Richards 1999, p. 189). Moreover, people seem to have the urgent need to “keep on move”, discover new places, but also get away from the stereotype of their everyday lives and thus experience some change in their “daily routine” that would create new memorable experiences (Krippendorf 1986, p. 131). There is an “underlying assumption in our society that tourism is a mentally and physically healthy pursuit to follow in our leisure time” (Hobson/Dietrich 1994, p. 23). Hence, travelling can be perceived as a cause of larger life satisfaction (Dolnicar/Yanamandram/Cliff 2012). Gross (1961) perceives vacations as an activity which is important in order to handle every day’s problems after coming home. Travelling can improve life satisfaction by pre-holiday time expectations, inter-holiday time experiences and post-holiday memories (Larsen 2007; Morgan/Xu 2006). Memories can be kept by physical things and mental storing (Aho 2001).

According to Krippendorf (1986, p. 131), people go on holidays in order to “gain some independence, to switch off, to recharge, to make contacts, to rest and to find some happiness to take back home”. He further states that, in fact, people work in order to earn money which they spend on vacations, and on the other hand they desperately seem to need to travel in order to perform a job and possibly even a better job than before the holiday. The desire for holiday experience increases the more people travel, as the effect of holidays only lasts for some time after coming home. One of the main purposes of holidays is the fact that tourists are able to make decisions and they can do whatever they feel like doing. A tourist has the possibility to give instructions instead of receiving them (Krippendorf 1986).

“In order to understand the well-being of an individual, it is important to directly measure the individual’s cognitive and affective reactions to (...) specific domains of life” (Diener/Suh 1997, p. 200). Still, it is not clear which “domains” should be encompassed in the quality of life and its measuring (Dolnicar/Yanamandram/Cliff 2012, p. 63). Figure 9 shows the occurrence of particular quality of life spheres. “Work and material well-being” and “health” were included in all “item batteries”. Thus, they are perceived as the most valid indicators of quality of life. “Family and love”, “leisure and recreational activities”, “social life” as well as “education” and “learning” are represented in 50% or more of all measures. Other areas were perceived as less important. Interestingly, vacations are not viewed as an important indicator of quality of life, unless it is comprised in the leisure domain (Dolnicar/Yanamandram/Cliff 2012). Dolnicar, Yanamandram and Cliff (2012, p. 64) conclude with the following assumptions:

- Quality of life consists of several domains in everyday life and is dependent on the satisfaction with the domains.
- According to the study, it is not obvious to determine the importance of particular domains, as the only universal domains are “work and material well-being” and “health”.
- Nearly “two thirds of test batteries” perceive “leisure and recreational experiences” are important with respect to quality of life.
- Holidays can either be perceived as a part of “leisure”, or they are not represented at all.

Domain	% of test batteries including domain
Work and material well-being	100%
Health	100%
Family and love	79%
Leisure and recreational experiences	64%
Social life	57%
Education / learning	50%
Neighborhood / community	36%
Spiritual life	29%
Goals (hopes for the future)	21%
Self-esteem / acceptance	14%
Safety	14%
Stress	14%
Transport	14%
Standard of living	14%
Vacations	7% (as a separate domain) 42% (when included as part of the Leisure domain)

FIGURE 9: FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE OF QUALITY OF LIFE DOMAINS (DOLNICAR/YANAMANDRAM/CLIFF 2012, P. 64).

The Effort-Recovery Theory (Meijman/Mulder 1998) states that every effort dedicated to work has particular side effects on the mental, emotional and physical state of each individual (Belkic/Landsbergis/Schnall/Baker 2004). Belkic et al (2004) point out that if the workload is too high and the relaxation insufficient, health and well-being are being negatively affected. Thus, holidays are crucial in order to preserve physical and psychological health in the long term (DeBloom/Geurts, Kompier 2012). It is often not possible to recover from work sufficiently without going on holidays. Longer periods of absence from work are needed for an overall recovery (DeBloom/Geurts/Kompier 2013).

The goal theory focuses on positive goals tourists might have during their holidays in order to make their trip more satisfactory. The main idea is that tourists select among particular goals which they believe might have a highly positive impact on their happiness and further engage into activities which help them to approach this goal. As a result, a satisfactory trip is believed to improve the overall quality of life. The following principles further describe the goal theory (Sirgy, K.J. 2010, p. 247):

- Goal valence: Following particular goals which are likely to cause strong positive feelings in certain life domains.
- Goal expectancy: Choosing among goals which are most likely to be achieved in order to increase the chances for satisfactory outcomes.
- Goal implementation: Being active, performing all necessary steps and acting accordingly in order to meet the desired goals.
- Goal attainment: Achieving the expected positive holiday experience by meeting the goal.

Holidays are important in order to “live and to survive” (Krippendorf 1986, p. 131). Kühnel and Sonntag (2011) discovered that the level of fatigue is significantly lower when coming home after a holiday than before the vacations. This phenomenon has already been perceived in an early study by Westman and Eden (1997). The duration of the holiday equally has an impact on the relaxation effects. Numerous studies proved that short holidays, of less than two weeks, hardly have an impact on happiness and life satisfaction (DeBloom/Geurts/Kompier 2013).

“Escape” is a very essential motivation in terms of holidaymaking. People tend to “travel away from something – from home, from everyday life”. Consequently, it is less important where people decide to travel, thus destinations are “interchangeable”. It only matters whether there is “snow for skiing”, “sun for tanning” “the sea for swimming” or “facilities for entertainment” (Krippendorf 1986, p. 132). However, service quality at the destination does matter. Neal, Sirgy and Uysal (1999) hypothesize that travel satisfaction is directly linked to happiness within basic life domains, such as family, work, friends, or physical and mental health. They propose a model (Figure 10) which visualizes the impact of travel-related and non-travel related domains on happiness. Holiday satisfaction includes experiences, as well as memories and services. Services can be divided into services before, during and after the vacations.

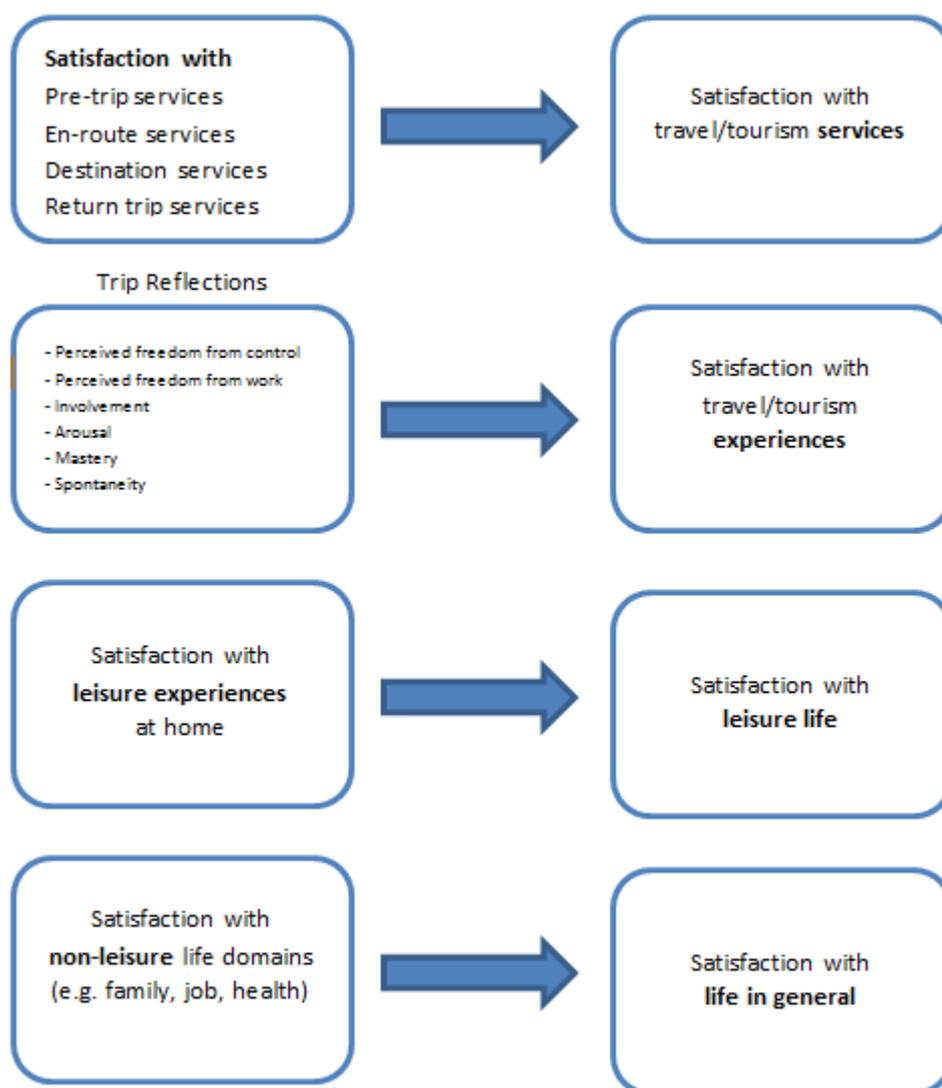


FIGURE 10: THE ROLE OF SATISFACTION WITH TOURISM SERVICES IN SATISFACTION WITH LEISURE AND OVERALL LIFE (NEAL/SIRGY/UYSAL 1999, P. 156).

Even though holiday experiences and post-holiday memories are most commonly causing a strong positive effect, the time before vacations is perceived as the most positive one. This occurrence is caused by the so called rosy view which suggests that the pre-holiday time is filled with positive expectations and hence higher levels of subjective well-being (Mitchell/Thompson/Peterson/Cronk 1997). At the same time, pre-trip periods cause lower satisfaction levels and higher levels of stress due to the increased amount of work which needs to be finished prior to departure (DeFrank/Konopaske/Ivancevich 2000). Apart from the increased amount of work in the job and at home, pre-vacation time equals preparation time, including planning, but also the actual travel to the destination which is frequently connected to high stress levels (Westman 2005).

After coming home from a holiday, tourists are “likely to reflect upon their trip experiences”. Frequently this happens by reflecting the circumstances that occurred during the vacation:

freedom from control, freedom from work, involvement, arousal, mastery, and spontaneity (Neal/Sirgy/Uysal 1999, p. 157). Unger and Kernan (1983) suggest five dimensions as a “basis of analysis” for the above mentioned phenomenon:

- Freedom: This dimension can be characterized either as “freedom from control” (something happening on a voluntary basis, without obligations) or “freedom from work” (capability to relax and rest without any obligations) (Unger/Kernan 1983, p. 383).
- Involvement: Neal, Uysal and Sirgy (1995, p. 146) define involvement as “the level of consumption or absorption in an activity (...) –the higher the level of consumption or absorption, the higher the level of involvement”.
- Arousal: This dimension discusses personal enthusiasm, motivation, delight and encouragement. New encounters and experiencing of new things during the holiday are serving as prominent examples for arousal (Neal/Sirgy/Uysal 1999, p. 157).
- Mastery: This dimension is achieved when a tourist can manage to meet a goal by conquering given situations. Even meeting the basic goal of the trip (i.e. to relax) can already provide the travelers with a feeling of mastery (Neal/Sirgy/Uysal 1999, p. 157).
- Spontaneity: Unger and Kernan (1983, p. 383) define spontaneity as “not routine, planned, or anticipated”. The change of travel intentions can serve as an example.

Yet, research has shown that relaxation effects and increased levels of happiness do not last for a long time after coming home from a trip (Nawijn/Marchand/Veenhoven/Vingerhoets 2010). Westman and Etzion (2001) found out that especially individuals with an unsatisfactory work-life balance experience a short relaxation effect of a maximum of one month after coming back from holidays. Moreover, vacations are not a purely positive time. Unpleasant events such as homesickness and a number of health-related complications can cause a decrease of holiday satisfaction (Kop/Vingerhoets/Kruithof/Gottdiener 2003; VanHeck/Vingerhoets 2007). Apart from health-related issues (Larsen/Brun/Ogaard 2009), tourists are likely to experience personal problems including family issues (Ryan 1991), as well as a culture shock (Pearce 1981).

Figure 11 shows the results of a survey conducted by Sirgy, Kruger, Lee and Yu (2010, pp. 265-267). The table demonstrates 13 domains of everyday life that are affected by vacationing, as well as positive and negative feelings emotions connected to each domain in relation to traveling (Sirgy/Kruger/Lee/Yu 2010, p. 265).

Life Domain	Sources of Positive Affect	Sources of Negative Affect
Social life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Meeting new people Making new friends Spending quality time with friends and sharing mutual interests Spending time away from home and family 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not enough time with new friends to get to know them better Having to deal with noxious behavior of accompanying persons Lacking enough personal time and space because of accompanying persons
Leisure and recreation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Engaging in a variety of recreational activities Experiencing new forms of recreational activities Mastering an ongoing recreational activity Getting a chance to do leisurely reading 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feeling tired and exhausted from expending too much energy on the recreational activities Having read too much, thus enjoyed less scenery
Family life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spending quality time with family Getting the whole family together Achieving balance between work and family life 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spending fun time on a trip without family and feeling negative about that Failing to get in touch with family because of telephone/mobile communication problems
Love life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spending quality time with significant other Strengthening personal relationship with significant other Visiting places considered as "romantic" spots with significant other Spending time alone without significant other – "Distance makes heart grow fonder" 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Failing to get in touch with significant other because of telephone/mobile communication problems Missing significant other Not being able to share the travel experience with significant other
Arts and culture	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learning about other cultures Learning to tolerate and appreciate people from other cultures Learning to appreciate one's own culture vis-à-vis other cultures Experiencing other cultures in the form of music, art, architecture, food and beverage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Failing to communicate with local people because of language Feeling disgusted toward people doing things that are unacceptable in one's culture Feeling that others met on the trip do not approve nor appreciate one's culture
Work life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feeling good to break away from the work routine Feeling good escaping the demands and constraints of the workplace Coming back to work feeling refreshed and energized Getting a chance to do some strategic thinking and planning about work during trip 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feeling forced to work during the trip, which took away from leisure time Not having any time during the trip to do some work Feeling stressed because the trip was interfering with work and deadlines Being forced to work during the trip Feeling of not wanting to go back to work and missing fun Feeling tired and exhausted coming back to work because the trip was tiring and exhausting
Health and safety	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feeling relaxed, rested, distressed Feeling mentally recharged after the trip Feeling that own health improved because the trip required physical activity 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feeling tired and exhausted Getting sick Gaining weight Worrying about catching a disease Worrying about safety and crime during the trip
Financial life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Judging that the trip was well worth the money spent Spending money specifically saved for travel Saving money by being thrifty and looking for bargains Learning how to budget 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spending too much money Lacking sufficient financial resources to fully enjoy the trip Returning home with significant debt Running out of money before the end of the trip Spending money on frivolous, unnecessary things
Spiritual life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Learning to appreciate nature Feeling close to God (given the trip is outdoors) Think about what is important in life Feeling good to share one's spiritual beliefs with others 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feeling that the trip is all about consumption and spending money, thus lacking the spiritual element Assessing one's life and realizing that one's life is adrift and had no purpose
Intellectual life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feeling that the trip was very educational and intellectually fulfilling 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not getting a chance to learn as much as one desired
Self	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spending time alone to enjoy doing things one likes best without the social pressure Spending time alone to learn more about oneself Learning to enjoy being by oneself without the significant other 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Missing one's significant other, friends and family Feeling bored and alone Feeling frustrated about making future plans without input of loved ones
Culinary life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enjoying good tasting food Eating healthy Experiencing new and exotic cuisines Experiencing new and exotic beverages 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Not having a variety of food items to choose from Not having food and beverages one is accustomed to
Travel life	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Being able to break away from daily routine Enjoying new places to visit Being outdoors and on the move Enjoying the travel and lodging accommodations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Feeling uneasy getting outside one's comfort zone Feeling tired and exhausted traveling from one place to another

FIGURE 11: SOURCES OF POSITIVE/NEGATIVE AFFECTS (SIRGY/KRUGER/LEE/YU 2010, PP. 261-275).

2.5 The impact of family on the relaxation effect of holidays

Vacations can build up family relations which in turn can improve “satisfaction with family life” (Nawijn 2011, p. 652). “Family holidays are seen as breaks away from busy everyday lives. They are supposed to be a relief from stress and chores, giving time for recovery and rest in the pleasant companionship of the family” (Gram 2005, p. 2). However, it is not always possible to please all family members at once. This may result in rather dissatisfactory holiday outcomes with at least one disappointed person. Additionally, vacations with children largely differ from those without children, however, regarding the fact that a large amount of parents are going on vacations with their children, she assumes that family vacations must primarily have positive effects (Gram 2005)

Interestingly, children are still not perceived as sufficiently important when it comes to the tourism industry, as they are not seen as decision makers. Fact is, however, that they have significant influence on their parents’ decisions, no matter if it concerns destination or vacation type choices although it is still being assumed that children have a substantial impact on all kinds of choices their parents make. Moreover, they play a crucial role in purchasing behavior in general, as parents usually tend to evade displeasure or even frustration of their children. Children are very important for the tourism industry, as they need to be amused especially during their regular time away from school. Although, researchers have already recognized the importance of children influence when it comes to amusement parks, it is crucial to also consider children as decision makers in choosing longer leisure holidays (Cullingford 1995). Children do not respond to any kinds of advertisements related to travelling to such an extent as their parents do, as these advertisements are usually not targeting children (Cullingford 1984). Instead, children are more focused on looking for destinations where they could find other children to play with as well as sand and the sea (Lawson 1988).

Cullingford (1995, pp. 124-126) investigated children’s attitudes and perceptions on certain destinations without directly involving vacations or travelling. The results have shown the following findings:

- Children tend to associate the United States of America with Disneyland. This is most probably due to the fact, that Disneyland is targeting children already by advertisement. Thus, it captures their attention:

“My friend, Isabel, she lived in America for a year and she said it was really good there and I think there’s lots to do there, like Disneyland.”

“I’d like to go to the sunny place ‘cos there’s three different Disney Worlds in America.”

- America is “bigger and better than Europe”. Children do not perceive the negative sides of the destination, but tend to see what is presented to them by television. America is “bigger and richer”. That is what children know from Walt Disney movies:

“It’s a richer country than this country. ‘Cos it’s a big country. They have loads of money. And they buy things.”

- Other destinations, such as Australia, are well-known for the “varied fauna”. Children know about the “kangaroos and crocodiles” as well as “boomerangs” and “natural wonders” from learning programs on television:

“I just like seeing the Koala bears. And I like to see the rain forest. Their language is different to us. But quite a lot of Australia is like us.”

- Children associate Ibiza, Lanzarote, Barbados and Spain with “the beach and the pool”:

“Sandy beaches and they have hotels with swimming pools and things”.

- Few children tend to realize the cultural heritage of the countries they travel to. Even destinations with very prominent culture sights, such as Egypt, are not being memorized for pyramids only:

“I would see the Sphinx and stuff. And there’s lots of sand to play in. All you have to do is go outside your door and there’s miles and miles of sand.”

- Also food seems to play an important role for the perception of a particular destination:

“In Greece, I know they eat snails, which is absolutely disgusting. I’ve been to Greece a million times and in the restaurants I’ve seen people eating snails.”

Children have different expectations from a good holiday than their parents. Parents tend to be the main “decision-makers”, yet the child’s impact ought not to be kept unnoticed (Wang/Hsieh/Yeh/Tsai 2004, p. 183). The Danish Tourism Development Centre carried out a survey in 2000, where children indicated that the main aim of vacations is any kind of activities, as well as playing with others, enjoying the sun, sand and sea. In a later survey from 2004, children pointed out that it is important to them to relax, play, spend time with their parents and do numerous activities such as water sports and swimming in particular (Gram 2004). Furthermore, a research showed that children need to be part of the activity (Nickerson/Jurowski 2001). Cullingford (1995, p. 123) concludes that for children “big hotels and a great deal of entertainment are more attractive than explorations of tropical rain forests”.

Adults have different expectations concerning vacations than their children do. Parents are mainly concerned about spending time together, having fun as a family and relax (Gram 2004), they also strive for an appropriate mix between passive and active relaxation, spend time together and make their children happy, as well as experience something new and unforgettable. (The Danish Tourism Development Centre 2000).

The most popular vacation type among families is the beach holiday, whereas urban vacations including sightseeing appear to be comparably rare (Gram 2005). A survey from 1999 shows an interesting combination of the desire for relaxation, including spending time alone, and the wish for being together with the family among German adults (Institut für Freizeitwirtschaft 1999). The interviewees chose among several statements. The two most commonly repeated were the following: "The great thing about holiday is for us that we have time for each other and can make things together" and "children have a lot more fun when they are with other children and do not always have to be with their parents" (Institut für Freizeitwirtschaft, 1999, p. 178). Nevertheless, it is obvious that parents have slightly different expectations concerning vacations than their children have. However, they also seem to have something in common. Gram (2005, p. 5) believes that finding "the right mix" is crucial in order to experience a satisfactory holiday.

3 HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

People with an overall low level of satisfaction experience a lower relaxation level during and right after their holidays. They also tend to have a worse home coming experience than people who are rather satisfied with their work-life balance. When the work and family sectors are not in balance, people tend to be less satisfied with their lives and tend to experience a worse subjective well-being. Thus, a holiday can be an agreeable getaway, but once the vacationers come home, they are facing the same everyday stress and this leads to a shortening of the relaxation effect of holidays. Happy people, who are satisfied with their work and life situation, tend to be less stressed about coming back to everyday life and thus experience a longer lasting relaxation effect. Thus, the following hypotheses can be derived:

- Hypothesis 1: People with a dissatisfactory work-life balance experience a shorter relaxation effect compared to people with a good work-life balance.
- Hypothesis 2: Individuals with a bad work-life balance tend to experience lower relaxation levels during their holidays compared to people who are more satisfied with their work-life balance, due to unpleasant thoughts connected to their everyday lives.
- Hypothesis 3: People who are not happy with their work-life balance have a worse home coming experience than those who report a more satisfying work-life balance.

4 MEASUREMENT OF CONSTRUCTS IN PAST RESEARCH

4.1 Measurement of constructs in past research

Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003) proposed a measurement of work-life balance based on three factors.

- A comparison of time spent at work and time spent with family.
- The involvement in work activities compared to the involvement in family.
- A comparison between life satisfaction at work and at home.

With this approach, Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003) gained an insight into a comparison of time, involvement, and satisfaction connected to work and family domains.

4.2 Measurement of effects of holidays

De Bloom et al. (2012) made use of interviews and questionnaires in order to retain information about the effects of holidays. Data were collected before, during and after the holiday. Before the holiday, participants were asked to fill in basic information such as demographics (e.g. age, marital status, education), basic job information (e.g. weekly work hours) and vacation characteristics (e.g. planned vacation duration and destination) (De Bloom/Geurts/Kompier 2012). In this thesis, all aspects were combined into one interview held after the holidays, thus making use of a retrospective view.

Study	Scales	Description
Cantril (1965)	Self-Anchoring Ladder (single item)	A nine-rung ladder is anchored at the top with "best life for you" and the bottom with "worst possible life for you". Respondent marks one rung.
Gurin, Veroff & Feld (1960)	Gurin Scale (single item)	To a question about how things are these days, respondent chooses among "very happy", "pretty happy" and "not too happy".
Andrews & Withey (1976)	Delighted-Terrible Scale (single item)	To a question about "how happy you feel about how happy you are", the respondent selects one of seven responses ranging from "delighted" to "terrible".
Lawton (1975)	PGCMS (multi-item, geriatric)	17-item scale measures lonely dissatisfaction, agitation, and attitude toward one's aging.
Morris & Sherwood (1975)	PGC-M (multi-item, geriatric)	Revision of the original PGCMS.
Neugarten, Havighurst & Tobin (1961)	LSI (multi-item, geriatric)	Factors measured include zest vs. apathy, resolution, fortitude, and congruence between desired and achieved goals.
Wood, Wylie & Sheafor (1969)	LSI-Z (multi-item, geriatric)	13-item revision of the LSI.
Kozma & Stones (1980)	MUNSH (multi-item, geriatric)	24-item scale measures positive and negative affect and experiences.
Tellegen (1979)	Differential Personality Questionnaire – Well-Being subscale (multi-item, general use)	21-item subscale of an omnibus personality inventory measures a combination of positive affect, positive attitudes, and optimism.
Campbell, Converse & Rodgers (1976)	Index of General Affect (multi-item, general use)	Subjects rate their lives on eight semantic differential scales such as enjoyable-miserable.
Underwood & Moore (1980)	Mood Survey (multi-item, general scale)	Two subscale measure hedonic level and hedonic variability or reactivity (16 items).
Dupuy (1978)	General Well-Being Schedule (multi-item, general use)	Seven specific aspects of well-being are assessed_ life satisfaction, health concerns, depressed mood, person-environment fit, coping, energy level, and stress.
Fordyce (1978)	Self-Description Inventory (multi-item, general use)	Several subscales are included: achieved personal happiness, happy personality, happiness values and attitudes, and happy life-style. Two forms are available that correlate .95.
Bradburn (1969)	Affect Balance Scale	10 items designed to measure both positive and negative affect.
Fordyce (1977)	Happiness Measures	Asks respondents to estimate the percent of time they are happy, unhappy, and neutral. Also include an 11-choice scale on which respondents rate overall happiness.
Kammann & Flett (1983)	Affectometer	Measures the frequency of positive and negative affect.
Larsen (1983)	Affect Intensity Measure	Measures the typical strength of intensity of a person's affective responses.
Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin (1983)	Satisfaction with Life Scale	Measures general life satisfaction and is suitable for all ages, from adolescents to adults.

FIGURE 12: SUBJECTIVE WELL-BEING SCALES (DIENER 1984, P. 546).

4.3 Measurement of subjective well-being

Diener (1984) points out that subjective well-being has been measured in various ways in the past, using a number of different scales. As subjective well-being has a prominent rank when it comes to assessing the overall quality of life (Campbell 1976), it is understandable that a number of the most commonly used measurement tools are single-item survey questions (Figure 12) (Diener 1984, p. 544). Diener (1984) also states that single scales, however, are usually not as consistent as multi-item scales. Multi-item scales (Figure 12) have been designed for older respondents in particular and thus are not appropriate for younger individuals. A phenomenon of the geriatric scales is that satisfaction issues are comprised that are not, measurement tools of subjective well-being (George 1979; Larson 1978).

4.4 Demographic variables

- **Age:** Early research proved that younger individuals have a higher level of overall life satisfaction than older people (Bradburn/Caplovitz 1965). However, more recent results indicate that there is no effect of the age component when it comes to happiness and additionally numerous scientists found more evidence for a positive relationship between age and happiness (Bortner/Hultsch 1970). Braun (1977) discovered that younger people tend to have higher levels of emotionality, whereas older people are experiencing a higher life satisfaction in general. The studies came to partly contradictory conclusions. This was caused by either a usage of “narrow age ranges”, or by the fact that most research has not considered other covariates (Cameron 1975). Thirdly, the studies could have been cross-sectional and short-time; therefore they may mirror cohort alterations instead of age variances (Knapp 1976).
- **Gender:** Female respondents tend to experience more negative emotions; however they also experience higher levels of happiness (Braun 1977; Cameron 1975). Consequently, there are hardly any differences between male and female respondents when it comes to overall life satisfaction (Andrews/Withey 1976). Furthermore, research has shown that younger female respondents tend to be happier than male and older female respondents less satisfied than older male (Medley 1980).
- **Employment:** According to Campbell et al. (1976) individuals who are unemployed tend to be less satisfied with their overall life than those who are employed. Thus it can be assumed that being unemployed has a strong negative influence on the happiness of a majority of people (Diener 1984). Diener (1984, p. 555) also posits that unhappiness caused by unemployment goes “beyond the obvious financial difficulties involved”. Nevertheless, Wright (1978) states that there is no difference between home-based and paid jobs.
- **Marital Status:** In general, previous studies have shown that married individuals tend to be more satisfied with life than single persons. Numerous studies demonstrate that married

women face a larger amount of stress than those who are not married, however, they indicate to be happier (Glenn 1975).

5 DATA COLLECTION

The data for this master thesis were collected through conducting oral interviews. The psychological nature of this study demands in-depth information. It is for this reason that written questionnaires are not suitable and interviews have been chosen instead. Respondents are generally more willing to think about subjective well-being and reflect retrospectively on their last holiday when giving the opportunity to discuss their experience in person. The interviewees were asked questions concerning their past holidays, the coming home experience and their overall life satisfaction with particular focus on the work-life balance. A written questionnaire would most likely provide less accurate information, as the retrospective view often tends to be slightly different from the actual reality and there would be a risk of receiving only positive answers about holiday satisfaction and subjective well-being as well as work-life balance. Interviews enable a more individual way of data collection. The oral questionnaire will ease the process of quantitative data analysis, as it includes scale questions as well as open-ended questions. SPSS data processing is crucial since qualitative analysis only provides a purely interpretive perspective. That is why a combination of quantitative and qualitative analysis has been chosen.

6 INTERVIEWS

The beginning of the interviews was dedicated to more general questions, whereas towards the end, respondents faced more in-depth questions. As the data were quantitatively and qualitatively analyzed, interviewees were asked to provide accurate information about life satisfaction and perception of their work-life balance as well as a retrospective evaluation of their last holiday. Questionnaire tools were used to ease the subtraction of the data and furthermore the data were entered into SPSS. All interviews were transcribed, however only short passages are used in this thesis in order to ensure the anonymity of people interviewed.

Control questions were part of the interview. They provide information about the interviewee's subjective well-being. The answers to these questions include hidden information about the respondent's well-being and contain the following correlates: absence from work, watching television, drinking alcohol and smoking cigarettes.

The interviews consist of a set of questions chosen in order to best analyze the balance between work and life domains as well as the effect of holidays and the relaxation effect. A majority of the questions were designed as scale questions enabling statistical data analysis. However, apart from some open-ended questions, respondents were equally encouraged to make comments on every question and add details, so that a qualitative analysis can be supportively made.

The interviewees provided information about the actual time they typically spend with particular life domains. According to Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003) this kind of information provides basic information needed in order to understand job involvement and the time balance between job and leisure time as well as time dedicated to family life and friends. The set of questions including hard facts about time dedicated to particular life domains comprised the following:

- Hours spent with work (weekly)
- Weeks of holidays (annually)
- Hours spent with family (weekly)
- Hours dedicated to hobbies (weekly)
- Days absent from work (annually)

Interviewees were further asked to evaluate some aspects of their lives. The questions were partly chosen based on Greenhaus, Collins and Shaw (2003).

- Time spent at work
- Job enjoyment
- Job satisfaction in terms of self-realization
- Thoughts about leaving job
- Ideas for changes in the current employment
- Happiness with the amount of time spent with family
- Happiness with the amount of time dedicated to hobbies
- Satisfaction with work-life balance
- Thoughts about the importance of work-life balance
- Time dedicated to sports
- Time dedicated to watching television
- Frequency of drinking alcohol
- Amount of cigarettes

Moreover, respondents were asked to think about their last holiday. First of all, general questions were asked in order to encourage the interviewee to remember his/her last vacation as well as possible:

- When was the holiday?
- Where did you go?
- How many days did you spend on holiday?
- Which activities did you do?
- Who accompanied you?
- What did you like about the holiday?
- What did you dislike about the holiday?
- Would you recommend the destination/hotel to your friends?
- What was the main motivation for you to go on holiday?

Participants were asked to think more thoroughly about their past holiday in terms of relaxation:

- Feelings months before holiday
- Feelings week before holiday
- Feelings during the holiday
- Thoughts about work during the holiday
- Work-related emails during the holiday
- Feelings the last two days of the holiday
- Feelings the day of coming home
- Feelings about going back to work
- Duration of the relaxation effect

Finally, some concluding questions were asked:

- Expectations
- Feelings before and after the holiday
- Particular emotions including the everyday life

The quantitative analysis of the data was carried out in SPSS using crosstables and frequencies. These statistic tools have been chosen in regard of the small amount of interviews that were done.

7 RESPONDENTS

The target population has been chosen according to convenience and snowball sampling and consisted of 16 employed Austrians. Based on De Bloom et al.'s (2013) research method, participants were asked to answer basic demographic questions: age, gender, nationality, marital status, children, highest education and occupation.

Age and gender provide information about possible significant differences between age and gender groups. However, in this case, the respondent group is too small for detecting any kind of age related differences. Nationality is of minor importance, as the survey will only focus on Austrian citizens in order to avoid cultural differences that could distort the results. Marital status, children and occupation are crucial, as work-family balance is one of the important parts of the survey.

- Gender: The sample consists of 8 men and 8 women. This provides a convenient distribution of 50:50 (table 1).

Gender	Frequency
Male	8
Female	8

TABLE 1: GENDER.

- Age: All respondents were between 20 and 42 years old. Thus, the typical respondent was 29,5 years old (table 2).

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Age	20	42	29.5

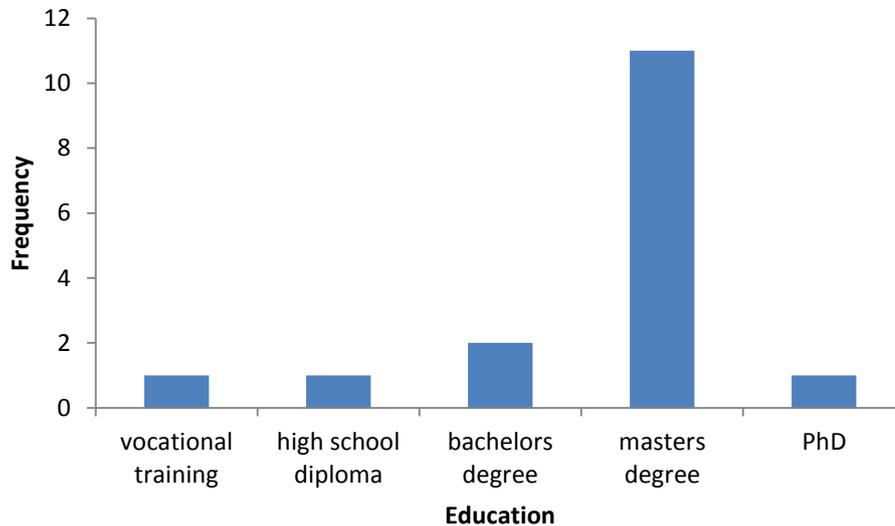
TABLE 2: AGE.

- Relationship status: 7 respondents indicated to be single, 7 in a relationship and 2 married (table 3).

Relationship status	Frequency
Single	7
In a relationship	7
Married	2

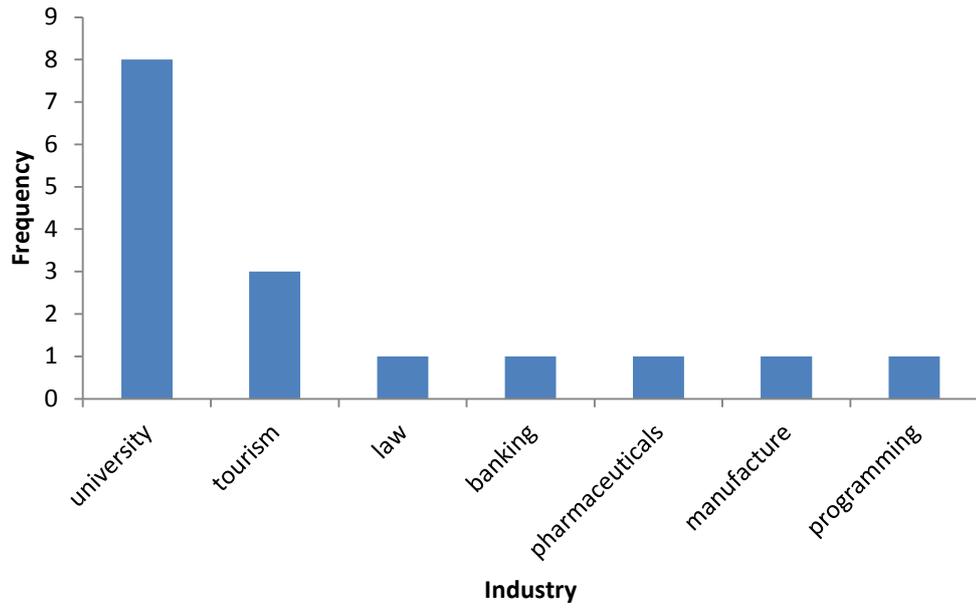
TABLE 3: RELATIONSHIP STATUS.

- Children: Only 2 interviewees stated to have children.
- Education: The level of education was distributed as follows (graph 1): 1 vocational training, 1 high-school diploma, 2 bachelor's degrees, 11 master's degree and 1 PhD.



GRAPH 1: HIGHEST EDUCATION.

- Occupation: The interviewees were representatives of various industries (graph 2):
 - o 8 university employees: 5 researchers, 1 assistant professor, 1 program manager and 1 secretary
 - o 3 from the tourism sector: 1 front office manager, 1 front office supervisor and 1 travel agent
 - o 1 PC programmer
 - o 1 bank director
 - o 1 notary
 - o 1 pharmacist
 - o 1 process manager working in the field of manufacture.



GRAPH 2: OCCUPATION / INDUSTRY.

8 RESULTS

This study faces two main limitations. As Kahneman and Krueger (2006) point out that the interpretation of retrospective memories requires the respondent to correctly analyze a set of experiences and explain them accurately. People tend to classify a past event as either good or bad. The evaluation is more likely to fall into black and white schemes than in retrieving actual events. Moreover, individuals are more likely to remember pleasant events, rather than unpleasant events. "Individuals' choices are affected by their remembered utility" (Kahneman/Krueger 2006, pp. 4-6). Kahneman and Krueger (2006) further point out the difficulty of interpretation of answers related to satisfaction and happiness. They argue that "life satisfaction is neither a direct, verifiable experience nor a known personal fact like one's address or age". Subjective well-being is a "global retrospective judgment" which is dependent on the respondent's actual mood, emotions and memory as well as by the "immediate context" (Kahneman/Krueger 2006: p. 6).

Furthermore, there is a risk that respondents misunderstand some questions or interpret them in another way. All answers are subjective as all data involving people are subjective in both, understanding and the individual way of perceiving things and various phenomena. Hence, for one person one situation can be perceived as stressful, whereas for another person the same situation can be seen as rather relaxing. Therefore, it is not obvious to measure these findings, especially as they are connected to subjective feelings and emotions.

The limited amount of 16 interviews can be seen as another obstacle. Due to the small sample size, the findings might not necessarily be generalizable to larger populations. However, the outcome of the survey can certainly provide an idea about the trends and will show whether there is a difference in between the duration of the relaxation effect between individuals with a high level of subjective well-being and those with a low level of subjective well-being. In order to gain a more meaningful outcome, a larger population would be needed. In the context of this study this, however, was not feasible. Frequencies and crosstables as well as one Mann-Whitney U Test were used in order to provide an idea about directions of the outcomes. The results of the statistical analysis are further supported by qualitative findings.

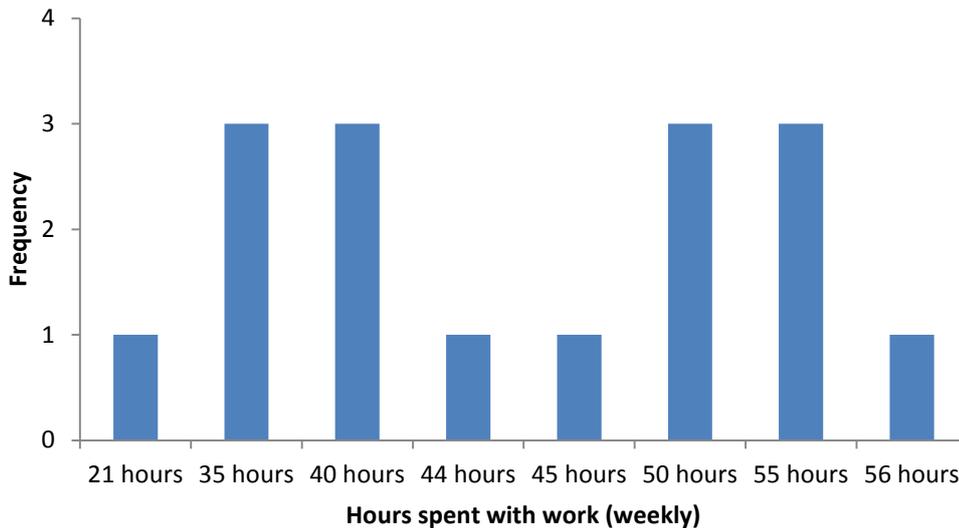
8.1 Time spent with life domains

All 16 respondents were asked to provide information about the actual time they spend with work and free time activities as well as the amount of holiday weeks and days absent from work.

Table 4 and graph 3 visualize the amount spent with the work domain, including work in employment as well as work from home. Interestingly, 6 respondents answered to spend only 35 or 40 hours per week with work, whereas 6 respondents indicated 50 or 55 hours per week. Furthermore, it can be concluded that having a full-employment time of 40 hours a week in Austria, then only 7 of the respondents have adequate working hours. 9 respondents either work overtime or tend to additionally work at home.

Hours spent with work per day	Frequency
21	1
35	3
40	3
44	1
45	1
50	3
55	3
56	1

TABLE 4: HOURS SPENT WITH WORK, BOTH EMPLOYMENT AND WORK FROM HOME (WEEKLY).



GRAPH 3: HOURS SPENT WITH WORK, BOTH EMPLOYMENT AND WORK FROM HOME (WEEKLY).

Table 5 shows the amount of holiday weeks per year and individual. Nearly a half of all respondents indicated to have five weeks of holidays, which is an amount given by the Austrian law. However, 8 interviewees take less than 5 weeks, whereas one respondent takes more.

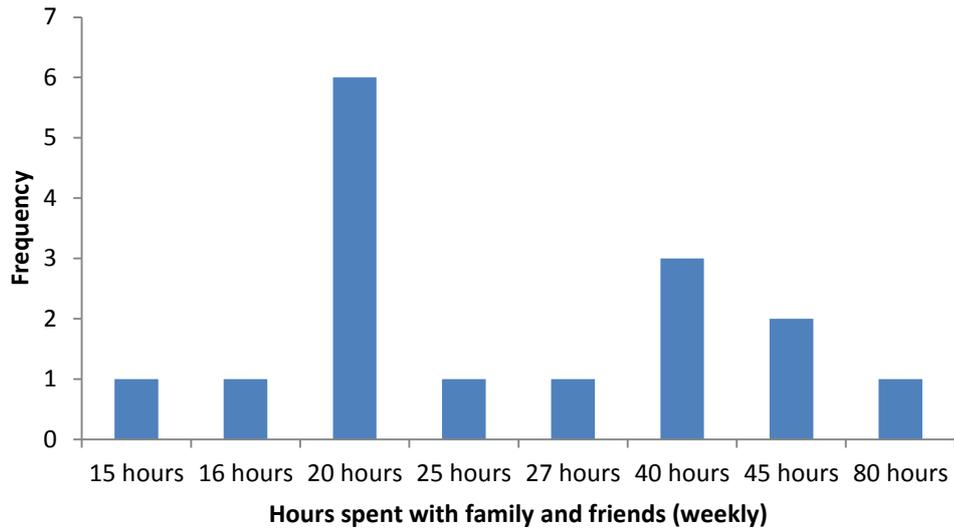
Weeks of holidays per year	Frequency
2	1
3	4
4	3
5	7
6	1

TABLE 5: WEEKS OF HOLIDAYS PER YEAR.

Further, respondents were asked to define the average amount of hours they spend with family and friends every week (table 6 and graph 4). Most commonly, in 6 of all cases, people spend 20 hours per week with their families and friends which is much less than the average working time. A large part of the interviewees spends 40 or 45 hours per week with their families and friends which is as much as the usual time spent in full-time employment in Austria.

Hours spent with family per week	Frequency
15	1
16	1
20	6
25	1
27	1
40	3
45	2
80	1

TABLE 6: HOURS SPENT WITH FAMILY AND FRIENDS (WEEKLY).

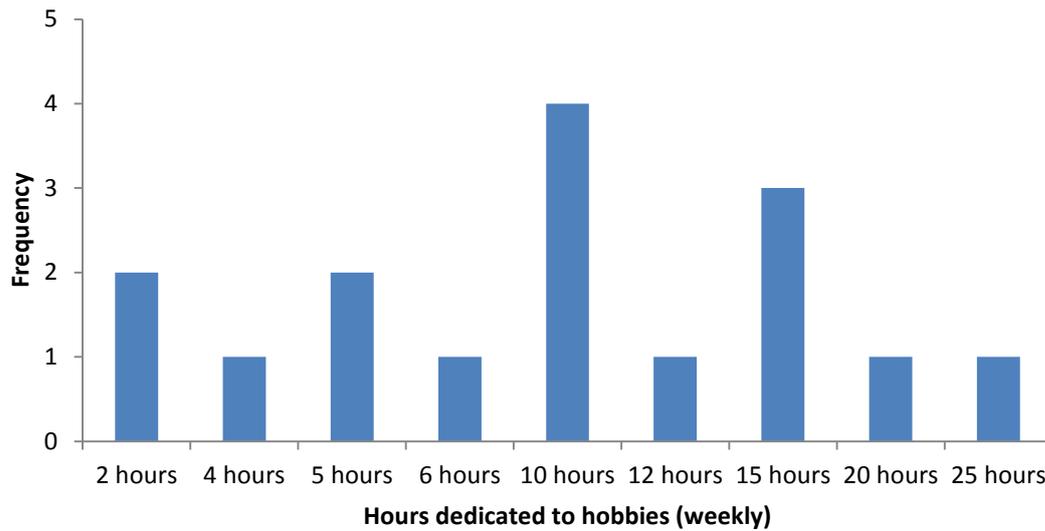


GRAPH 4: HOURS SPENT WITH FAMILY AND FRIENDS (WEEKLY).

Moreover, the approximate time dedicated to free time activities, hobbies and interests were investigated in the survey (table 7 and graph 5). In 10 cases, respondents specified that they only devote 10 or less hours per week to their interests and hobbies. 6 respondents spend at least 12 hours per week with various hobbies and free time activities.

Hours dedicated to hobbies per week	Frequency
2	2
4	1
5	2
6	1
10	4
12	1
15	3
20	1
25	1

TABLE 7: HOURS DEDICATED TO HOBBIES (WEEKLY).

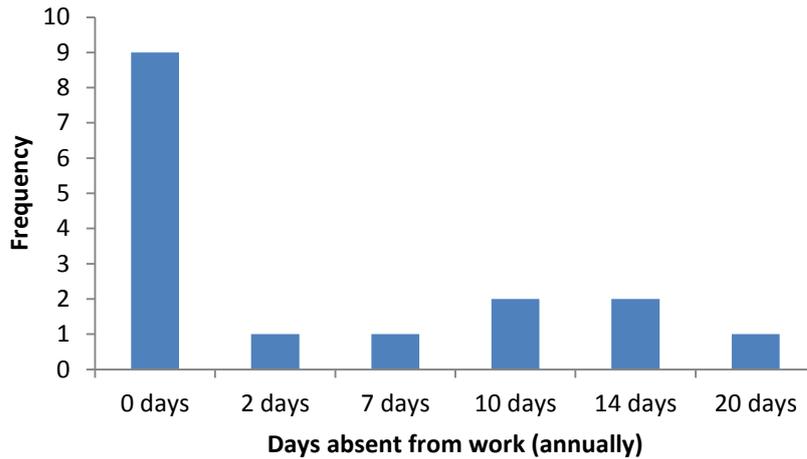


GRAPH 5: HOURS DEDICATED TO HOBBIES (WEEKLY).

Table 8 and graph 6 visualize the amount of days absent from work due to health related problems. More than a half of all interviewees state to have no absenteeism from work at all. This is a very interesting finding, suggesting three possible explanations. First, working people do not suffer from any kind of health complications. Second, they enjoy their job so much that they simply do not want to be absent even though they might be sick from time to time. Or third, people cannot afford to stay at home when being ill, as the amount of work is overwhelming. However, as the differences are minor, especially with respect to the limited sample size, these tendencies cannot be counted as real indicators. Hence, the above mentioned statements can only serve as possible explanations for a particular case.

Absenteeism days per year	Frequency
0	9
2	1
7	1
10	2
14	2
20	1

TABLE 8: DAYS ABSENT FROM WORK (ANNUALLY).



GRAPH 6: DAYS ABSENT FROM WORK (ANNUALLY).

Additionally, it can be mentioned that work-life balance does have an impact on absenteeism from work. Table 9 shows that people who are happy with their work-life balance tend to have no absenteeism at all, whereas individuals with a bad balance between work and family life tend to be absent from work more frequently. Overall, 10 out of 16 respondents reported to be happy with their work-life balance. Out of those, 6 indicated no absenteeism at all, which in this case means an over-representation, whereas only 4 of them were absent which indicates an under-representation of this particular group ($p=0.696$).

Absenteeism and satisfaction with work-life balance				
		Satisfaction with work-life balance		Total
		satisfied	dissatisfied	
Absenteeism	non-absent	6	3	9
	absent	4	3	7
Total		10	6	16

TABLE 9: DAYS ABSENT FROM WORK AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK-LIFE BALANCE.

A comparison between the actual time spent with work and the subjective perception of the time spent with work shows a significant positive correlation. Thus, those individuals who spent more time at work objectively also tend to perceive the amount of time spent as work as high subjectively (table 10).

Conversely, the time spent with family and friends, as well as the time spent with interests and hobbies do not correspond to the emotional perception of the time actually spent with those life domains. Both results are not significant. They only show a negative direction, which in the case of time spent with family and friends is very weak (table 11), whereas in case of hobbies

slightly stronger (table 12). This result might be caused by an interesting phenomenon. The more time people dedicate to free time activities the more dissatisfied they seem to be with that amount of time. Hence, the more time they actually spend with interests, the more they eventually want.

Correlation hours spent with work per week and perceived time spent at work

Correlation	Significance two tailed
0.577	0.019

TABLE 10: SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE MEASURES OF TIME SPENT WITH WORK.

Correlation hours spent with family per week and happiness with family time

Correlation	Significance two tailed
-0.081	0.765

TABLE 11: SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE MEASURES OF TIME SPENT WITH FAMILY AND FRIENDS.

Correlation hours dedicated to hobbies per week and happiness with hobbies time

Correlation	Significance two tailed
-0.393	0.132

TABLE 12: SUBJECTIVE AND OBJECTIVE MEASURES OF TIME SPENT WITH FREE TIME ACTIVITIES.

8.2 Demographic variables and the relaxation effect of holidays

Some of the demographic variables, such as gender, relationship status and occupation can play an important role when it comes to the relaxation effect of holidays. Research has shown that women tend to report more negative feelings than men. Nevertheless they also experience higher levels of subjective well-being (Braun 1977; Cameron 1975). Consequently, there should be no major differences between men and women when it comes to happiness (Andrews/Withey 1976). The results of this thesis show minor differences between men and women (table 13). Female respondents tend to have slightly longer relaxation effects than male respondents. Nonetheless, the difference is so small that it can be assumed that there are no significant differences between the two groups ($p=0.317$).

Gender and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Gender	female	3	5	8
	male	5	3	8
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 13: GENDER AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT AFTER HOLIDAYS.

In general, previous research has proven that married individuals tend to be happier with their overall life than single individuals. Numerous studies determine that married women, in particular, report larger levels of stress than those who are single, however, they state to be happier (Glenn 1975). For the purpose of this study, respondents were divided into two groups: those who are single and those who are in a relationship or married (table 14). 50% of the 16 respondents reported a short relaxation effect and 50% had a long relaxation effect. Out of those who experience a short relaxation effect, 5 stated to be single and 3 in a relationship, whereas only 2 out of those who had a long relaxation effect were single which is an under-representation compared to the 6 respondents living in a relationship. Hence, singles seem to have shorter relaxation effects than people who are in a relationship or married ($p=0.131$)

Relationship status and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Relationship status	single	5	2	7
	in a relationship	3	6	9
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 14: RELATIONSHIP STATUS AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT AFTER HOLIDAYS.

Wright (1978) believes that there is no difference between employment and work performed at home. However, there might be differences when it comes to different kinds of employment and various industries. In this study, respondents were divided into those who work at a university and those who work in other industries. University employees are thought to have more freedom in time management and thus are more likely to have a better work-life balance in general. This assumption is visualized in table 15. 10 out of 16 respondents stated to be

happy with their work-life balance. Out of those, 6 were university employees and only 4 were non-university employees. Thus, university employees are over-represented in the satisfaction column ($p=0.302$).

Industry and satisfaction with work-life balance				
		Satisfaction with work-life balance		Total
		satisfied	dissatisfied	
Industry	university employee	6	2	8
	non-university employee	4	4	8
Total		10	6	16

TABLE 15: INDUSTRY AND THE SATISFACTION WITH WORK-LIFE BALANCE.

Table 16 illustrates that university employees are more satisfied in terms of self-realization than non-university employees. 7 out of all respondents reported to be satisfied in terms of self-realization. 4 of those were university employees and 3 working in different sectors. Hence, university employees are slightly over-represented. However, the difference is very weak and not significant ($p=0.614$). Self-realization can be seen as a predictor of work-life balance as it indicates job satisfaction levels.

Industry and self-realization				
		Self-realization		Total
		satisfied	less satisfied	
Industry	university employee	4	4	8
	non-university employee	3	5	8
Total		7	9	16

TABLE 16: INDUSTRY AND SELF-REALIZATION.

Industry and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Industry	university employee	4	4	8
	non-university employee	4	4	8
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 17: INDUSTRY AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT AFTER HOLIDAYS.

However, when it comes to relaxation effects of holidays, the results did not show any trends in any particular direction. University employees seem to have the same duration of relaxation effects as any other employee. Consequently, the industry type does, according to the results, not have any impact on relaxation effects at all (table 17).

Further demographic variables have not been considered. The age differences are not high, as the youngest respondent was 20 and the oldest 42. Moreover, the sample is too small in order to run age-related testing. Nationality and thus cultural differences in this study are not relevant either, as all respondents were Austrian citizens. Children could have played a role, however, only two interviewees stated to have children. Hence, no testing could be done either. Finally, the variable highest education has been used. Again, no interesting differences could be detected as the sample is too small and most of the respondents were graduates.

8.3 Work-life balance and the relaxation effect of holidays

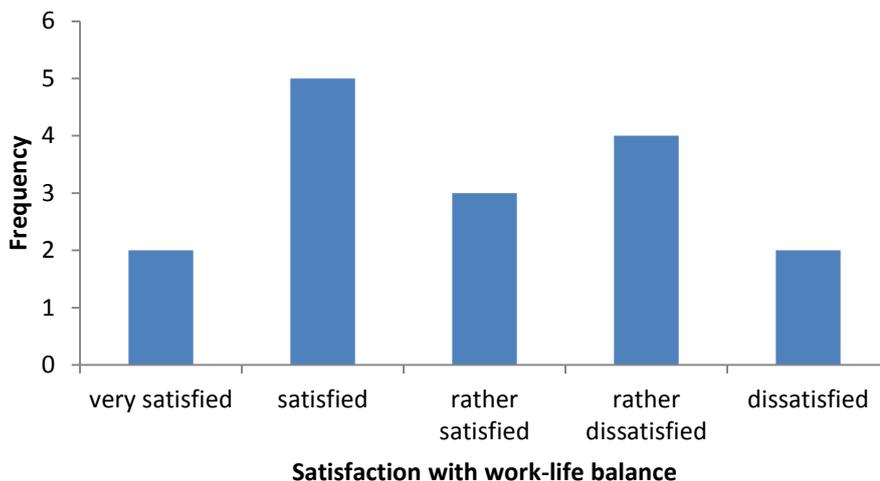
In order to empirically test hypothesis 1, a number of statistical tests have been performed.

- *Hypothesis 1: People with a dissatisfactory work-life balance experience a shorter relaxation effect compared to people with a good work-life balance.*

A major component for testing the impact of work-life balance on the relaxation effect of holidays was the subjective satisfaction with work-life balance (interview question 10) and the duration of the relaxation effect (interview question 33). Table 18 and graph 7 show the distribution of satisfaction with the balance between life domains. 10 respondents stated to be more or less satisfied with the balance between their work and free time activities, whereas 6 stated to be rather dissatisfied or satisfied. Interestingly, no interviewee indicated to be very dissatisfied.

Satisfaction with work-life balance	Frequency
Very satisfied	2
Satisfied	5
Rather satisfied	3
Rather dissatisfied	4
Dissatisfied	2

TABLE 18: SATISFACTION WITH WORK-LIFE BALANCE.



GRAPH 7: SATISFACTION WITH WORK-LIFE BALANCE.

A closer look at table 19 shows the duration of the relaxation effect of the last holiday. Apart from one outlier of 30 days, most respondents indicated a much shorter relaxation effect. 10 interviewees experienced a relaxation effect shorter than one week. This finding corresponds to the study of Westman and Etzion (2001) who argue that people with a misbalance of life domains tend to have a short relaxation effect of less than a month. Moreover, the duration of the respondents’ holidays did not exceed 17 days with the exception of one outlier. As De Bloom, Geurts and Kompier (2013) state, the length of a holiday is crucial in terms of relaxation effects. Previous research demonstrated holidays of two weeks or less hardly have an influence on the relaxation effects of holidays.

Duration of relaxation effect (days)	Frequency
0	2
1	4
3	2
6	2
10	3
17	2
30	1

TABLE 19: DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT AFTER THE LAST HOLIDAY.

In order to take account of one outlying observation (relaxation effect of 30 days) a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted. Descriptive statistics show that there is a tendency for people

who are satisfied with their work-life balance to have a slightly longer relaxation effect (9.4 days) than those who are less satisfied (3.7 days). However, the results can only be used as a tool for indicating directions and trends, as Mann-Whitney U tests are usually performed with larger test samples. Moreover, the test is not significant ($p=0.368$). Hence, the null hypothesis that there are no differences cannot be rejected.

Null Hypothesis	Test	Significance	Decision
The distribution of duration of relaxation effect (days) is the same across categories of satisfaction with work-life balance	Independent samples Mann-Whitney U Test	0.368	Retain the null hypothesis

TABLE 20: MANN-WHITNEY U TEST (1).

Satisfaction with work-life balance	Total	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error mean	
Duration of relaxation effect (days)	Satisfied	10	9.4	9.7	3.1
	Dissatisfied	6	3.7	3.7	1.5

TABLE 21: MANN-WHITNEY U TEST (2).

As a further step, all data has been transformed into suitable categories in order to prepare them for crosstable testing, which in this case, is the most suitable statistical tool. Crosstables were further used for all testing procedures in order to visualize trends of the results. In all cases, significant findings cannot be expected, as the sample was too small, however, qualitative findings are used in order to support the direction detected by quantitative testing. Furthermore, due to the coding procedure, crosstables are resistant against outliers.

The variable relaxation effect has been transformed into a dichotomous variable with the categories short relaxation effect (0-3 days) and long relaxation effect (6-30 days). The short relaxation effect has been chosen among responses which indicated shorter effects than one week (8 respondents), whereas long relaxation effect encompasses answers indicating longer effects than one week (8 respondents). Likewise, satisfaction with work-life balance includes two categories: satisfied (very satisfied, satisfied and rather satisfied) and dissatisfied (rather

dissatisfied, dissatisfied and very dissatisfied). Table 22 visualizes the results of a crosstabulation of the chosen variables.

Satisfaction with work-life balance and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Satisfaction with work-life balance	satisfied	4	6	10
	dissatisfied	4	2	6
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 22: SATISFACTION WITH WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT AFTER THE LAST HOLIDAY.

Although not significant, the results show that 6 out of 8 respondents having a long relaxation effect are the ones who state to be satisfied with their work-life balance. Thus, there is an obvious trend for satisfied people to have longer relaxation effects of holidays than for those who are less satisfied ($p=0.302$).

The following examples of respondents who state to be satisfied with their work-life balance prove the direction shown in table 22. These respondents reported longer relaxation effects than those who are dissatisfied:

“I would say maybe one or two weeks. No longer than that. After that time, my thoughts are already back at work and the relaxation effect is gone” (interview 1).

“Definitely more than two weeks. Maybe it was caused by the fact that we did not have so much stress at work in general, but I remember that I felt relaxed for quite some time” (interview 6).

“One week... or maybe two. But not more. For the first one or two weeks I still felt like being on a holiday a little bit, I enjoy talking about it. Then it’s gone” (interview 15).

“More than two weeks, I’d say...” (interview 8).

Dissatisfied individuals perceive the duration of the relaxation effect as much shorter than people who are happy with their work-life balance:

“Physically I feel good for quite some time. Mentally it was much worse. I’d say that the relaxation effect is basically gone after the first stressful day at work. The first day at work is ok. The colleagues try not to bother you that much with unnecessary stuff, but after 2 or 3 days, everything is over” (interview 2).

“Maybe one day. Once I am back at work, there is no relaxation effect anymore” (interview 11).

“Not at all... or one day. I felt depressed because of being back” (interview 16).

Remarkably, respondents who stated to have a satisfactory work-life balance did not seem to remember the after-trip phase very well compared to individuals with work-life dissatisfaction. This phenomenon may be caused by the fact that satisfied people do not perceive the difference as too large, whereas for dissatisfied individuals the gap between holiday and everyday life is very large. Hence, due to this “shock” they usually remember their after-holiday time much more detailed.

The subjectively perceived time spent at work (interview question 3) can be seen as another indicator of work-life balance and thus a comparison between the duration of relaxation effects and the time spent at work is visualized in table 23. 8 out of 16 people reported to have a short relaxation effect. Out of those, only 3 stated to spend adequate time at work whereas 5 believe that they spend too much time at work. According to the findings, individuals who think that they are spending an adequate amount of time at work tend to experience a longer relaxation effect of holidays than those who believe that they spend too much time at work. Again, the result should only be perceived as a direction of a possible trend, as the result is not significant ($p=0.614$).

Time spent at work and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Time spent at work	adequate time at work	3	4	7
	too much time at work	5	4	9
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 23: PERCEPTION OF TIME SPENT WITH WORK AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT AFTER THE LAST HOLIDAY.

The following statements support the above mentioned trends. People who are satisfied with the amount of time spent with work experienced a longer relaxation effect than people who are dissatisfied with the amount of time spent with work:

“At least one week. People at work asked questions about the holiday and I still had a holiday feeling. I think that after holiday I am always a bit more relaxed at work” (interview 9).

Individuals who are rather dissatisfied with the amount of time spent with work report much shorter relaxation effects than people who are happier:

“One day I think. Until I went back to work actually. After that I felt stressed again” (interview 4).

“The relaxation effect is quickly gone, because of the stress which is always there when it comes to work” (interview 10).

“I had absolutely no relaxation effect. Or maybe one day before I had to work again” (interview 14).

As stated before, people who are reporting more working hours per day tend to also report dissatisfaction with the time spent with work. Consequently, the actual amount of time actually spent at work shows similar trends when it comes to the duration of relaxation effects of holidays. There is a negative correlation (-0.352), meaning that the more a person has to work per week, the shorter the relaxation effect after holidays. This effect could be perceived as slightly significant on a 10% significance level. Since the initial hypothesis states a direction, the obtained p-value can be divided by 2 ($0.181/2=0.0905$).

The happiness with the amount of time spent with family and friends as well as interests and hobbies are not showing any particular trends with respect to the duration of relaxation effects.

In line with the above mentioned findings, hypothesis one can be supported. However, in order to retrieve significant results a larger test sample would be needed. Nonetheless, the directions are clearly shown in this study. People with an unsatisfactory work-life balance tend to have a shorter duration of the relaxation effect than those who are satisfied.

8.4 Other variables and their impact on the relaxation effect of holidays

A number of various variables can also play an important role when it comes to the duration of the relaxation effect of holidays. These variables include:

- Feelings months before the last holiday (interview question 25)
- Feelings one week before the last holiday (interview question 26)
- Work-related thoughts during the last holiday (interview question 28)
- Frequency of reading work-related emails during the last holiday (interview question 29)
- Feelings on the day of coming home from the last holiday (interview question 31)

- Feelings about going back to work after the last holiday (interview question 32)
- Duration of the last holiday (interview question 18)

Interestingly, when it comes to the feelings months before the last holiday, results show that those respondents who specified to have higher level of happiness months before their last holiday also report a shorter relaxation effect after that holiday (table 24). 7 out of 16 respondents felt good one month before the holiday. Out of those, 4 experienced a short relaxation effect and 3 reported a long relaxation effect. Consequently, people with a short relaxation effect, meaning less satisfied individuals, are over-represented in the group of those who felt good in the months before their last vacations. However, the difference is minor and a larger sample would be needed to support this finding ($p=0.614$). A possible explanation for this trend could be the fact that people who are less satisfied with their job and tend to have a worse work-life balance tend to look forward to their vacations much more than those who are rather satisfied with their everyday life. Hence, people who experience a misbalance of life domains tend to have a longer effect of the pre-trip phase and report a more intense rosy view. Research showed that also short happiness periods, caused by the so called rosy view, can have a positive impact on the pre-vacation period. However, it has to be noted that these positive feelings usually do not influence the overall well-being in the long run. Nonetheless, the rosy view represents a phenomenon where individuals report higher levels of happiness due to positive outlooks (Mitchell/Thompson/Peterson/Cronk 1997).

Feeling months before holiday and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Feeling months before holiday	good	4	3	7
	bad	4	5	9
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 24: FEELINGS MONTHS BEFORE THE LAST HOLIDAY AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT.

The qualitative findings correspond to the directions shown in the quantitative study. Interviewees who reported a long relaxation effect stated that they felt stressed months before their last holiday:

“I was extremely stressed. I remember that it was a very busy time at work” (interview 1).

“I felt very stressed and exhausted. I had large amounts of work to do and absolutely no time to relax” (interview 5).

“Certainly very tired. I had a lot of work to do” (interview 6).

Respondents who had a short relaxation effect reported that they felt quite good in the months before their last holiday:

“The months before the last holiday were really nice” (interview 3).

“That was a really relaxing period” (interview 7).

“Honestly... I felt good” (interview 11).

Remarkably, no effect can be described in the case of the feelings one week before the last holiday, as interviewees tend to have higher stress levels due to the approaching holiday. Especially the last days before a trip are likely to be full of stress factors and a decreased balance of certain life domains. Most commonly, this is caused by the increased amount of duties which need to be finished before vacations (DeFrank/Konopaske/Ivancevich 2000). Westman (2005) also believes that a certain discomfort may be caused by holiday planning and the packing and travel procedures. Subsequently, people are still looking forward and experience the effect of the rosy view, however, no matter whether they are usually stressed or relaxed or whether they have a good or bad work-life balance, they all face certain levels of stress. They all seem to experience more or less the same emotions and pressures. The groups are equally distributed (table 25).

Feeling one week before holiday and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Feeling one week before holiday	good	3	3	6
	bad	5	5	10
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 25: FEELINGS ONE WEEK BEFORE THE LAST HOLIDAY AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT.

Also the qualitative survey did not show any remarkable differences between people who have a short relaxation effect and those who have a long relaxation effect when it comes to their feelings one week before the holiday.

The qualitative survey does equally not show any differences between those who had a long relaxation effect and those who had a short relaxation effect when it comes to feelings one week before the last holiday. Both groups experienced higher stress levels due to work overload before vacations, however, they were also looking forward to the trip. Thus, it can be said that they experiences positive and negative emotions at the same time. People with long relaxation effects describe the week before their last holidays as follows:

"I was looking forward to the holiday, but somehow I was also quite stressed I must say. Let's say both. I had a lot to do at work as I knew that I am leaving soon. I had to finish quite some stuff and hand in some reports. On the other hand, I was motivated, because I knew that in one week it will be over for a couple of days" (interview 1).

"That was a relaxed week. Of course, I had to finish some tasks on time and prepare work before I leave which made the work more demanding than usual. But there was also a lot of anticipation. I was basically thinking about the trip all the time and that made me feel good" (interview 8).

"One week before a holiday is always a nice time, because I am looking forward to getting away from the everyday routine. I have to finish quite some tasks before I am leaving and call some people, but I must say that this is really no problem for me. That week I remember to have worked more than usually, but it was ok. I always have this kind of anticipation. It is nice to know that I can spend a few days with my family" (interview 13).

Individuals with a short relaxation effect reported approximately the same feelings:

"We had a number of deadlines. That is why I was rather stressed. Some things had to be handed over to colleagues as I was leaving for holiday. So probably I also had even more work than normally. On the other hand, I was looking forward to the trip very much. That's probably why it was not that stressful for me after all" (interview 7).

"One week before the holiday... I was already looking forward to the trip. It was a very stressful time. I had a lot to do. But, I kept thinking about the trip and was looking forward to all the relaxation" (interview 10).

"Not as stressed as usually. More delighted. I was looking forward to my holiday a lot. I had to work harder, because I did not want to have more work afterwards, but all in all I must say that knowing that the trip is approaching helps a lot" (interview 14).

Another factor that may have an impact on the duration of the relaxation effect is the extent to which people have to think about their work during the holiday, but also the frequency of reading work-related emails during the trip. Both variables influence the way individuals experience their holiday and thus may also have an impact on the effect of holidays. Table 26 shows that respondents who think about work during their holiday tend to have a longer relaxation effect than those who do not think about work. 9 out of 16 interviewees were thinking about work during their last holiday. 4 out of those had a short relaxation effect, whereas 5 experienced a long relaxation effect ($p=0.614$). In a similar vein, people who state that they were regularly reading work-related emails during their last holiday tend to have a longer relaxation effect ($p=0.614$). The statistical results correspond to the findings about work-related

thoughts (table 27). Again, both results hardly show any directions, as the differences are only of minor degree.

Think of work during holiday and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short re- laxation effect	long re- laxation effect	
Think of work during holiday	no	4	3	7
	yes	4	5	9
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 26: WORK-RELATED THOUGHTS DURING THE LAST HOLIDAY AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT.

Read work-related emails and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short re- laxation effect	long relaxa- tion effect	
Read work-related emails	no emails	4	3	7
	emails	4	5	9
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 27: WORK-RELATED EMAILS DURING THE LAST HOLIDAY AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT.

These findings can be supported by some of the qualitative outcomes of this thesis which show that people who are less satisfied with their work-life balance and thus have a shorter relaxation effect tend to forget about everything related to everyday problems and work in particular once they are on holidays. Contrarily, individuals with a better work life balance and a higher relaxation effect of holidays tend to read work-related emails more often as they do not perceive it as a factor causing higher stress levels. In general, less satisfied respondents tend to completely switch off and focus on relaxation whereas more satisfied interviewees admit to think about work quite frequently during their vacations. This assumption can be demonstrated by the following examples from the qualitative survey:

“I did have to think about my job, but not all the time. Probably more frequently towards the end though. I checked my mails daily. I mean... they are on my private phone, so I am basically forced to do so” (interview 6).

“A bit. I had to call somebody at work twice, but I tried not to do it too often. Anyway, at home I am also always online even if I am not at work. On holidays I try to reduce it. Concerning

emails, I only checked them at the end of the trip because I wanted to prepare for work and know what I can expect” (interview 12).

Respondents with a bad work-life balance and a short relaxation effect tend to forget about their everyday lives and do usually not read any work-related emails during their vacations:

“I did not have to think about work at all and I was not checking any work-related emails. When I am on holiday, I can manage to switch off” (interview 2).

Generally speaking, those who reported to have regularly read work-related emails, admit to have done so in order to feel better about going back to work. They felt better knowing what to expect after their holidays. Hence, in these cases, reading work-related emails turned out to have a rather positive effect on some respondents and consequently might have a good impact on the relaxation effect of holidays in general:

“In my opinion, there is a difference between the amount of emails you read and the amount of those you actually respond to. I only read them. That is a sort of a rule for me. If it’s not extremely important, I am not answering it when I’m on vacations. Anyway, I must say that reading emails has a positive effect for me. I know exactly what to expect when I come back to work. On one hand, it is true that I occupy my mind with work although it would not be necessary during a holiday, but it gives me some sort of security as well. The stress level is lower and the fear of going back to work as well. I can also sort of plan my first day” (interview 5).

“I checked my emails more often at the end of the holiday in order to get an idea about what to expect at work. But it was not stressful for me” (interview 12).

“I read my emails all the time. But I must say that it was nothing negative or so. On contrary, I even had to work a little bit and it was ok. At least I knew what’s going on at work” (interview 13).

Interestingly, once respondents realized that they are being asked questions about their well-being, they seemed to fall in black and white schemes. Hence, it happened quite frequently that they did not want to “lose their image” during the interview. This can be observed especially when looking at the above mentioned responses. Interviewees admitted to have checked their emails more or less frequently, but in particular those who felt to be in the satisfied category somehow tried to keep the image throughout the whole interview. Thus, even though they might have been annoyed by the regularity of reading work-related emails, they simply felt that they have to explain that it did not mean any stress to them. It is questionable though, to which extent work-related thoughts and emails may cause positive cognition.

Also, respondents reported to have thought about work and have read work-related emails more frequently towards the end of the holiday. Frequently, this phenomenon is linked to

stress levels which rise as the first working day is approaching, especially for those individuals who are less satisfied with their work-life balance.

Table 28 demonstrates that travelers who feel good about going back to work also tend to have a longer relaxation effect than those who feel bad about going back to work after their holiday. 10 out of 16 respondents felt good about going back to work. 4 out of those reported a short relaxation effect and 6 experienced a long relaxation effect ($p=0.302$). Hence, people who felt good are under-represented in the category short relaxation effect. This trend is obvious, as people who have negative emotions towards their job tend to be more stressed or even feared about returning back to their jobs after a relaxing holiday. Consequently, the relaxation effect is very short, as the bad feelings exceed the possible positive effect of holidays.

Feeling about going back to work and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Feeling about going back to work	good	4	6	10
	bad	4	2	6
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 28: FEELINGS ABOUT GOING BACK TO WORK AFTER THE LAST HOLIDAY AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT.

Duration of last holiday and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Duration of last holiday	one week or less	3	5	8
	more than one week	5	3	8
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 29: DURATION OF THE LAST HOLIDAY AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT AFTER THE HOLIDAY.

As shown in table 29, the duration of a holiday does not ensure longer relaxation effects, however these findings are equally not significant. 8 of all interviewees reported a duration of their last holiday of one week or less. 3 out of those of those had a short relaxation effect and 5 had a long relaxation effect more than one week ($p=0.317$).

Research has not proven any relationship between the length of the holiday and holiday satisfaction (Gilbert/Abdullah 2004; Kemp/Burt/Furneaux 2008; Lounsbury/Hoopes 1986). This phenomenon may be caused by the fact that people seem to prefer a number of short holidays rather than having one longer holiday (Miller/Rathouse/Scarles/Holmes/Tribe 2010). Due to more frequent holidays, travelers have more opportunities to experience the rosy view and enjoy the pre-trip period (Mitchell/Thompson/Peterson/Cronk 1997). Eventually, the pre-holiday phase could be perceived as the best part of the holiday. A passage from the qualitative survey provides an example of such an assumption:

“The best part of the holiday is the last Friday I have to work. I come home earlier and I have time to spend the whole afternoon at home. And I can look forward to the trip. After that it somehow fades away... little by little” (interview 13).

8.5 Work-life balance and its impact on holidays and the coming home experience

For the sake of supporting hypothesis 2 specific quantitative and qualitative data have been analyzed.

- *Hypothesis 2: Individuals with a bad work-life balance tend to experience lower relaxation levels during their holidays compared to people who are more satisfied with their work-life balance, due to unpleasant thoughts connected to their everyday lives.*

According to Neal, Sirgy and Uysal (1999) holiday satisfaction is connected to satisfaction with work-life balance. Nonetheless, table 30 shows the results of the quantitative analysis. Interestingly, however, the outcome shows that people who are less satisfied with their work-life balance tend to experience higher levels of happiness and relaxation during their holidays than individuals who are more satisfied with the balance between life domains. 6 out of 16 respondents are dissatisfied with their work-life balance. Out of those, 5 felt relaxed and only 1 felt less relaxed during their holidays. Hence, dissatisfied people are clearly over-represented in the relaxed column (p=0.182).

Satisfaction with work-life balance and feeling during holiday				
		Feeling during holiday		Total
		relaxed	less relaxed	
Satisfaction with work-life balance	satisfied	5	5	10
	dissatisfied	5	1	6
Total		10	6	16

TABLE 30: SATISFACTION WITH THE WORK-LIFE BALANCE AND THE FEELINGS DURING THE LAST HOLIDAY.

This effect may be caused by the fact that for people who are highly satisfied with their work-life balance, the difference between everyday life and holiday time is not as large as for those who suffer from a work-life imbalance. Hence, the contrast of the stressful daily routine and the relaxing holiday plays an important role. In addition, as described in previous examples, respondents who are rather satisfied with their work-life balance tend to think about work more frequently and read emails during their holiday than those who are rather dissatisfied. Subsequently, satisfied individuals might not be as stressed by occupying their minds with work-related issues; however, their relaxation effect might be slightly smaller. Respondents, who indicated to have a rather unsatisfactory work-life balance also reported to forget about their everyday life problems. They focus on their holidays and on relaxation.

From a qualitative point of view, the above described finding can be supported by some examples (interview questions 27). Respondents who state to be satisfied with their work-life balance report relatively low relaxation levels during their holidays. Usually they experienced some sort of stress during the trip which lowered their overall happiness level:

“Good... with quite some stressful moments. Retrospectively, I must say that it was ok, rather relaxing. I mean, it changed all the time” (interview 3).

“Some sort of relaxation level was there all the time. Sometimes I also had quite stressful moments though. (...) I had to think about work quite a lot” (interview 5).

“I did not feel completely relaxed. We had to travel around a lot and somehow it was a lot of stress as well. (...) I must say that I was thinking about going back to work and about everything I have to do when I come back” (interview 6).

“Most of the time I felt really good. But not always. The most stressful moments were because we had troubles to agree on particular things from time to time” (interview 7).

Interviewees who are dissatisfied with their work-life balance reported very high relaxation effects compared to people who are happier with their work-life balance. These individuals seem to care less about minor problems that may occur during the holiday and enjoy their free time more:

“I felt very relaxed. I tried to do many different activities. I do not like lying on the beach all the time. I like having an active kind of relaxation. (...) I did not think about work at all. Except maybe the day before I actually went back to work” (interview 2).

“Except some minor things I felt very relaxed. The positive side effect when you are on a boat is that you cannot check any emails or so. You simply let go and focus on the sea around you” (interview 9).

“Everything was well planned and I did not have to worry about anything. The whole trip was very relaxing” (interview 11).

“I felt so good. I did not have to think about work and all the problems here. It was really relaxing” (interview 16).

Satisfied individuals seem to be very sensitive about many details concerning their trips. They feel easily discontent with minor things, whereas people who are generally less happy with their daily lives tend to enjoy their holidays more. To dissatisfied people, vacations mean a getaway from all the stress they have to face and therefore they tend to enjoy every moment without bothering about unnecessary problems that might occur during the trip.

Due to these quantitative and qualitative findings, hypothesis 2 cannot be supported, as the data shows a trend in the opposite direction. The assumption that people with a bad work-life balance will have higher stress levels in general and will be less able to enjoy their holiday cannot be supported.

As the work-life balance and the duration of the relaxation effect of holidays seem to be closely connected, both factors have been included into the testing when it comes to the feelings of respondents the day of coming home.

- *Hypothesis 3: People who are not happy with their work-life balance have a worse home coming experience compared to those who report a more satisfying work-life balance.*

Table 31 visualizes that respondents who are happy with their work-life balance tend to also have a better home coming experience. They feel better the day of coming home than those people who report a work-life misbalance. 10 out of 16 interviewees are satisfied with the balance between work and life. Out of those, 6 felt relaxed and 4 felt stressed on the home-coming day. Satisfied individuals are slightly over-represented among those who felt relaxed when coming home after their last holiday ($p=0.302$).

Feeling day of coming home and satisfaction with work-life balance				
		Satisfaction with work-life balance		Total
		satisfied	dissatisfied	
Feeling day of coming home	relaxed	6	2	8
	stressed	4	4	8
Total		10	6	16

TABLE 31: FEELINGS ON THE DAY OF COMING HOME AND WORK-LIFE BALANCE.

The same effect can be seen in table 32. Respondents who had a positive home coming experience also report longer relaxation effects after the holiday than those who were rather stressed when coming home. 8 of all 16 respondents had a short relaxation effect. 3 out of

those felt relaxed on the homecoming day and 5 felt stressed. Accordingly, travelers who had a bad coming home experience also report a shorter duration of the relaxation effect of after their last vacations ($p=0.317$). This finding may be closely connected to the fact that people who have a bad work-life balance tend to forget about their daily routines while being on holiday, but once their first day at work approaches, the stress levels rise dramatically. Work-related thoughts come back and any good feeling as well as the relaxation effect vanish rapidly.

Feeling day of coming home and duration of relaxation effect				
		Duration of relaxation effect		Total effect
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Feeling day of coming home	relaxed	3	5	8
	stressed	5	3	8
Total		8	8	16

TABLE 32: FEELINGS ON THE DAY OF COMING HOME AND THE DURATION OF THE RELAXATION EFFECT OF HOLIDAYS.

Additionally, some passages from the qualitative survey provide examples for the above mentioned phenomenon. Respondents who report a satisfactory work-life balance and a long duration of the relaxation effect state that they felt good on the homecoming day:

“That day was ok” (interview 6).

“Honestly... I was somehow looking forward to go home as well. I was relaxed. It’s nice to be home again” (interview 12).

Interviewees who report a dissatisfactory work-life balance and a short duration of the relaxation effect experienced high stress levels or even depression which was caused by work-related thoughts:

“The day of coming home was not that nice anymore. I was not happy or anything. The good mood was gone” (interview 2).

“I was very sad about going back. Also, it was Sunday and I don’t like Sundays in general. The week is over and work starts again. If the same day your holiday is over as well, it does not feel good” (interview 4).

“Terrible... depressive... The holiday was such a beautiful time and I enjoyed it very much and thinking about going back to work stressed me out” (interview 16).

Numerous respondents who were rather stressed the day of coming home also admit to have increasingly thought about work that day:

"I did not check my emails. But the last day I had to think about work a lot. Especially on my way back" (interview 2).

"In the beginning, I did not care about work at all. Especially the last day I started to think about everything again" (interview 4).

"I was thinking about work especially towards the end of the holiday. Mostly the last day" (interview 16).

The collected data support hypothesis 3. The results show that work-life balance has an impact on the coming home experience and consequently on the relaxation effect of holidays. Although, the amount of respondents is small and thus no significant results can be retrieved, the qualitative part of the research supports the findings as well. Hence, it can be assumed, that people who are satisfied with the balance between their life domains also tend to have a better coming home experience than individuals who suffer from a work-life imbalance. The homecoming experience does subsequently have an impact on the duration of the relaxation effect as well which tends to be shorter for those individuals who have a negative coming home experience. A bad homecoming experience is closely linked to dissatisfaction with work which in turn is causing higher stress levels when going back to work. The relaxation effect frequently vanishes very rapidly or does not occur at all.

8.6 Additional qualitative findings

8.6. Additional qualitative findings

Travelers go on holiday in order to "gain some independence, to switch off, to recharge, to make contacts, to rest and to find some happiness to take home" (Krippendorf 1986, p. 131). Krippendorf (1986) also believes that another major purpose of travelling is the possibility given to tourists to make their own decisions to do whatever they want to do. For a limited amount of time, people have the opportunity to give instructions instead of receiving them. Additionally, escape can be perceived as one of the major motivating factors of travelling. People want to get away from their everyday routines. Travelling is also causing higher levels of subjective well-being (Dolnicar/Yanamandram/Cliff 2012). Holidays are crucial in order to cope with daily problems more effectively after coming home from vacations (Gross 1961). Hence, the following factors are assumed to be crucial when it comes to travel motivation:

- Switch off
- Relax
- No duties
- Escape

- More energy and motivation
- New experience

And in addition:

- Time spent with family or friends

A number of examples from the interviews support these findings (interview question 24):

- Switch off:

“The main motivation was to finally switch off. I did not have to think about anything. I simply wanted to get away from everyday life” (interview 1).

- New experience, relax, escape, no duties, more energy and motivation:

“I always travel when I am on holidays. I don’t like staying at home, because I want to see and experience something new. Holidays are important to me in order to get away from the everyday routine and all the stress. I can relax during the holiday and find some new motivation. I am not available for any phone calls or any other kind of work-related stuff. I simply don’t have to do anything I don’t like” (interview 2).

- Time spent with family or friends:

“My friends and I wanted to go on holidays together for quite some time. We just couldn’t agree on a destination. Finally, we decided rather spontaneously. There was a concert at that time which we wanted to see. That was actually the reason why we decided to choose the destination after all. Anyway, we could have chosen any other destination as well. We just wanted to go on holidays together, that’s it. So the main motivation was the holiday with friends” (interview 3).

- Relax, no duties, time spent with family or friends:

“For once, I did not have to think about anything. No work, only relaxation. I could leave everything behind. And of course it was nice to spend time with friends” (interview 4).

- Time spent with family or friends, escape, more energy and motivation, relax:

“One of the main reasons was that I wanted to spend some time with the family. And I wanted to get away from all the stress here and the everyday life of course. I wanted to empty my mind and get some energy. It is not so important where I am going but with whom. And the relaxation of course” (interview 5).

- Relax, switch off, new experience:

“Relaxation! It was a really intense time at work and I wanted to switch off. It was nice to get to know another country as well” (interview 6).

- New experience, escape:

“Experience something new... see something new, get to know some people... Escape from all the duties here” (interview 7).

- Relax, time spent with family or friends:

“Firstly the relaxation. And then of course the time spent with my family” (interview 13).

- Relax, time spent with family or friends, no duties:

“Tiredness from work-life, a search for a change, relaxation and time spent with my partner. Having time with no ringing phones and worries about work” (interview 14).

- New experience, time spent with family or friends, escape, switch off:

“To see something new and spend some time together with the partner. Also to get away from the daily routine... close the door and everything is different for a while” (interview 15).

- Relax, switch off:

“To relax, have a peace of mind and enjoy being with myself a little bit with no stress” (interview 16).

Interviewees were also asked to describe what they liked about their last holiday and what they disliked (interview questions 21 and 22). Remarkably, respondents answered in a very similar manner when asked about the positive aspects of their holidays and holiday motivation. The positive experience included the following items:

- Relaxation
- No work and no duties
- Time spent with family or friends
- No stress
- The destination itself (beaches, sun, nature, etc.)
- Activities (sports, sightseeing, etc.)
- Weather

Concerning the negative memories connected to the last holiday, respondents did most frequently respond in a very brief manner, although research has shown that holidays do not always have to be an agreeable time. A number of various difficulties can occur, such as physical or mental problems caused by culture shock or homesickness (Kop/Vingerhoets/Kruithof/Gottdiener 2003; VanHeck/Vingerhoets 2007). Likewise, personal misunderstandings including travel companion may occur (Ryan 1991). Nonetheless, interviewees stated that they cannot think of any negative aspects of their holiday, or the only negative thing they could remember was the travel component. They reported that travelling was very tiring and sometimes stressful, but nothing too severe. This phenomenon is most likely caused by the fact that people tend to memorize pleasant aspects of something they want to keep in mind as positive. Travel discomfort may be partly caused by the increased stress level arising the day of coming home, as usually respondents indicated the way back to be stressful.

The last two days of a holiday may differ from the other days. As coming home is approaching, many people tend to start thinking about their job and everyday life again. Qualitative analysis shows that there is no difference between people who are satisfied and those who are dissatisfied with their work-life balance with respect to the way they experience the last two days of their holidays. Most of them report higher stress levels due to work-related thoughts:

“Of course I was more stressed. Especially because I knew that the next trip is far away. But all in all it was not too bad. Just not as good as the days before” (interview 1).

“I was thinking about work a lot... what has possibly changed... what to expect... The very last day was rather sad, because I knew that it’s over. I know that some people are looking forward to go home and back to work, but I don’t” (interview 2).

“The weather was not so nice anymore. I was sad that the summer holiday is over. I guess that a couple of factors made me feel worse than in the previous days. Especially the thoughts about work and the same old routines. I was not so relaxed anymore” (interview 4).

“The last days were certainly less positive than the beginning. I did not want to go back home and have all the stress at work again” (interview 5).

“I could have imagined staying one more week. I was kind of sad that it’s over” (interview 10).

“Stress! One of the days is the day of coming home and the day before I am only able to think about work in fact. I have to think about everything that I have to do once I am back and all the work that I left unfinished. The last two days were not nice at all” (interview 14).

“Of course I was thinking about the end of the holiday. It all went by so fast. I would have loved to stay one week longer” (interview 15).

“I felt really depressed, because I knew that I have to go back” (interview 16).

Respondents were asked to evaluate their feelings before and after the holiday (interview question 35). The purpose of holidays is a decrease in stress levels after coming home. Hence, the quality of life should be influenced in a positive way (Iwasaki/Mannell/Smale/Butcher 2005). The level of exhaustion is much lower when people come home after a trip than before the holiday (Kühnel and Sonntag 2011). This phenomenon has previously been observed in an earlier study done by Westman and Eden (1997). As presented in the following qualitative examples, a number of respondents did not experience any particular differences between the pre-trip and post-trip time. The most likely reason for this phenomenon might be caused by the relatively short duration of the holidays in general. It is believed that the duration of the holiday influences the holiday outcome and the relaxation effects in particular. Numerous studies demonstrated that short-time vacations, of no more than two weeks, have no significant impact on satisfaction and overall well-being (DeBloom/Geurts/Kompier 2013).

"I would say that the feelings were the same. No big changes" (interview 4).

"No big differences. I wouldn't say that the holiday changed anything in terms of feelings concerning work or family" (interview 7).

"I don't think that there were any differences between the time before and after the holiday" (interview 10).

"I went there and I came back. Everything was the same as before" (interview 11).

"I had more or less the same feelings. The holiday didn't change much" (interview 13).

However, some respondents experienced a positive holiday effect and report a better feeling after the holiday than before, although there were no major differences in the duration of the holiday:

"The holiday helped me see some things in a more optimistic manner and worry less" (interview 8).

"I felt better after the trip. The stress level was much lower" (interview 9).

"I think that it is very important to switch off and empty the mind. Afterwards it is easier to think about things from a different perspective. A holiday is relaxing and lowers the stress level. I felt better afterwards" (interview 12).

Generally speaking, responses concerning a comparison of the pre-trip and after-trip experience were very brief. Possibly, interviewees could not remember or did not know how to reply. Some of them had difficulties in understanding the question. Many of the respondents were already actively thinking about their feelings before and after their holidays, but compar-

ing the two phases seemed to be something new to them and they seemed to feel less comfortable in answering this question.

A possible explanation for these outcomes can be the personality factor. Every individual responds in another way when it comes to certain situations. Those situations are being judged according to individual attitudes, character types, expectations and understanding as well as personal opinions (Diener/Suh/Smith 1999). Every person has a natural inborn predisposition to be more or less satisfied (Diener/Suh/Smith 1999, p. 279). Hence, personality structures strongly influence well-being. Happiness can be influenced by such emotional factors more intensively than by external causes initiated by some actions or other individuals (Tatarkiewicz 1976).

According to past research, family holidays can influence well-being in a very positive way by enabling family members to spend some time together (Nawijn 2011). Such a vacation type allows people to get away from their everyday lives and additionally spend some intensive time with their families, including new shared experiences. Travelers become more aware of the togetherness (Gram 2005). Generally speaking, parents have different expectations than their children do. Adults want to spend as much time together as possible and make their children happy and achieve a balance between active and passive relaxation during their holidays. They also want to get to know something new and memorable (The Danish Tourism Development Centre 2000). Consequently, children play an important role when it comes to holiday-making. In this thesis, no qualitative data could be analyzed, as only two out of 16 respondents have children. Nevertheless, it is interesting to look at those examples from the qualitative perspective.

First of all, children need to be looked after and entertained during their holidays (Cullingford 1995). Hence, parents time their holidays according to their children's regular vacations from school. Interviewee 12 mentioned the children's holiday as one of the major travel motivations:

"The kids had holidays, so I had to go on vacations anyway."

When parents talk about the positive aspects of their holidays, they always include their children. It is apparent that children play a crucial role, as parents are mainly concerned about their well-being:

"The kids were so nice. A few days later, our friends came as well. They have a daughter who is about the same age as our daughter. They could play together... it was really nice" (interview 13).

"We wanted to spend some time together, as a family. We made short trips with the children. They liked it a lot. It was nice to have no duties for once" (interviewee 12).

However, children may also be a factor reducing the relaxation effect of holidays. Parents try very hard to please their children, and frequently their own expectations cannot be met anymore. Also, the relaxation effect might be decreased.

“The relaxation effect with children is not as high as without children. However, it is nice to have no daily routine... the kids do not have to go to school and I don’t have to work. Everything has to be so organized at home. During a holiday, we can also go for dinner together; the kids stay out longer... There is no pressure” (interview 12).

It seems that women are more concerned with children during their holidays than men. However, these are wake examples, as they include only two respondents. In order to gain interesting qualitative or even quantitative results a significantly larger sample would be needed.

9 DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

The research question put forward for this thesis is whether work-life balance has a direct impact on the duration of the relaxation effect of holidays. Based on previous research and observations, three hypotheses have been put forward and analyzed by the usage of quantitative and qualitative methods. Due to the limited sample size, no significant results could be found in the data, however, due to qualitative support, trends and directions could be derived.

9.1 Hypothesis 1

- *Hypothesis 1: People with a dissatisfactory work-life balance experience a shorter relaxation effect compared to people with a good work-life balance.*

Hypothesis 1 predicts an impact of satisfaction with work-life balance on the duration of the relaxation effect of holidays. Dissatisfied people have a shorter relaxation effect coming home from their vacations. The statistical analysis as well as the qualitative findings support hypothesis 1. Moreover, other factors, such as the actual time spent at work and the subjectively perceived working time, have turned out to be predictors of work-life balance, and hence influence the duration of relaxation effects. Individuals who are not happy with the life domain balance quickly fall back into their daily routine. Even though they might have experienced a nice and relaxing holiday, they are forced back into usual situation which may have stressful or frightening impacts on their psyche. The contrast between holiday and everyday life is likely to be much larger than for satisfied people. Hence, some sort of shock might occur when coming back.

9.2 Hypothesis 2

- *Hypothesis 2: Individuals with a bad work-life balance tend to experience lower relaxation levels during their holidays compared to people who are more satisfied with their work-life balance, due to unpleasant thoughts connected to their everyday lives.*

Hypothesis 2 suggests an influence of work-life balance on the holiday experience and the relaxation levels during vacations. Individuals who experience a work-life misbalance have a worse holiday experience than those who are satisfied with the balance between work and family life. Hypothesis 2 has turned out not to be supported by the data collected. There is neither quantitative nor qualitative evidence for hypothesis 2. People with a bad work-life balance tend to report higher relaxation effects during their holidays than satisfied individuals. It is assumed, that this is caused by the larger gap between everyday life and holiday. Less

satisfied people experience the relaxation effect of holidays much more intensely, as they purposely switch off all work-related thoughts and enjoy their vacations which seem to be so much more relaxing and positive compared to the daily routine.

9.3 Hypothesis 3

- *Hypothesis 3: People who are not happy with their work-life balance have a worse home coming experience compared to those who report a more satisfying work-life balance.*

Hypothesis 3 predicts an impact of work-life balance on the coming home experience of tourists. Less satisfied individuals tend to have a worse coming home experience than people with a good work-life-balance. Both quantitative and qualitative results of the survey support hypothesis 3. Dissatisfied people tend to experience higher relaxation effects during their vacations; however, they have more intense negative emotions towards their everyday life. Thus, they are most commonly more occupied with negative work-related thoughts when coming home after holidays. These thoughts may be connected to stress or fear connected to work routines. Consequently, the duration of the relaxation effect vanishes very rapidly.

9.4 Limitations

- **Limited sample:** The nature of this thesis asked for in-depth interviews which additionally included several scale questions. Hence, the amount of respondents was limited due to time restrictions and the feasibility of the study. As a result, quantitative analysis was only possible to a limited extent, by using crosstables. Crosstables were considered the most suitable statistical tool, as they can equally be applied to reduced samples. However, even by using crosstables, no significant results could have been obtained. Thus, qualitative findings supported the directions given by quantitative data analysis. Therefore, the findings of this thesis need to be interpreted in the light of its limitations. In order to come up with more accurate results, a more detailed survey in terms of sample size would be needed.
- **Subjectivity:** The perceptual nature of the data can be perceived as another main obstacle. In fact, every survey using any kind of questionnaire or interview is subjective by its very nature. However, as this thesis focuses on psychological topics, the subjectivity of the findings is even larger. Every person perceives emotions in a different way. People have diverse ways of coping with particular situations and react in accordance with their personality. Events can be evaluated either positively or negatively according to individual personality features, emotional stability, belief systems and values, as well as past experiences (Diener/Suh/Smith 1999). Subjective well-being is very individual and no two individuals would judge it in the same manner (Stones/Kozma 1985). As a result, what one person calls joy, may represent stress for somebody else. It is not obvious to interpret answers connected to well-being and happiness, as it cannot be measured directly. Furthermore, people tend to answer according to their cur-

rent state of mind (Kahneman/Krueger 2006). Hence, it can be assumed that one person may propose slightly different answers on two different days. A more in-depth psychological analysis of every respondent would be needed in order to clarify these differences. However, such a survey would be hardly viable, especially in the context of a master thesis.

- **Willingness to answer:** A phenomenon perceived throughout the interview is connected to the willingness to answer in an honest and extensive manner. The interview was constructed in a way that more crucial questions were asked at the end. The beginning was rather dedicated to very simple and basic questions. Nonetheless, not all interviewees showed readiness to be open. This kind of behavior may be connected to fear. Respondents possibly feared consequences of their work-related answers, or their personality did not allow them to speak freely. All participants were ensured that the interview are entirely confidential, nonetheless they might have faced some inner obstacles which did not allow them to speak freely about their work situation. This varied across the respondents. Hence again, there might be a lack of uniformity concerning the accuracy of the collected data.

- **Retrospective view:** Especially in the case of the last holiday, some respondents might have faced problems concerning retrospective memories. Although, the time frame for data collection was chosen in a most appropriate manner, it was obvious that some interviewees had problems to remember particular events correctly. Numerous questions were asked for the sole purpose of helping the participants remember their last trip correctly; however, differences among respondents have to be expected regarding the accuracy of their answers. The interpretation of past events requires a precise examination of particular experiences. Moreover, individuals tend to remember things as either positive or negative and most commonly they do not consider anything in between. Additionally, there is more readiness to remember affirmative events rather than the undesirable ones. (Kahneman/Krueger 2006).

10 CONCLUSION

The main outcome of this thesis can be summarized as visualized in figures 13 and 14. If people are satisfied with the balance between their life domains, they tend to have lower satisfaction levels during their holidays. They continue to think about their work routine and frequently occupy their minds with work related thoughts. Also, they are more frequent work-related email readers during their holidays. These individuals tend to be happier with their lives as work-life balance is perceived as an indicator of overall life satisfaction and well-being (Kossek/Ozeki 1998). Hence, there is no need for them to switch off and completely forget about the everyday lives. Nonetheless, this phenomenon is likely to cause a decreased level of holiday satisfaction, especially compared to less satisfied people. However, when it comes to the coming home experience and the relaxation effect, satisfied individuals tend to have more positive outcomes. They feel less stressed about the fact that they are going home and have to face the usual life situations again. Consequently, better coming home experiences lead to a longer relaxation effect. People, who are not stressed about coming back home usually do not mind going back to work that much either. Hence, daily routine does not have such a strong impact on the relaxation effect of holidays which has the tendency to last longer (figure 13).

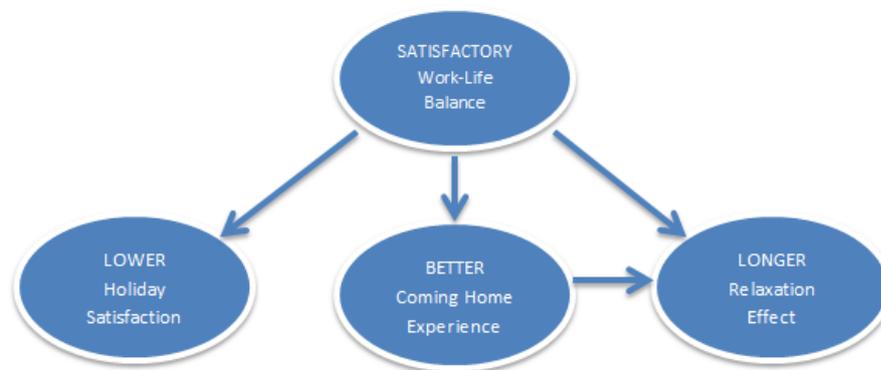


FIGURE 13: THE IMPACT OF A SATISFACTORY WORK-LIFE BALANCE ON HOLIDAY SATISFACTION, THE COMING HOME EXPERIENCE AND THE RELAXATION EFFECT (OWN ILLUSTRATION).

People with a work-life misbalance tend to have a lower level of overall satisfaction and happiness in general. These individuals are likely to completely forget about their daily lives during holiday. They do not read any work-related emails and do not think about their jobs at all. Consequently they experience higher relaxation levels and more holiday satisfaction. From an emotional point of view, the holiday experience seems to be something so different from what they are used to in their everyday lives that these people simply experience higher levels of joy. Nevertheless, this trend slightly changes and towards the end of the holiday, the last two days in particular, travelers start worrying about their work and report higher stress levels again, including fear and insecurity. The last day of holidays, or the day of coming home, is

perceived in a very negative manner by unhappy individuals. The relaxing time is over and the next holiday is usually far away. The shock is much larger than for satisfied people, since the contrast of emotions is likely to be greater. Such a bad coming home experience necessarily leads to a very short duration of the relaxation effect, which is in most cases either not noticed at all, or its duration is as short as the time until going back to work (figure 14).

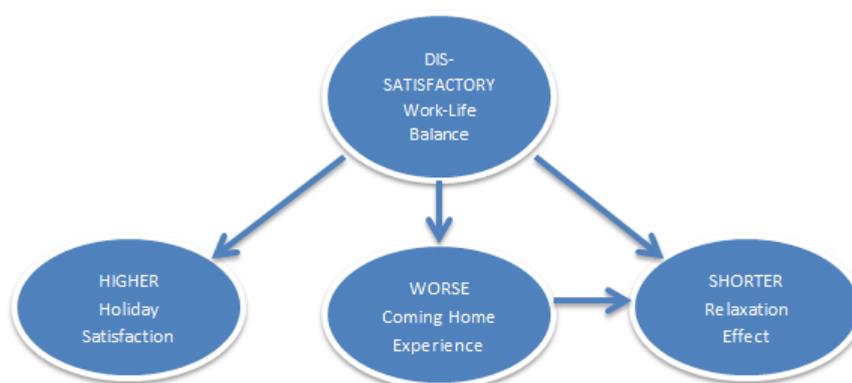


FIGURE 14: THE IMPACT OF A DISSATISFACTORY WORK-LIFE BALANCE ON HOLIDAY SATISFACTION, THE COMING HOME EXPERIENCE AND THE RELAXATION EFFECT (OWN ILLUSTRATION).

10.1 Contribution

This empirical study yields an idea about the possible impact of work-life balance on the outcome of holidays. The trends present in the findings of this study show that there is a connection between work-life balance and the various stages of holiday-making: holiday satisfaction, the coming home experience and the duration of relaxation effects in particular.

The duration of the relaxation effect of holidays seems to be surprisingly short in general. Dissatisfied individuals do hardly experience any. Moreover, dissatisfied people interestingly tend to have better holiday experiences than those who are generally rather satisfied.

The focus of this study was put on Austrian citizens. The study gives an idea about the current situation when it comes to work-life balance. Also, main travel motivations of Austrian tourists have been detected and might prove helpful for further studies and possible improvements and innovations in the tourism sector.

Working time seems to have a major impact on work-life balance according to this study. The real time spent with work, as well as the subjectively perceived amount of time dedicated to work has turned out to be the strongest predictor of the satisfaction with work-life balance, hence of quality of life.

This thesis has also proposed some ideas about differences between university employees and non-university employees. University employees seem to have a better work-life balance due

to increased freedom in time management. They also seem to have less absenteeism. Hence, absenteeism due to health problems might be connected to work-life balance.

10.2 Future research

A relatively small amount of research has been conducted on the impact of work-life balance on the relaxation effect of holidays, which however seems to be very actual. The findings of this thesis do not propose any accurate significant effects, due to its limitations; however, they might be an interesting starting point for future research. An extended study on work-life balance and its impact on the various aspects of holiday-making and holiday outcomes, including a larger test sample could help to further elucidate all directions suggested in this thesis.

Demographic variables, such as gender and relationship status seem to play a role in terms of work-life balance and holiday satisfaction. Hence, a better understanding of the underlying reasons offers a path for future research. Underlying reasons could be investigated by conducting a psychological survey among a large sample.

A comparison of various industries concerning work-life balance would be another useful avenue for research which could be conducted in terms of holiday satisfaction and holiday outcomes. A diversification of various employments in connection with life satisfaction would yield a better understanding of travel behavior and enable the development of marketing strategies. However, a significantly larger sample would be needed.

Comparatively few studies have investigated the Austrian population, and the middle-European culture, in general when it comes to topics such as overall well-being connected to holiday satisfaction. The quite large amount of people reporting a dissatisfactory work-life balance could serve as a hint for future research.

More research might also be recommended focusing on the impact of children on the relaxation effect during and after holidays. In this thesis, only an idea has been presented due to the very limited amount of respondents having children. However, literature proposes a sufficient background for the assumption that children influence the way parents choose and spend their vacations. A study focusing on the Austrian population would provide a better understanding of the travel behavior and travel decisions of Austrian families. Again, marketing could largely profit from this kind of research.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Questionnaire

1. Basic information

Gender	
Age	
Nationality	
Marital status	
Children	
Highest education	
Occupation	

2. Approximate number of...

...Hours spent with work, both employment and work from home (weekly)	
...Weeks of holidays (annually)	
...Hours spent with family (weekly)	
...Hours dedicated to hobbies (weekly)	
...Days absent from work (monthly average)	

3. The time you are spending at work is:

Not much at all		Comments:
Not much		
Adequate		
Too much		

Way too much		
--------------	--	--

4. Are you enjoying your job?

Yes a lot		Comments:
Yes		
Rather yes		
Rather no		
No		
Not at all		

5. How satisfied are you with your current job in terms of self-realization?

Very satisfied		Comments:
Satisfied		
Rather satisfied		
Rather dissatisfied		
Dissatisfied		
Very dissatisfied		

6. Are you currently thinking of leaving your job?

No		Comments:
Sometimes		
Yes		
Why?		

7. What would you change about your job if you had the chance?

--

8. Are you happy with the amount of time you are spending with your family?

Yes a lot		Comments:
Yes		
Rather yes		
Rather no		
No		
Not at all		

9. Are you having enough time for your hobbies?

Yes a lot		Comments:
Yes		
Rather yes		
Rather no		
No		
Not at all		

10. Are you satisfied with the balance between your work and free time activities?

Very satisfied		Comments:
Satisfied		
Rather satisfied		
Rather dissatisfied		

Dissatisfied		
Very dissatisfied		

11. Do you think that the balance between work and free time/family has an impact on your overall level of satisfaction?

Yes of course		Comments:
Probably yes		
Probably not		
No		

12. Are you doing sports in your free time? How often?

Daily		Comments:
At least twice a week		
Weekly		
Several times a month		
Monthly		
Never		

13. How many hours are you watching TV every day?

0		Comments:
1-3		
4-6		
7-9		
10 or more		

14. How often are you drinking alcohol?

Never		Comments:
Occasionally		
Once a week		
Several times a week		
Daily		

15. How many cigarettes do you smoke in one day (on average)?

None		Comments:
1-5		
6-10		
11-15		
16-20		
More than 20		

16. When was your last holiday?

--

17. Where did you go?

--

18. How many days did you spend on holiday?

19. Which activities did you do?

20. Who accompanied you (e.g. partner, children, friends, parents)?

21. What did you like about the holiday?

22. What did you dislike about the holiday?

23. Would you recommend the destination/hotel to your friends? Why?

24. What was the main motivation for you to go on holiday?

--

25. How did you feel in the months before the holiday?

Very good / relaxed		Comments:
Good		
Rather good		
Rather bad		
Bad		
Very bad / exhausted		

26. How did you feel the week before the holiday?

Very good / relaxed		Comments:
Good		
Rather good		
Rather bad		
Bad		
Very bad / exhausted		

27. How did you feel during the holiday?

Very relaxed		Comments:
Relaxed		
Rather relaxed		

Rather stressed		
Stressed		
Very stressed		
Did it change over time (beginning, middle, end)?		
If stressed: why?		

28. Did you have to think about work during the holiday?

No		Comments:
Yes a bit		
Yes a lot		
Did it change over time (beginning, middle, end)?		

29. How often did you check work-related emails during your last holiday?

Not at all		Comments:
Every few days		
Daily		
Several times a day		
Did it change over time (beginning, middle, end)?		

30. How did you feel the last two days of your holiday (related to work / family / everyday life)? Why?

--

31. How did you feel the day of coming home?

Very relaxed		Comments:
Relaxed		
Rather relaxed		
Rather stressed		
Stressed		
Very stressed		
Why?		

32. How did you feel about going back to work after holidays?

Very good / excited		Comments:
Good		
Rather good		
Rather bad		
Bad		
Very bad / stressed		

33. How long did you feel relaxed after your holiday?

A month or more		Comments:
More than two weeks		
More than a week		
5-7 days		
2-4 days		
1 day		

Until going back to work		
Not at all		

**34. Would you say that the holiday did meet your expectations? To what extent?
Why?**

**35. How would you describe your feelings before and after the holiday in terms of
work and family?**

**36. Did you have any particular emotions related to your everyday life during your
holiday, both positive and negative?**

Appendix 2: Tables

Table 1

Gender	Frequency
Male	8
Female	8

Table 2

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean
Age	20	42	29.5

Table 3

Relationship status	Frequency
Single	7
In a relationship	7
Married	2

Table 4

Hours spent with work per day	Frequency
21	1
35	3
40	3
44	1
45	1
50	3
55	3
56	1

Table 5

Weeks of holidays per year	Frequency
2	1
3	4
4	3
5	7
6	1

Table 6

Hours spent with family per week	Frequency
15	1
16	1
20	6
25	1
27	1
40	3
45	2
80	1

Table 7

Hours dedicated to hobbies per week	Frequency
2	2
4	1
5	2
6	1
10	4
12	1
15	3
20	1
25	1

Table 8

Absenteeism days per year	Frequency
0	9
2	1
7	1
10	2
14	2
20	1

Table 9**Absenteeism and satisfaction with work-life balance**

		Satisfaction with work-life balance	
		satisfied	dissatisfied
Absenteeism	non-absent	6	3
	absent	4	3
Total		10	6

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.152 ^a	1	.696
Continuity Correction ^b	0,000	1	1,000
Likelihood Ratio	.152	1	.697
Fisher's Exact Test			
Linear-by-Linear Association	.143	1	.705
N of Valid Cases	16		

a. 3 cells (75,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,63.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	.098	.696
Nominal Cramer's V	.098	.696
Contingency Coefficient	.097	.696
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 10

Correlation hours spent with work per week and perceived time spent at work

Correlation	Significance two tailed
0.577	0.019

Table 11

Correlation hours spent with family per week and happiness with family time

Correlation	Significance two tailed
-0.081	0.765

Table 12

Correlation hours dedicated to hobbies per week and happiness with hobbies time

Correlation	Significance two tailed
-0.393	0.132

Table 13

Gender and duration of relaxation effect

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Gender	female	3	5	8
	male	5	3	8
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.000 ^a	1	.317	.619	.310
Continuity Correction ^b	.250	1	.617		
Likelihood Ratio	1.011	1	.315		
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	.938	1	.333		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 4 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal Phi	-.250	.317
Cramer's V	.250	.317
Contingency Coefficient	.243	.317
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 14

Relationship status and duration of relaxation effect

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Relationship status	single	5	2	7
	in a relationship	3	6	9
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.286 ^a	1	.131		
Continuity Correction ^b	1.016	1	.313		
Likelihood Ratio	2.348	1	.125	.315	.157
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.143	1	.143		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 4 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal Phi	.378	.131
Cramer's V	.378	.131
Contingency Coefficient	.354	.131
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 15**Industry and satisfaction with work-life balance**

		Satisfaction with work-life balance		Total
		satisfied	dissatisfied	
Industry	university employee	6	2	8
	non-university employee	4	4	8
Total		10	6	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.067 ^a	1	.302		
Continuity Correction ^b	.267	1	.606		
Likelihood Ratio	1.082	1	.298		
Fisher's Exact Test				.608	.304
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.000	1	.317		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal Phi	.258	.302
Cramer's V	.258	.302
Contingency Coefficient	.250	.302
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 16

Industry and self-realization

		Self-realization		Total
		satisfied	less satisfied	
Industry	university employee	4	4	8
	non-university employee	3	5	8
Total		7	9	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.254 ^a	1	.614		
Continuity Correction ^b	0,000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.255	1	.614		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.500
Linear-by-Linear Association	.238	1	.626		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 4 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.126
	Cramer's V	.126
	Contingency Coefficient	.125
N of Valid Cases	16	.614

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 17**Industry and duration of relaxation effect**

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Industry	university employee	4	4	8
	non-university employee	4	4	8
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.000 ^a	1	1.000		
Continuity Correction ^b	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	0.000	1	1.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.690
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.000	1	1.000		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 4 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	0.000	1.000
	Cramer's V	0.000	1.000
	Contingency Coefficient	0.000	1.000
N of Valid Cases		16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 18

Satisfaction with work-life balance	Frequency
Very satisfied	2
Satisfied	5
Rather satisfied	3
Rather dissatisfied	4
Dissatisfied	2

Table 19

Duration of relaxation effect (days)	Frequency
0	2
1	4
3	2
6	2
10	3
17	2
30	1

Tables 20 and 21**Mann-Whitney U test: Duration of the relaxation effect and satisfaction with work-life balance**

Null Hypothesis	Test	Significance	Decision
The distribution of duration of relaxation effect (days) is the same across categories of satisfaction with work-life balance	Independent samples Mann-Whitney U Test	0.368	Retain the null hypothesis

	Satisfaction with work-life balance	Total	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error mean
Duration of relaxation effect (days)	Satisfied	10	9.4	9.7	3.1
	Dissatisfied	6	3.7	3.7	1.5

Table 22

Satisfaction with work-life balance and duration of relaxation effect

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Satisfaction with work-life balance	satisfied	4	6	10
	dissatisfied	4	2	6
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.067 ^a	1	.302		
Continuity Correction ^b	.267	1	.606		
Likelihood Ratio	1.082	1	.298		
Fisher's Exact Test				.608	.304
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.000	1	.317		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	-.258	.302
Nominal Cramer's V	.258	.302
Contingency Coefficient	.250	.302
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 23**Time spent at work and duration of relaxation effect**

		duration_relaxation_effect_0_1		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
time_spent_at_work_0_1	adequate time at work	3	4	7
	too much time at work	5	4	9
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.254 ^a	1	.614		
Continuity Correction ^b	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.255	1	.614		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.500
Linear-by-Linear Association	.238	1	.626		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 4 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	-.126	.614
	Cramer's V	.126	.614
	Contingency Coefficient	.125	.614
N of Valid Cases		16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 24**Feeling months before holiday and duration of relaxation effect**

	Duration of relaxation effect		Total
	short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Feeling months before holiday good	4	3	7
bad	4	5	9
Total	8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.254 ^a	1	.614		
Continuity Correction ^b	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.255	1	.614		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.500
Linear-by-Linear Association	.238	1	.626		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 4 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	.126	.614
Nominal Cramer's V	.126	.614
Contingency Coefficient	.125	.614
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 25**Feeling one week before holiday and duration of relaxation effect**

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Feeling one week before holiday	good	3	3	6
	bad	5	5	10
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.000 ^a	1	1.000	1.000	.696
Continuity Correction ^b	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	0.000	1	1.000		
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.000	1	1.000		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal Phi	0.000	1.000
Cramer's V	0.000	1.000
Contingency Coefficient	0.000	1.000
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 26**Think of work during holiday and duration of relaxation effect**

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Think of work during holiday	no	4	3	7
	yes	4	5	9
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.254 ^a	1	.614		
Continuity Correction ^b	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.255	1	.614		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.500
Linear-by-Linear Association	.238	1	.626		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 4 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	.126	.614
Nominal Cramer's V	.126	.614
Contingency Coefficient	.125	.614
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 27**Read work-related e-mails and duration of relaxation effect**

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Read work-related e-mails	no emails	4	3	7
	emails	4	5	9
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.254 ^a	1	.614		
Continuity Correction ^b	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.255	1	.614		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.500
Linear-by-Linear Association	.238	1	.626		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 4 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,50.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

		Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal	Phi	.126	.614
	Cramer's V	.126	.614
	Contingency Coefficient	.125	.614
N of Valid Cases		16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 28

Feeling about going back to work and duration of relaxation effect

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Feeling about going back to work	good	4	6	10
	bad	4	2	6
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.067 ^a	1	.302		
Continuity Correction ^b	.267	1	.606		
Likelihood Ratio	1.082	1	.298		
Fisher's Exact Test				.608	.304
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.000	1	.317		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	-.258	.302
Nominal Cramer's V	.258	.302
Contingency Coefficient	.250	.302
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 29**Duration of last holiday and duration of relaxation effect**

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Duration of last holiday	one week or less	3	5	8
	more than one week	5	3	8
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.000 ^a	1	.317		
Continuity Correction ^b	.250	1	.617		
Likelihood Ratio	1.011	1	.315	.619	.310
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	.938	1	.333		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 4 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	-.250	.317
Nominal Cramer's V	.250	.317
Contingency Coefficient	.243	.317
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 30**Satisfaction with work-life balance and feeling during holiday**

		Feeling during holiday		Total
		relaxed	less relaxed	
Satisfaction with work-life balance	satisfied	5	5	10
	dissatisfied	5	1	6
Total		10	6	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.778 ^a	1	.182		
Continuity Correction ^b	.640	1	.424		
Likelihood Ratio	1.900	1	.168		
Fisher's Exact Test				.307	.215
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.667	1	.197		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 3 cells (75,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 2,25.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal Phi	-.333	.182
Cramer's V	.333	.182
Contingency Coefficient	.316	.182
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 31**Feeling day of coming home and satisfaction with work-life balance**

		Satisfaction with work-life balance		Total
		satisfied	dissatisfied	
Feeling day of coming home	relaxed	6	2	8
	stressed	4	4	8
Total		10	6	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.067 ^a	1	.302		
Continuity Correction ^b	.267	1	.606		
Likelihood Ratio	1.082	1	.298		
Fisher's Exact Test				.608	.304
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.000	1	.317		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	.258	.302
Nominal Cramer's V	.258	.302
Contingency Coefficient	.250	.302
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Table 32**Feeling day of coming home and duration of relaxation effect**

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Feeling day of coming home	relaxed	3	5	8
	stressed	5	3	8
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.000 ^a	1	.317		
Continuity Correction ^b	.250	1	.617		
Likelihood Ratio	1.011	1	.315		
Fisher's Exact Test				.619	.310
Linear-by-Linear Association	.938	1	.333		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 4 cells (100,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 4,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Phi	-.250	.317
Nominal Cramer's V	.250	.317
Contingency Coefficient	.243	.317
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Other relevant tables

Happiness with family time and duration of relaxation effect

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Happiness with family time	happy	5	5	10
	not so happy	3	3	6
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.000 ^a	1	1.000	1.000	.696
Continuity Correction ^b	0.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	0.000	1	1.000		
Fisher's Exact Test				1.000	.696
Linear-by-Linear Association	0.000	1	1.000		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal Phi	0.000	1.000
Cramer's V	0.000	1.000
Contingency Coefficient	0.000	1.000
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

b. Using the asymptotic standard error assuming the null hypothesis.

Happiness with time dedicated to hobbies and duration of relaxation effect

		Duration of relaxation effect		Total
		short relaxation effect	long relaxation effect	
Happiness with time dedicated to hobbies	happy	6	4	10
	not so happy	2	4	6
Total		8	8	16

Chi-Square Tests

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.067 ^a	1	.302		
Continuity Correction ^b	.267	1	.606		
Likelihood Ratio	1.082	1	.298		
Fisher's Exact Test				.608	.304
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.000	1	.317		
N of Valid Cases	16				

a. 2 cells (50,0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 3,00.

b. Computed only for a 2x2 table

Symmetric Measures

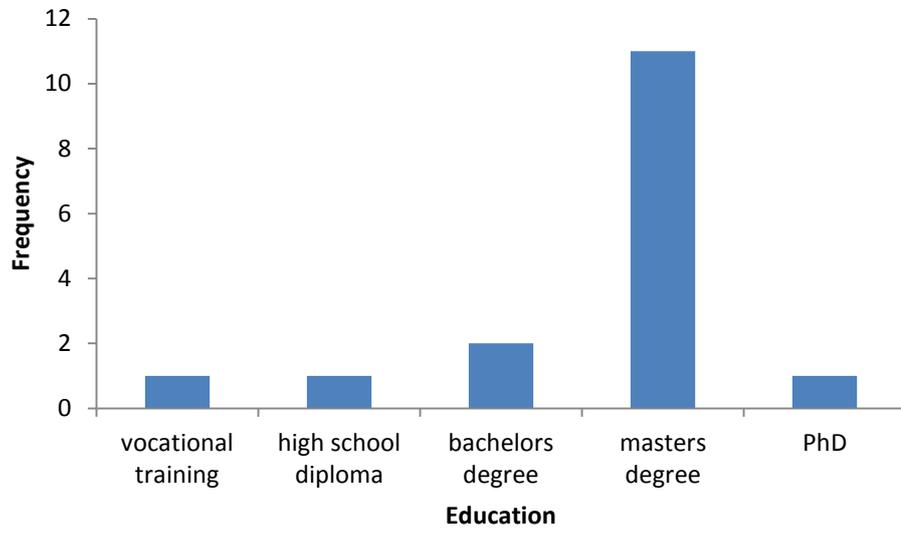
	Value	Approx. Sig.
Nominal by Nominal Phi	.258	.302
Cramer's V	.258	.302
Contingency Coefficient	.250	.302
N of Valid Cases	16	

a. Not assuming the null hypothesis.

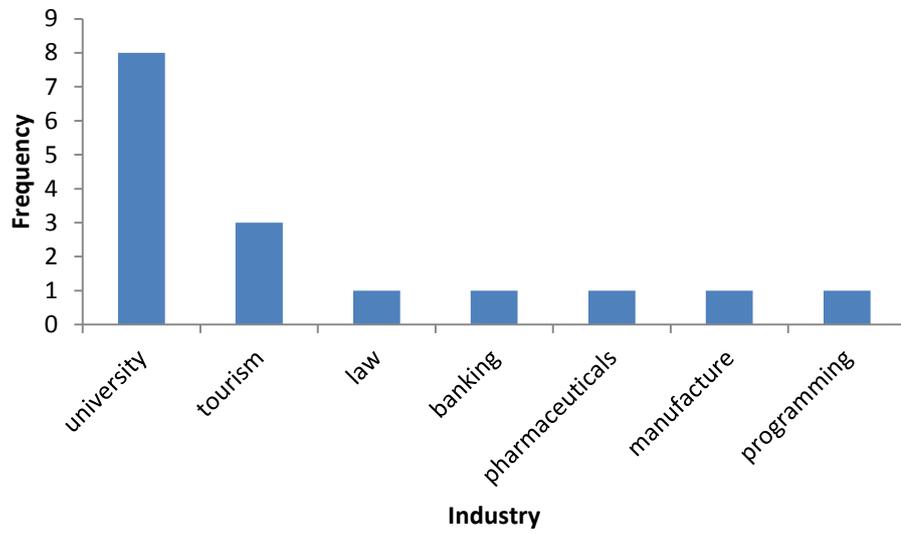
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Appendix 3: Graphs

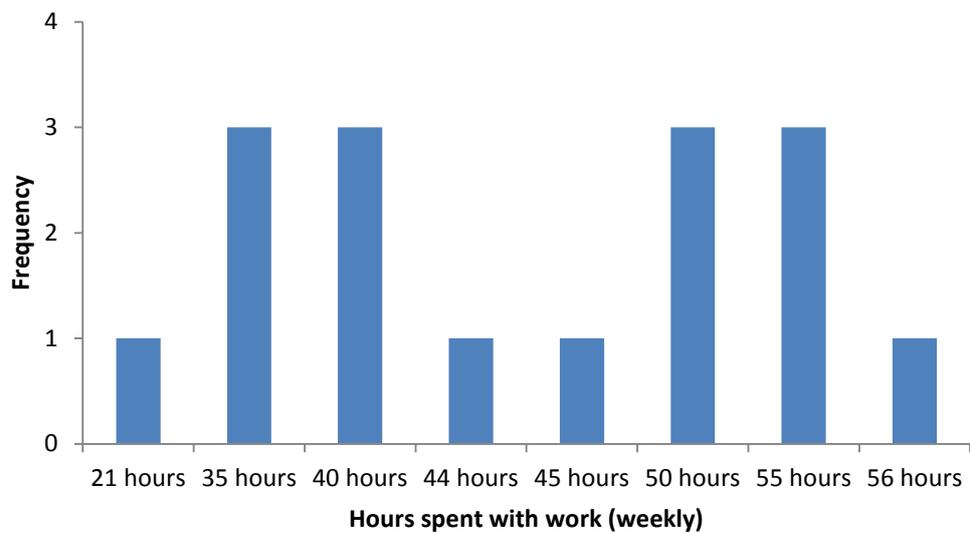
Graph 1



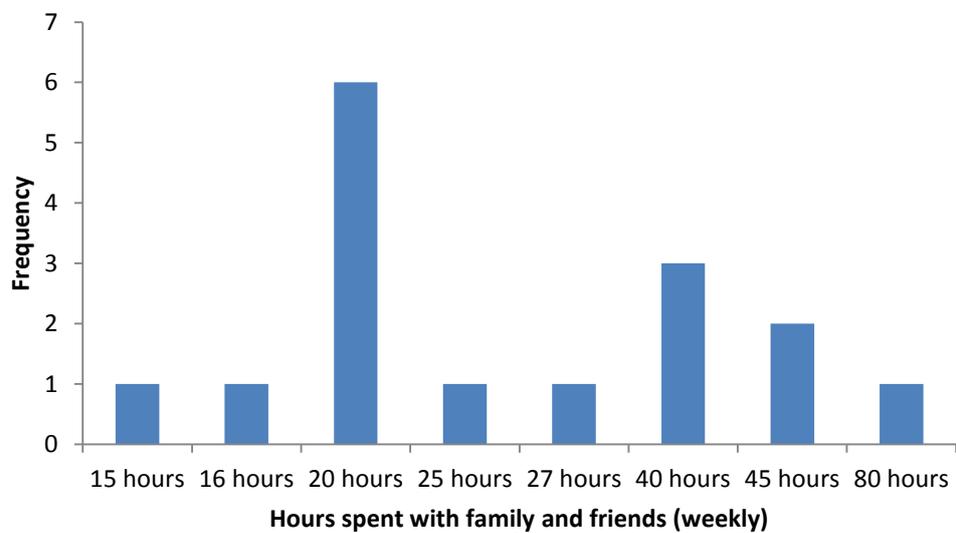
Graph 2



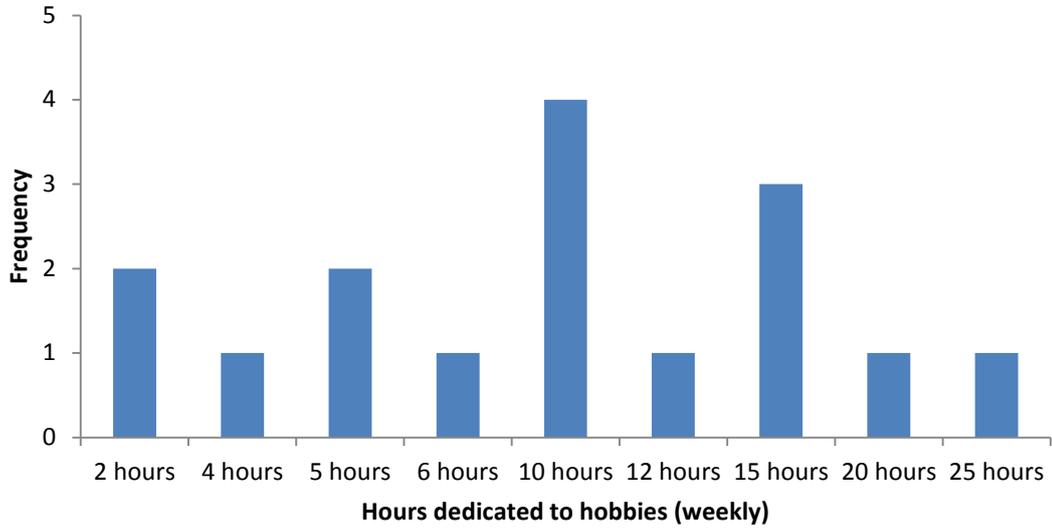
Graph 3



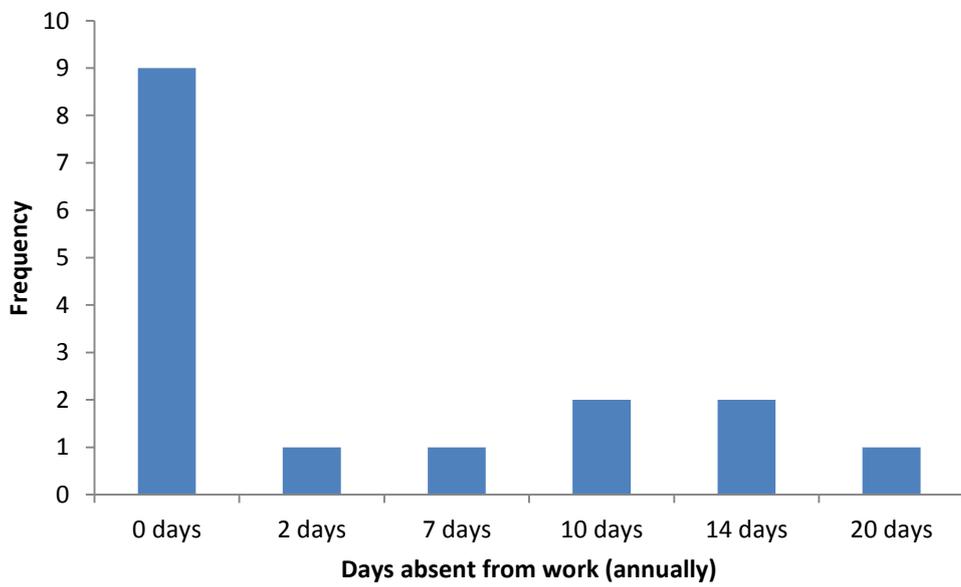
Graph 4



Graph 5



Graph 6



Graph 7

