

**EFFECTS OF SOCIAL TOURISM ON
UNEMPLOYED INDIVIDUALS' SELF-EFFICACY
AND JOB-SEARCH BEHAVIOUR**

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To my father...and to his memory

Abstract

Findings from social tourism research on low-income groups have shown that social tourism holds several psychological benefits for participants (e.g. Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009; McCabe and Johnson, 2013). On the other hand, the evidence base about any direct linkages between these individual benefits, and social and economic benefits, remains weak, affecting the promotion of social tourism in the UK policy agenda. In line with the recent debate on social tourism in the country (see All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social Tourism, 2011), the current socioeconomic trends, and more specifically the high rates of general and long-term unemployment (Eurostat, 2013; ONS, 2013b), and the consequences of unemployment for individuals, their families, and the society, this study sets to explore whether social tourism holds any particular psychological benefits for unemployed individuals in Great Britain, and the extent to which, such benefits have, in turn, positive effects on their job-search behaviour (JSB). Drawing upon findings from social tourism studies on low-income groups, psychology studies on unemployment and job-search behaviour, and social psychology theories with specific reference to Bandura's (1986, 1997) social cognitive theory, this study examines the psychological benefits of tourism participation within the context of self-efficacy beliefs. Self-efficacy (SE) is the main construct of social cognitive theory, and it has been found to play a central role in unemployed individuals' JSB. Utilising a mixed methods approach to data collection and analysis, the study incorporates a pre- post-test non-experimental design (n=57) and semi-structured interviews (n=13), with the aim to investigate any such effects over time, and to understand how they are manifested. Access to the rare target population, became possible through the database of the Family Holiday Association, the main provider of social tourism for low-income families in the UK.

Results showed that the holiday-break had positive effects on participants' SE, which, in turn, had positive effects on their JSB. In addition, the holiday-break was found to have direct effects on participants' JSB, as it was perceived as an incentive towards employment. On the other hand, such positive effects, and especially with regard to JSB, were not universal among unemployed individuals, mainly due to existing restrictions to work, such as caring responsibilities. This non-effect was counterbalanced by identified positive effects of the holiday-break on participants' behaviours towards alternative paths to employment

(BAPE), such as, volunteering. Overall, findings confirmed the central role of enabling environments in positive mental health, and offered some “tangible” evidence about direct linkages between individual psychological benefits that social tourism holds for participants, and socioeconomic benefits, thus, giving a new insight into the debate on social tourism in the UK, and providing important implications for policy. Given that “active” labour market programmes in the UK have largely overlooked job-seekers positive mental health (see Dolton and O’Neil, 2002; Kluve, 2010), it is suggested that social tourism, if properly tailored and positioned, could be embedded into existing unemployment schemes, helping them to increase their effectiveness.

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Declaration

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List of abbreviations

BAPE:	Behaviours towards alternative paths to employment
GSE:	General self-efficacy
JFSE:	Job-finding self-efficacy
JS:	Job-seeking
JSA:	Job-seeking activity
JSB:	Job-search behaviour
JSSE:	Job-search self-efficacy
SE:	Self-efficacy
SSE:	Specific self-efficacy
SWB:	Subjective well-being

Chapter 1 Introduction

“Throughout my life my greatest benefactors have been my dreams and my travels...”

Nikos Kazantzakis

1.1 Thesis Background

Tourism is widely known as a significant economic activity, which holds a leading position in the world economy (Apostolopoulos and Sonmez, 2001). Within the European Union in specific, tourism accounts for about 4% of the Community's GDP, a figure that confirms the high demand for travel and tourism services (Eurostat, 2010). In 2004, for instance, there was an average of 2.1 trips per tourist at the EU-15 level, and 2.2 trips per person in the UK, specifically (Eurostat, 2006). According to estimates from the World Tourism Organisation ([UNWTO], 2001) tourism demand will continue to increase and is expected to reach 1.6 billion international arrivals in 2020. These figures reflect the importance that people ascribe to the benefits that emanate from the tourism experience, which are, to a large extent, psychological (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Iso-Ahola, 1982). On the other hand, not everyone has the opportunity to experience such benefits as tourism is not universal among the adult population (Hughes, 1991; McCabe, Minnaert, and Diekmann, 2012). Within the EU and the UK population, for instance, a large minority of about 40% does to go on holidays (Richards, 1999; Eurostat, 2010a). Apart from those who do not want to go on a holiday, the rest of non-participants do not do so due to many different barriers to participation (Haukeland, 1990). Among such barriers, financial problems are the main reason of non-participation both in the EU and the UK (European Commission, 2013a; ONS, 2013a).

Within the inclusion of disadvantaged population, such as “the social strata with modest incomes,” in travel and tourism activities lies the concept of social tourism (International Social Tourism Organization [ISTO]¹, n.d., 1996; European Economic and Social Committee, 2006). Social tourism follows and promotes the principle of “access to travel and leisure opportunities for all” (ISTO, 1996), and it has been found to hold several benefits for participants, such as positive effects on social and family capital (Minnaert, Maitland, and

¹ Formerly BITS

Miller, 2009) and subjective well-being (McCabe and Johnson, 2013). In addition, evidence from the practice of social tourism shows that when properly organised, it generates employment and contributes to the economic growth of host communities that suffer from seasonality (European Commission, 2010a, 2010b). As such, and although the term “social” guides to a philanthropic activity, social tourism does not differ from general tourism, in terms of its benefits for individuals and the economy. In fact, it could be argued that social tourism fills in the gaps of general tourism, namely, its inadequacy in encompassing neglected social groups and areas alike, in its framework.

In several European countries (e.g. Spain, Belgium, France) social tourism has been taken seriously from the state and forms part of the social policy, yet in others it has not, and relies on private initiatives (see McCabe, Minnaert, and Diekmann [Eds], 2012). The UK belongs to the latter category, and the state’s belief about the potential of social tourism remains weak. Despite the increasing evidence from both research and practice about the multidimensional benefits of social tourism, the concept has rather misconstrued. This is reflected in the latest official response from the government, according to which social tourism is considered as pure welfare, which is not necessary given the help provided to disadvantaged groups through other policies and programmes (e.g. other welfare benefits), and not feasible in the current economic climate (All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social Tourism, 2011). This perception is perhaps reasonable considering the connotations that accompany the word “social”, and the promotion of social tourism in the UK, which relies heavily on its philanthropic element.

On the other hand, studies conducted over the last two decades have shown that individual benefits for participants, such as positive socio-psychological effects resulting from the tourism experience, have positive implications for the individuals’ behaviour and functioning within the family unit, and the wider social system (e.g. Smith, 1998; Smith and Hughes, 1999; Minnaert, 2007; Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009; McCabe, 2009; McCabe and Johnson, 2013). Such findings have created an important evidence base about the value of social tourism, which goes beyond the individual and concerns the society as a whole, and have contributed to the debate on the potential inclusion of social tourism in the UK policy agenda. However, there is still limited evidence about direct linkages between individual

and social benefits, such as between psychological benefits for participants and a more active social behaviour, which would reflect individuals' transition from the margins of the society to a more central position within this society. As a result, the debate on social tourism's consideration as a part of social policy does not have a specific direction. This lack of direction causes three interrelated problems with regard to the promotion of the concept; firstly, it leaves unanswered the central question "What position exactly can social tourism have in the current policy agenda?"; secondly, as long as this question remains unanswered, the misconception on behalf of the state and the public that social tourism is restricted to pure welfare will be maintained; and thirdly, as long as this perception about social tourism remains, it will be rather unlikely for the concept to be included in the UK policy agenda given the official response from the government.

The current study addresses these issues and aims to identify any direct linkages between individual and socioeconomic benefits, and to specify the direction that the debate on social tourism can take in the current policy agenda. Drawing upon earlier social tourism studies on low-income families, this research focuses on unemployed individuals, exploring the extent to which, social tourism holds any particular psychological benefits for them, which could have positive effects on their job-search behaviour (JSB). This said, the study focuses exclusively on a large subgroup of the wider low-income population, and deals with the dominant socioeconomic problem of unemployment, which especially recently, has taken alarming dimensions (Wanberg et al., 2012a; Eurostat, 2013). It must be mentioned at this point that participants were, in their vast majority, long-term unemployed (involuntarily out of work for more than 12 months) parents (see ILO, 1982; Begum, 2004). Long-term unemployed individuals comprise a subgroup of the unemployed population which needs particular attention, firstly due to the fact that long-term unemployment rises more than general unemployment, a phenomenon that is particularly evident in the UK (Blanchard, 2006; ONS, 2013b); and secondly, because long-term unemployment among parents may have a negative impact on their children's future employment, not so much in terms of intergenerational transmission of unemployment, but mainly due to the limitations that the consequences of parental unemployment, such as low-income, have on the developmental trajectories of children, and their future life chances, including employment (D'Addio, 2007; Shildrick et al., 2012a).

Unemployment affects the lives of millions of people, and according to a plethora of evidence it has particularly negative effects on psychological health (e.g. Paul and Moser, 2009; Bambra, 2011; Kentikelenis et al., 2011; Gili et al., 2013), which, in turn, have a negative impact on the individuals' JSB (Gallie and Marsh, 1994; Vinokur and Schul, 2002; Wanberg et al., 2012b). A variable that has been found to play a central role under these circumstances is self-efficacy (SE). SE is the main construct of social cognitive theory, and refers to people's beliefs about their capabilities (Bandura, 1989, 1997). Due to its significant impact on human motivation and action, it has become a widely studied variable in many different fields, such as in psychology, education, sociology, public health, and organisational research (see Maddux, 2002; Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006). Within psychology studies on unemployment, SE have been found to be positively associated with job-search behaviour (JSB) and the likelihood of reemployment (e.g. van Ryn and Vinokur, 1992; Eden and Aviram, 1993; Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999; Vuori and Vinokur, 2005).

For this reason, the psychological benefits of holiday-taking for the unemployed individuals are examined through SE beliefs. Although SE has not been studied within the context of the tourist experience before, it shares similarities with other psychological constructs, which have been found to be influenced by holiday-taking, such as self-esteem (Minnaert, 2007), and subjective well-being (SWB) (McCabe and Johnson, 2013). The current study draws upon these similarities in order to investigate the extent to which a holiday-break has positive effects on participants' SE beliefs. Then, such effects are examined in terms of their impact on participants' JSB. More specifically, the study uses a mixed methods approach to data collection and analysis, by incorporating a pre- post-test non-experimental design (n=57) and semi-structured interviews (n=13), with the aim to investigate any such effects over time, and to understand how they are manifested. Measurements of SE and JSB are taken at three different time points: a pre-test is administered one month before the holiday-break (T1), followed by two post-tests, conducted two (T2), and three to six months (T3) after the holiday-break, respectively. The particular selection of the two post-holiday measurements' timescales stemmed from the fact that such time intervals could eliminate any effects of positive mood of temporary character, which are more likely to follow a positive experience, such as a holiday-break, while allowing sufficient time for any effects,

sustained to a worthwhile degree over time, to reveal (see Forgas et al., 1984; Cohen et al., 2011). The results are then discussed in relation to their implications for the theory and practice of social tourism.

1.2 Thesis overview

This chapter presented briefly the study's background in order to introduce the reader the topic, the context and the aim of this study. Chapter 2 critically reviews the literature on the psychological benefits of the tourism experience, with specific reference to social tourism, and the psychology literature on unemployment. While reviewing the social tourism literature it is identified that there is no study that focuses exclusively on unemployed individuals, a large and dramatically increasing subgroup among the wider disadvantaged populations. While reviewing the psychology literature on unemployment, the centrality of SE beliefs in unemployed individuals' psychological health and JSB, respectively, is highlighted. It is then identified that SE shares similar components with other major psychological constructs, which have been found to be positively influenced by holiday-taking. These identifications form the theoretical basis of the study, upon which the proposed argument of the thesis is developed, and formulate the research questions and hypotheses. Chapter 3 discusses the chosen methodological approach, in relation to the philosophical roots of pragmatism, and the particular character of the research questions. The need for a mixed methods research design is justified and the two separate methods of data collection, a quantitative using a pre- post-holiday survey and a qualitative using semi-structured interviews, are discussed. The complexities within a real world research setting are described analytically, together with essential adjustments that have been made during the fieldwork. The next two chapters, chapter 4 and 5 present and discuss the empirical results from the quantitative and qualitative phases of the study. They begin with a brief discussion on the analytic strategies used, and then proceed with the presentation of findings, and a discussion in relation to the existing literature. Chapter 4 presents the results from the pre-post holiday survey conducted among 57 unemployed individuals, while chapter 5 the results from the semi-structured interviews conducted among 13 participants. Finally, Chapter 6 first presents the integrated results from both phases of the study, then discusses the research contributions, and implications for policy, and concludes with the study's limitations and recommendations for future research.

Chapter 2 Literature review

2.1 Introduction

The chapter has been divided into three main parts. The first focuses on the psychological benefits of tourism participation with specific reference to the social tourism literature. The chapter begins by reviewing these benefits for the wider population, and it then goes on to highlight the fact that a large minority of the population does not have access to such benefits, to a large extent, due to financial constraints. In this respect, the role of social tourism for low-income groups is discussed and existing research findings are presented. Despite the increasing evidence that social tourism has a positive impact on people's psychological health and personal development, the review of the literature yielded no study that focuses exclusively on unemployed individuals, a large sub-group of the low-income population and a rapidly increasing socioeconomic group worldwide, and within the EU and the UK in particular. Given the severe consequences of unemployment on individuals' psychological health, it is argued that the tourism experience might be particularly beneficial for them.

Before discussing the specific domains in which such an experience could be beneficial for the unemployed in particular, the second part of the chapter introduces the reader to the phenomenon of unemployment. Definitions, causes, figures and socioeconomic consequences of unemployment are first presented, and then the literature on the psychological effects of unemployment on individuals is reviewed, and discussed through the lenses of different unemployment theories. The negative implications of such effects on the unemployed person's job-seeking behaviour are highlighted, and the role of the state in formulating supportive 'active' labour market policies is briefly discussed. It is pointed out that existing policies in the UK have not incorporated into their services and programmes the promotion of positive mental health as an integral part of the reemployment process. In this respect, the central role that SE beliefs appear to hold for people's motivation to search for work and persist in the job-seeking process is discussed through social cognitive theory and other relevant learning theories.

Although the concept of SE has not been linked to the tourism experience before, sources of SE information and ways of altering SE beliefs appear to share common aspects with

benefits resulting from the tourist experience. In the third part of the chapter any such potential links between tourism experiences and SE beliefs are discussed analytically, and it is argued that a holiday-break might influence the SE of unemployed individuals. Furthermore, and given the established relationship between SE and JSB in the relevant psychology literature, changes in SE might, in turn, influence the unemployed person's JSB. The investigation of the above relationships and the extent to which they occur within a tourism context, form the study's objectives and research questions. The chapter finishes with the consideration of independent variables that could influence these relationships, and the presentation of the study's conceptual framework.

2.2 Psychological benefits of tourism participation

Tourism is widely known as an economic activity. Notwithstanding this side of tourism and the main focus of both research and practice on the benefits of tourism for the economies, tourism provides simultaneously a plethora of other benefits for societies and individuals, such as promotion of peace, mutual knowledge and understanding, improvements in the working capacity of communities, promotion of personal and social development and progress, and positive impact on the physical and mental health of individuals (United Nations World Tourism Organization [UNWTO], 1980; European Economic and Social Committee, 2006). As such, it has been argued that tourism lies beyond simple profits for business (e.g. Pearce, 2005; Higgins-Desbiolle, 2006). In actuality, the primary value of tourism is psychological. From this value stem the tourism demand and consequently, any financial and other benefits. This said the benefits of travelling, which are to their vast majority socio-psychological (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Ross, 1994) motivate people to travel (Iso-Ahola, 1982). As Mannell and Iso-Ahola (1987, p. 314) indicate, "psychological benefits of leisure and tourist experience emanate from the interplay of two motivational forces: to escape from routine and stressful environments and to seek recreational opportunities."

Escaping or getting away from the day-to-day environment implies a spatial move, an act of travel from one place to another and a change of scenery, which is a fundamental aspect of tourism and among the minimum necessary features of tourism activity (Urry, 2002[1990]; Tribe, 1997). In fact, this act of travelling is inherent to the meaning of holiday-taking. A synonym of the word "holidays", the word "vacation" as it is commonly used, has

connotations of vacating our everyday-life space (Botterill and Crompton, 1996, p. 79). As such, it seems reasonable that “for most people and under most conditions, tourism is an escape-oriented activity” (Iso-Ahola, 1987, p. 258), and that in the majority of studies of tourist experience, escape appears to be the most or among the most important reasons for going on a holiday (Crompton, 1979; Krippendorf 1987; Ryan, 2002; Pearce, 2005).

This escape-oriented nature of tourism stems from the plethora of psychological benefits that such an escape entails. First of all, it is a break from the constraints of everyday life, (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Jafari, 1987; Ryan, 2002) and simultaneously an escape to a stress-free environment. In contrast to the stressful day-to-day environment, the holiday environment, both natural and social, is usually relaxing and it provides opportunities for recreational activities. Studies from environmental psychology (e.g. Ulrich et al., 1991; Barton and Pretty, 2010) and tourism (Cohen, 1979b; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Gilbert and Abdullah, 2004) are consistent in showing that such aspects contribute to stress mitigation, the restoration of people’s physical and mental powers, and the enhancement of their general sense of well-being. Therefore, a significant proportion of tourists travel for relaxation and recreation purposes (Crompton, 1979; Graburn, 1989; Pearce, 2005; Kler, 2009).

Notwithstanding such benefits, the recreational, to a large extent, character of tourism is often perceived as trivial or superficial, as it includes elements of fun, relaxation, and play. This is perhaps among the main reasons why the study of tourism in general has not seen the interest it deserves. But while the tourism experience includes such elements, it is also an important period for the development of healthy personalities (Ryan, 2002). In actuality, this development is derived to a large extent from recreational aspects. As Cohen (1979a, p. 22) stresses, “What on the surface appears to be mere superficial recreation in fact has a deeper structural significance.” First of all, processes inherent to the holiday experience, such as recreation in natural settings, involve positive changes in psychological and physiological states, and often in behaviours or functioning, such as cognitive functioning (see Ulrich et al., 1991). In other words, the positive influence of a holiday-break is not restricted to one’s affective states, but also includes the person’s cognitive and behavioural processes. As such, it can be argued that “Recreation performs a *serious* function – it restitutes the individual to his society” (Cohen, 1979b, p. 185), and maintains in a way the

social system in harmony (Jafari, 1987). Consistent with this is evidence from studies on individuals who experience specific circumstances, such as ill-health. It has been found that tourism, through escapism and recreation, can be a means for restituting patients treated for cancer to their lives (Hunter-Jones, 2003, 2005).

In addition, it has often been reported that recreational activities can create “peak” or “optimal experiences” (e.g. Ryan, 2002; Kler, 2009) in which “the person feels himself, more than at other times, to be responsible, active, creating centre of his activities and of his perceptions” (Maslow, 1999[1968], p. 118). During “flow” experiences the person enters in a state characterised by “intense and focused concentration on what he/she is doing in the present moment; a sense that one control one’s actions, a sense that time has passed faster than normal; and experience of the activity as intrinsically rewarding” (Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002, p. 90). Such experiences through creative leisure activities foster individual development and an increase in one’s skills (Haworth and Lewis, 2005), and serve as buffers against adversity and pathology (Nakamura and Csikszentmihalyi, 2002). Thus, it could be argued that relaxation and recreation can be seen as necessary prerequisites for the emergence of other benefits that are related to individuals’ personal development.

But unlike other forms of leisure, tourism is a multidimensional form of leisure that extends beyond the boundaries of one’s life-space, providing novel and fulfilling experiences lacking in ordinary daily lives (Cohen, 1979b; Graburn, 1989; Pearce, 2005). It is an act of exploration (Fridgen, 1984) that gives individuals the opportunity to simultaneously experience new places and cultures, to participate into different activities, and to widen their horizons (Urry, 2002[1990]; Kler, 2009). “This available experience *out there* is what makes travel worthwhile” (Cohen, 1979b, p. 182) and what has been found to further contribute to one’s personal development. In a plethora of studies the tourism experience has been presented as time for self-reassessment and discovery (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Krippendorf 1987; Ryan, 2002), a process of learning (e.g. Iso-Ahola, 1982), and “re-skilling” in everyday life (e.g. Urry, 1995). Hence, tourism is “more than travelling away from the usual habitat, it is also a state of mind” (Jafari, 1987, p. 153).

It must be stressed at this point that modes of touristic experience are not exclusive, but they usually overlap. An individual who goes on a holiday to escape from the pressures of daily life and to relax, for instance, may also find the chance to reassess his/her self- and life-perceptions (see Cohen, 1979b, pp. 183-192). Thus, the interval of the holiday experience can vary from being a period of escape to moments of re-evaluation (Ryan, 2002). But beyond and above any categorisations of the touristic experience, what is important is that going on a holiday is commonly perceived as particularly beneficial for people's lives. The plethora of benefits discussed above, have been found to have a positive impact on people's well-being (Gilbert and Abdulah, 2004), overall life satisfaction and quality of life (Neal, Sirgy, and Uysal, 1999, 2004; Neal, Uysal, and Sirgy, 2007). As Richards (1999, p. 189) argues, "vacation time also makes a very specific contribution to the quality of life through allowing people to pursue a range of interests and by providing the opportunity for social interaction, personal development and individual identity formation".

As such it can be argued that although tourism has been criticised as a form of escapism, its multidimensional benefits constitute it a more effective means of escape from everyday stressors (Iso-Ahola, 1982; Krippendorf 1987), and of return to these everyday stressors (see Jafari, 1987). For this reasons, contemporary citizens attach an increasingly important meaning to tourism, and perceive it as related to their long-term psychological needs and life-plans (Cohen, 1984). But while tourism is considered as a necessity in the modern society at least in the "developed" world (e.g. Smith and Hughes, 1999; Pantazis, Gordon and Townsend, 2006; Such and Kay, 2012), this human necessity does not benefit everyone. At a societal level, and like most things in life, from atomic power to the internet, and from religion to politics, tourism has also a negative side, which is damaging for the host communities and the environment (see Urry, 2002[1990]). But social pathogeneses, such as the exploitation of people and places are deviations rather embedded in man's darker sides and cannot underestimate tourism's overall positive purpose and value as an important tool for socio-economic development. At an individual level, although going on a holiday, is among the positive events in one's life, its impact is not significantly consistent on everyone's happiness (Ballas and Dorling, 2007). Furthermore, and like any other consumer "product" tourism is not available to anyone, but only to those who can afford it, and are free to choose when and how to go on a holiday (see Haukeland, 1990).

2.3 Non-participants

Similarly to other leisure activities, which are not accessible to all (see Clarke and Critcher, 1985; Levitas, 2006), holiday-taking is not universal among the adult population (Hughes, 1991; McCabe, Minnaert, and Diekmann, 2012). Apart from those who do not want to go on a holiday, the rest of non-participants do not do so due to many different barriers to participation. According to Haukeland's (1990, pp. 179-182) typology of non-travellers, there are voluntary non-travellers, non-travellers who are obliged to stay at home in spite of a satisfactory social welfare situation, and those who are obliged to stay at home as a result of social welfare problems (e.g. lack of economic means and health resources). Figures from the European Commission show 54% of tourism participation among the EU population in 2008 (Eurostat, 2010a) which fall to 51.9% in 2011 (Eurostat, 2012). If these figures will be interpreted in reverse, they present a significant percentage of non-participants. Similar UK figures across the last two decades show that a large minority of 40% does not go on holidays (Hughes, 1991; Richards, 1999; Eurostat, 2010a).

2.3.1 The role of social tourism

Within the social exclusion of disadvantaged groups from tourism activities lies the concept of social tourism. Although there is no single definition of social tourism, its basic principle is "access to travel and leisure opportunities for all" (ISTO, 1996). More specifically, social tourism encompasses a variety of initiatives, commercial and non-commercial, governmental and private, in order to offer holidays "in particular to the social strata with modest incomes" (ISTO, n.d; European Economic and Social Committee, 2006; Higgins-Desbiolle, 2006). Social tourism has been found to have significant benefits for the participants, as well as for the societies and economies involved. Benefits for the participants are primary psychological (e.g. Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009; McCabe, Joldersma, and Li, 2010), and socio-economic benefits revolve around the potential of social tourism to counter social exclusion (Minnaert et al., 2006), to combat seasonality and to generate economic activity and growth (European Commission, 2010a, 2010b). These multiple benefits have increased the interest on social tourism and have led in initiatives both at a pan-European (e.g. Calypso) and regional (e.g. Imsero in Spain) level. Imsero, for instance, is carried out during the low season and has been particularly successful. Figures from the 2009-2010 season (flow of €690 million; generation and/or maintenance of

119,000 jobs – 16,000 direct and 103,000 indirect) show the financial sustainability of the programme (European Commission, 2010b). As such, it can be argued that social tourism is not just “social” with the rather narrow meaning that term is used, and which refers exclusively to welfare. From a financial and business point of view it is quite evident that social tourism is more than an “action or procedure designed to promote the basic physical and material well-being of people in need” (Oxford English Dictionary, 2004) or social tourists.

On the other hand, and despite this increasing interest on social tourism, there are great variations across Europe with regard to its practice due to historical, ideological and social reasons (European Economic and Social Committee, 2006). As a result, although in some countries (e.g. Spain, Belgium, France, Italy, Portugal) social tourism for low-income groups forms part of social policy (see McCabe, Minnaert, and Diekmann [Eds], 2012), in others it is still in its infancy (e.g. Greece), and yet in others relies exclusively on private initiatives (e.g. Family Holiday Association in the UK). In the UK social tourism has never received official recognition or been integrated into the tourism or welfare policies (All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social Tourism, 2011). Apart from some praises and sympathies, the current and previous Governments have remained largely immune to this movement (e.g. Hazel, 2005). Indicative is the latest governmental statement with regard to social tourism was the respond of the Minister of Tourism and Heritage, John Penrose, to the inquiry of the All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social Tourism on the socioeconomic benefits of social tourism:

“The Government is not in the position to fund or subsidise holidays and, equally, previous Governments of all parties have not found any money to do so either. While we recognise the economic and social importance of holidays, we think it is up to families how they spend their time and money, so we are committed to help disadvantaged people and to combat poverty through other policies and programmes. Equally, outright subsidies would prove unpopular with taxpayers who are having to tighten their purse-strings, and there would also be the practical issue of determining eligibility and thresholds” (All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social Tourism, 2011, p. 22).

It is clear from the statement above that the main reason why social tourism is outside the current UK policy agendas is mainly financial. But this is rather oxymoron considering that social tourism has great potential to boost socioeconomic development in neglected and underdeveloped host communities, such as seaside resorts (see Agarwal and Brunt, 2006). In fact, financial should be one of the main reasons for the inclusion of social tourism into the current policy agenda, and especially under the current economic climate during which no other solution for jobs' generation appears in the horizon. The secondary reason about different policy directions rather ignores the complementary character that policies should have. Policies are not mutually exclusive, and especially policies about complex, enduring, and unsolvable social phenomena, such as mass socio-economic deprivation, poverty, unemployment and so forth, which clearly call for synthesis of current, and new innovative policies. In addition, a third reason has been attributed to the limited existing research on social tourism (see Minnaert et al., 2009; McCabe et al., 2010; All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social Tourism, 2011).

2.3.2 Tourism provision for low-income groups

Within the wider tourism literature, the main "new" trend since the 1990s has been a focus on sustainable tourism (see Xiao and Smith, 2006). Within the limited existing tourism constraints literature the main focus during the past years (since the passing of the 1995 Disability Discrimination Act) has been on tourism for people with physical disabilities (see Shaw and Coles, 2004). There is no doubt that these two research areas are particularly significant with potential for practical implications. On the other hand, the way sustainable tourism has been approached concerns mainly the environmental aspect of sustainability, with no reference to social tourism as an integral part of the sustainability concept (see Baumgartner, 2012); and the constraints literature has, to a large extent, approached issues of accessibility as mainly related to physical disabilities (e.g. Buhalis and Darcy, 2010). In actuality, protection of the environment, despite its significance, is only one aspect of sustainability, which on its own it can meet neither the needs of the present nor the needs of the future generations. It could do so, if the other fundamental needs of humanity (e.g. need for paid work, for perspective in one's life, and personal development) had been already met. As such, and due to the fact that such needs, to a large extent have not been met, the environmental aspect of sustainability is insufficient to encompass the purpose of

sustainable development. Furthermore, and with regard to tourism accessibility, in actuality, disability or sickness is not the most frequent barrier to tourism participation (e.g. Hughes, 1991). Among other important constraints that exclude people from tourism participation, including disabilities, financial problems² are the main reason of non-participation among the European Union's households (Eurostat, 2010a). In 2012, for instance, 46% of European non-travellers (e.g. 72% in Greece) did not go on a holiday due to financial reasons (European Commission, 2013a). Within the UK, affordability has also been the main reason for not going on a holiday-break (Corlyon and La Placa, 2006) with 30% of the population not being able to go on holiday for a week once a year, due to financial reasons (ONS,³ 2013a). Such an exclusion from tourism contributes to the wider social exclusion of disadvantaged populations (see Sedgley, Pritchard, and Morgan, 2012).

Considering the above discussion and figures, it is clear that modern tourism is not a freely available mass phenomenon as it is often depicted in the literature, but its consumption varies significantly, with socioeconomic position exerting a decisive influence upon holiday taking (Cohen, 1984; Seaton, 1992; Argyle, 1994; Waters and Moore, 2002). Indicative are reports from EU citizens with regard to the question 'Will you have the necessary financial resources to be able to afford some type of holiday in 2010?'; the most educated (74%) were the most confident that they would be able to afford a vacation, whereas only about half of manual workers (52%) anticipated that they would be able to afford some kind of holidays (European Commission, 2009). On the other hand, and despite the significant proportion of non-travellers due to financial constraints, the provision of holidays for this group of people is an underdeveloped area of social care in general and within the UK in particular, both in terms of research and practice (Hazel, 2005; McCabe et al., 2010). Perhaps there is an assumption in the society, similar to MacCannell's (2001, p. 25) assumption and hope, that people living in difficult circumstances and who need a break from such difficult circumstances are not so many. Perhaps there is the wider public opinion

² Disability or illness and poverty often overlap. Generally, people with disabilities have much less income than people without disabilities (see Darcy and Daruwalla, 1999; Smith, Austin, and Kennedy, 2001). The low employment rates among people with disabilities affect income, and the level of disposable income directly affects life experiences, such as leisure activity choices, and the likelihood of travel (ESCAP, 2003). But although it has been estimated that half of the *sick or disabled* are *poor*, there is a large number of *poor* whose poverty is not associated with being sick or disabled (Hughes, 1991, p. 194).

³ Office for National Statistics.

that tourism is simply a luxury consumer product that can and should be consumed only from those who can afford it.

2.3.3 Benefits of tourism participation for low-income groups

Research that examines the impact of tourism participation on the lives of low-income groups is limited to a few non-empirical (Hughes, 1991; Hazel, 2005) and empirical studies (Smith, 1998; Smith and Hughes, 1999; Corlyon and La Placa, 2006; Minnaert, 2007; Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009; McCabe, 2009; McCabe, Joldersma, and Li, 2010; Minnaert et al., 2010; Minnaert, 2012; McCabe and Johnson, 2013). In contrast to the small volume of research, existing findings have offered a significant insight into the positive socio-psychological impact of social tourism on low-income groups. Such impact concerns well-being and quality of life (e.g. McCabe and Johnson, 2013), and social and family capital (e.g. Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009). In addition, and despite the focus of these studies on different concepts, there is a consensus among findings with regard to benefits of the holiday experience that are particularly significant for the participants, such as improvements in family relations and social life, widening of horizons, increases in optimism and self-esteem levels, and time for self- and life reassessments, among others. To a large extent, such benefits are consistent with the benefits that tourism participation has for the wider population. However, for economically, and consequently socially disadvantaged populations, such as low-income families, going on a holiday has an additional value, compared to the more well-off travellers. For low-income groups, getting away from the home environment is particularly beneficial due to the stressful and often traumatic circumstances they experience in their everyday lives (e.g. Smith and Hughes, 1999; Minnaert, 2007; McCabe, 2009). For instance, it has been found that 25% of people living in a low-income household suffer from mental health symptoms compared with 12% of those in households with income slightly above the UK national average (Payne, 2006, p. 293). In other words, those excluded from tourism are usually those who would most benefit from a holiday-break (Family Holiday Association [FHA], n.d.). This is just one example of the increasingly unfair life in Britain, where “those in greatest need are often being least well served” (Dorling, 2011, p. 125). Moreover, and with regard to tourism benefits, these are not restricted to the time being away, but they continue upon return back home, and they are not only individual but simultaneously benefits for the society. Despite the small existing

evidence base, there are “tangible” signs in social tourism studies that support these beneficial aspects of a holiday-break (e.g. Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009). Reversely, results from the 1999 Poverty and Social Exclusion (PSE) Survey have provided evidence that people who cannot afford activities, such as a holiday away from home, are more likely to suffer from poor mental health (see Payne, 2006).

2.3.4 Social tourism for unemployed parents

The samples used in the existing social tourism studies on low-income groups, include to some extent unemployed individuals; however, there is no tourism research that focuses exclusively on this large and particularly vulnerable socio-economic group. The unemployed currently comprise a large sub-group of the wider low-income population (DWP, 2010a) and a rapidly increasing proportion of the total population in many countries around Europe and the globe. With regard to tourism participation, they clearly belong to the group of non-participants (see Seaton, 1992). As Tomlinson (1986, p. 43) argues, “Such people are doubly disadvantaged. Denied the basic requirements of the consumer - regular work and disposable income - they are also excluded from the *leisure lifestyle*.” Leisure activities are early sacrificed due to financial hardship and unemployed tend to lead largely home-centred-lives (Glyptis, 1989). Notwithstanding this exclusion, available references concerning linkages between unemployment and leisure are consistent in showing that meaningful leisure activities can moderate the negative psychological effects of unemployment (e.g. Haworth and Evans, 1987). Meaningful leisure occupies one’s time (Hepworth, 1980; Glyptis, 1989), which is to a large extent passive during unemployment, and has been associated with less depressive symptoms, positive affect, and higher self-esteem (Feather and Bond, 1983; Ball and Orford, 2002; Waters and Moore, 2002). In contrast, decreasing activity and withdrawal into the home has been associated with decline in mental health (Kilpatrick and Trew, 1985). As such, it has been argued that the positive impact of meaningful leisure activities on psychological health may, in turn, contribute to better job-search activity and better chances of re-employment (see Waters and Moore, 2002, p. 30).

Evidence since the 1930s, when the most prominent leisure activity and the centre of community life was the cinema, show the important psychological benefits that leisure can

have for the unemployed. In Bakke's (1933) and Orwell's (2001[1937]) early accounts on the experience of unemployment, a favourite refuge of the unemployed men was the pictures. Through the cinema they could temporarily escape from their life hardships and "travel" to distant places⁴. Within the context of tourism, this can occur through the chance people have to physically and mentally distance themselves from their habitual environment (Krippendorf, 1987, p. 27). This change is beneficial for tourists in general (e.g. Fridgen, 1984), thus, it is expected to be particularly beneficial for the unemployed given their deprived day-to-day environment. As Smith and Hughes argue:

"The holiday experiences of the unemployed are not known but they are likely to be restricted. It is possible though that a holiday (if attainable) may be more rewarding than general leisure activities. The holiday is a concentrated period of time that requires prior organisation and gives some structuring and sense of purpose. It also occurs away from the home environment and thus provides change and relief but also enables the unemployed to be 'inverted', to adopt new personas and behave in different ways. There is opportunity to renew existing relationships and establish new one. It is intrinsically pleasurable (usually) and is anticipated with pleasure; although the change of location is only temporary the significance is not confined to the holiday period itself" (1999, pp. 125-126).

Limited evidence available in Zielenziger's (2007) account on Japan's lost generation, confirms Smith's and Hughes's hypothesis. Travelling abroad gave to *hikikomori* (young men who shut themselves in their rooms, withdrawing from society) interviewees, the chance to find themselves, relax, and become more sociable. Drawing upon Smith's and Hughes's hypothesis and particularly upon recent findings from social tourism research that show the potential of social tourism in making a difference in the lives of similar socio-economic populations, this study attempts to link social tourism and unemployment by investigating the beneficial role that tourism participation may have for the unemployed, with specific

⁴ Another important benefit of such an escape was to keep themselves warm. As Orwell (2001[1937], p. 74) describes, "Even people on the verge of starvation will readily pay twopence to get out of the ghastly cold of a winter afternoon."

reference to long-term unemployed parents. This focus on long-term unemployed parents is of particular importance for three main reasons: First, along with the rise of general unemployment, long-term unemployment rises more, a phenomenon that needs serious consideration in several European countries including the UK; second, long-term unemployment, as its name implies, is not temporary, and as such, it is less controllable and has more severe effects at an individual, family, social and economic level, than general unemployment; and third, long-term unemployment among parents has even harsher effects at all these levels. Such characteristics and effects are further discussed later in this chapter (see §2.4 and §2.5).

But what must be stressed at this point is that the focus of the current study on this particular sociodemographic group is also relevant to the popular discourse on the intergenerational transmission of unemployment in the UK. According to this discourse, the culture of worklessness and welfare dependency is transmitted from parents to their children. While this argument remains popular especially among the UK government and media, there is not any empirical evidence, apart from some correlation coefficients, that shows causality between parents' and children's unemployment (e.g. Macmillan, 2010; Shildrick et al., 2012a). On the other hand, and despite the demythologisation of this discourse, parental unemployment is still related to children's life chances, including their future unemployment, but rather indirectly, through low-income. More specifically, low-income as the main consequence of unemployment may be linked to lower intergenerational mobility. Intergenerational mobility is one of the two⁵ aspects of social mobility, and it refers to "the extent to which, in a given society, individuals' social status changes across generations" (D'Addio, 2007, p. 12). This said there is a plethora of evidence showing that the socioeconomic disadvantages of parents may be transmitted to their children, thus, inhibiting their social mobility. Parental low-income, for instance, either as a result of unemployment or not affects children's development, such as educational opportunities and future employment prospects, respectively, which, in turn, may affect their income. These negative effects result in the intergenerational mobility of disadvantage (unemployment may be one such disadvantage). This phenomenon appears to be more

⁵ The other, refers to changes in individuals' social status within the life course (intra-generational).

pertinent in societies with greater inequalities, such as the UK and the US (e.g. Solon, 2002). This said, and even if unemployment is not passed down the generations, the consequences of parents' general and long-term unemployment in specific (e.g. low-income), together with social inequalities have important socioeconomic implications as they comprise a major limitation in children's life and employment opportunities. As such, parents' return to the labour market is important not as an inhibitor of future unemployment among their children, but as a facilitator of children's development, which may enhance their life and employment perspectives. Before proceeding with the theoretical discussion around the potential psychological benefits that a holiday-break may have for long-term unemployed parents, some necessary information about the phenomenon of unemployment, as well as an overview of the psychology literature on unemployment are presented.

2.4 Unemployment: definitions, causes, figures and socioeconomic consequences

It has been argued that one of the most difficult problems of research on unemployment is to define who is to be regarded as unemployed (e.g. Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985). Economists commonly distinguish between two sorts of unemployment: the 'involuntarily unemployed' workers, who are unwillingly out of work; and on the other hand, the 'voluntarily unemployed' workers, who prefer to be out of work (Linbeck and Snower, 1985). In these two different meanings of unemployment lies the debate about the nature of unemployment, whether it is involuntary or not. This is an on-going debate with not only social, but political character as well. As Clark and Oswald (1994, p. 648) for instance, argue, "The right-wing position supports that unemployment is predominantly voluntary and the left-wing position that unemployment is predominantly involuntary." Without supporting any political stance, this study views unemployment as a predominantly involuntary phenomenon (Theodossiou, 1998), where unemployed are those people who are available to work, but are unable to secure work (Hayes, and Nutman, 1981), a view that is consistent with its current and prevailing everyday use and the International Labour Organization's (ILO) (1982, p. 4) definition:

The 'unemployed' comprise all persons above a specified age who during the reference period were: (a) 'without work', i.e. were not in paid employment or self-employment; (b) 'currently available for work', i.e. were available for paid

employment or self-employment during the reference period; and (c) 'seeking work', i.e. had taken specific steps in a specified recent period to seek paid employment or self-employment.

Furthermore, people who have been unemployed more than 6 and 12 months (the measures of the incidence of long-term unemployment most commonly used) are referred as long-term unemployed (Machin and Manning, 1999, p. 1). Within the European Union and the UK specifically, long-term unemployment is defined as greater than 12 months (Eurostat, n.d.; Begum, 2004).

The debate on the causes of unemployment does not have a specific answer. In general, unemployment can be attributed to changes in aggregate demand ("cyclical" fluctuations in the market, thus, employment offered is less than the labour offered) or/and in changes in labour market institutions, demographic shifts, and so on ("structural" unemployment) (Krugman, 1994; Shildrick et al., 2012b). However, from these two sources of unemployment stem several explanations, which vary, often significantly (from Marxist to neo-liberal), and attribute unemployment to different reasons, namely, use of the unemployed as a "reserve army" in order for the employers to keep wages down (see Marsden, 1982; Bambra, 2011) and governments to keep inflation down (see Blanchard, 2006; Stiglitz, 2013); expansion of technologies, globalisation (expansion of international trade) and rise in the inequality of market wages (e.g. Helpman, Itskhoki, and Redding, 2010; Stiglitz, 2013) and consequently in the gap between rich and poor (Keynes, 1997[1936]); and increase in the generosity of the welfare state (e.g. Mortensen, 1977; Nickel, 1997). With regard to long-term unemployment, there is an additional explanation akin to the "hysteresis" hypothesis, according to which, loss of skills and reputation cause the long-term unemployed to be perceived as unemployable (see Jackman and Layard, 1991; Krugman, 1994; Shildrick et al., 2012b). Within the UK, and given that the current focus of the Government is on the reassessment of the existing social welfare agenda by reforming the benefit system (see DWP, n.d.), the problem of unemployment is rather explained in terms of the effectiveness of the welfare system and its "generosity." This focus ignores, to a large extent, the main origins of unemployment, as well as particular characteristics of the labour market, which are increasingly evident in the UK. Such characteristics are related to

the low-pay, low-quality and temporary nature of many jobs on offer (Toynbee, 2003; European Commission, 2013b), and often result in the so called “low-pay, no-pay cycle”, which means cycling in and out of this precarious type of employment (Shildrick et al., 2012b).

Regardless of what causes the mass loss of jobs, in today’s economy unemployment has taken alarming dimensions. Unemployment rates⁶ are currently at the highest level since the Great Depression (Wanberg et al., 2012a), and in many European labour markets a rapidly increasing proportion is now long-term unemployed than used to be the case (Machin and Manning, 1999; Eurostat, 2010b). More specifically, in the wake of the economic crisis, the unemployment level in the European Union went up to 9.7% the highest rate recorded since 2000 (increase of 7 million people between the second quarter 2008 and mid 2010) (Eurostat, 2013). Indicative of this was the 2009 increase in all Member States, compared with a year ago (Eurostat, 2009). Since then unemployment has continued to increase markedly reaching a new record level of 10.7% by the end of 2012, translated to 26 million citizens (Eurostat, 2013). The rates are even more dramatic in South European Member States, such as Greece (26.9%) and Spain (26.3%). But as general unemployment rises, long-term unemployment rises more quickly (Marsden, 1982; Blanchard, 2006). With regard to long-term unemployment one in three unemployed persons in the EU has been jobless for over a year (Eurostat, 2010b). In the UK, for March-May 2013, the unemployment rate was 7.8 per cent (2.51 million people), with an increase in the long-term unemployed who reached 915,000, the highest figure since 1996 (ONS, 2013b). In the USA, the employment-population ratio fell sharply during the recession (Hipple, 2009), and the 4% unemployment rate in 2000 reached almost 8% at the end of 2012 (Eurostat, 2013).

By hitting at an individual level, unemployment hits the society as a whole. From a purely economic point of view, an adverse effect of unemployment is the lost output that could have been produced if unemployed workers had been productively employed (Goldsmith, Veum, and Darity, 1996). From a socioeconomic point of view, high unemployment results

⁶ Measurement of unemployment is particularly complex (see Glyptis, 1989) and official measurement procedures of unemployment rates vary between nations. European Commission and the UK count unemployment according to ILO’s definition (Eurostat, n.d.b; UK National Statistics, n.d.).

in dismantling economies, where jobs are less and less available particularly to poor and working-class people, with disastrous consequences for the community life (e.g. Fine and Weis, 1998; Cole et al., 2011). Existing accounts on the socioeconomic impact of high unemployment on the community life, are consistent in providing pictures of “ghost” towns or run-down communities, whether such descriptions concern Marienthal (Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]) and North England (Wigan, Barnsley and Sheffield) in the 1930s (Orwell, 2001[1937]), Liverpool in the 1980s (Marsden, 1982) or English coastal areas today (Agarwal and Brunt, 2006). Unemployment *per se* together with its socioeconomic consequences, have severe implications for the unemployed individuals psychological health.

2.5 Impact of unemployment on psychological health

A large volume of research has provided substantial evidence with regard to the negative impact of unemployment on psychological health. Psychological health refers to “an individual’s emotional and mental well-being, ability to function in society, and capacity to meet the demands of day-to-day life” (Wanberg, 2012, p. 371). Early studies from the 1930s and the Great Depression, first report that the experience of unemployment may result in a plethora of stress-related consequences for the individual, including anxiety, depression, physical pain, and even suicide (Bakke, 1933; Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]; Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld, 1938). Since then, literature on the psychological consequences of unemployment has been quite consistent in presenting strong links between unemployment and psychological deterioration, in terms of decreased self-esteem, quality of life, life satisfaction, and increased stress, anxiety, depression, and suicide rates (Marsden, 1982; Warr, 1987; Arber, 1991; Turner, 1995; Theodossiou, 1998; Murphy and Athanasou, 1999; Waters and Moore, 2002; McKee-Ryan et al., 2005; Paul and Moser, 2009; Stuckler, et al., 2009; Bambra, 2011; Kentikelenis et al., 2011; Gili et al., 2013). Several studies, actually report that this negative impact occurs irrespectively of previous status of psychological health⁷ (e.g. Kessler, Turner, and House, 1989; Graetz, 1993; Dooley, Catalano, and Wilson,

⁷ Psychological health further worsens in people already vulnerable prior to unemployment (see Warr and Jackson, 1985; Kentikelenis et al., 2011).

1994), country of residence⁸ (e.g. Lahelma, 1992 on Finnish data; Bjorklund and Eriksson, 1998 on Swedish data; Winkelmann and Winkelmann, 1998 on German data; Bambra and Eikemo, 2010 on pan-European data) or sociodemographic characteristics (e.g. Grzywacz and Dooley, 2003). In addition, the negative public opinion towards the unemployed, which perceives them as misfits, lazy and unproductive (e.g. Bakke, 1933; Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985; Graburn, 1989; Gallie and Marsh, 1994; Jones, 2011), contributes significantly to their self-depreciation (Freire, 1972a).

On the other hand, and while unemployment is in general damaging to mental health, there is some heterogeneity with regard to the way people respond to unemployment, and as a consequence to its impact on their psychological health. There is a minority that reports improved levels of mental health following unemployment (see Warr, 1987; Ezzy, 1993; Ezzy, 2001). Given that work has different meanings to different people (Theodossiou, 1998), for some, unemployment can have a liberating effect, freeing them from stressful work responsibilities, and offering them the chance to spend their time in their interests and other alternative activities (e.g. Fryer, 1986; Warr, 1987). On the other hand, it can be argued that such perception, applies to a large extent to specific groups of the unemployed, such as the voluntary unemployed, those who are young and without family responsibilities or nearing retirement age, and individuals from higher socioeconomic groups who can afford to pursue hobbies and alternative activities (see Little, 1976; Hepworth, 1980; Glyptis, 1989; Burchell, 1994). But for the vast majority of the unemployed, leisure cannot be enjoyed without income (Shildrick et al., 2012b). Mortensen (1977), for instance, one of the advocates of “incentive” approach, according to which, an increase in the benefit rate decreases one’s incentive to search for work, stresses, that this happens “if and only if income and leisure are complements in household production” (p. 510).

But this does not seem to be the case for the majority of the involuntary unemployed, who experience unemployment as a highly negative event and a source of unhappiness (Rice,

⁸ The level of the psychological impact of unemployment upon individuals, differs considerably among countries (e.g. Carroll, 2007) with worse negative effects reported in less economically developed countries, in countries of high income inequalities, and in countries with weak unemployment welfare system (see Gallie and Russell, 1998; Paul and Moser, 2009; Bambra and Eikemo, 2010).

1923; Argyle, 1994; Clark and Oswald, 1994; Winkelman and Winkelman, 1998; Hanisch, 1999; Gerdtham and Johannesson, 2001; Shields and Price, 2005; Warr, 2007; Ervasti and Venetoklis, 2010; Knabe et al., 2010; Krueger and Mueller, 2011), and they search for work aiming to return to the labour force (e.g. Marsden, 1982; Rowley and Feather, 1987; Gallie and Marsh, 1994; Theodossiou, 1998). In fact, there are findings which support that the unemployed are more likely to show a strong longer-term employment commitment than the employed (e.g. Gallie and Vogler, 1994).

2.5.1 The role of sociodemographic characteristics

Despite the negative impact of unemployment on psychological health, the magnitude of this impact depends on a host of sociodemographic factors. Among such factors, last occupation before unemployment, education, region of residence, unemployment duration, age and gender, are discussed analytically. There is a plethora of evidence, that these factors are particularly significant in moderating the effects of unemployment on the individuals' mental health.

Although unemployment and especially "cyclical" unemployment is indiscriminating (Rice, 1923), there are persistent regional and socioeconomic imbalances, according to which lower socioeconomic groups⁹, and hence, certain occupations and geographical areas¹⁰ bear the burden more (e.g. Sinfield, 1981; Argyle, 1994; Gallie and Marsh, 1994; Vinokur et al.,

⁹ Although education today is not a guarantee for securing employment, it has historically reduced the probability of being unemployed and it continues to do so (Howe, 1988). In general, unemployment rates have been related inversely to educational qualifications (Glyptis, 1989; Turner, 1995). In the USA, for example, although the deterioration in labour market conditions in 2009 affected young adults at all levels of educational attainment, less educated workers were affected more than their counterparts with higher levels of education (Hipple, 2010). Similarly among European countries for the 1980-2000 period, showed that education matters, as the share of those having more than compulsory education is found to be negatively related to the unemployment rate (see Biagi and Lucifora, 2005).

¹⁰ As Glyptis (1989, p. 52) explains, "This is the result of the distribution of redundancies by industry which clearly has regional ramifications, with the concentration of manufacturing and production industries in the Midlands and the North, and service industries in the South and East." Today the regional imbalances and the North-South divide remain (Dorling, 2011) and those areas that tended to bear the heaviest unemployment in the past continue to do so, with slight changes in their ranking. According to the August-October 2010 Statistical Bulletin the highest unemployment rates were reported in North East 9.7%, Yorkshire & the Humber 9.3%, London 9.1%, West Midlands 8.9%, East Midlands 8.2%, and North West 8.1% (ONS, 2010a, 2010b). In addition, county and neighbourhood unemployment rates reveal the disparities more sharply (Glyptis, 1989). In the 12 months ending March 2010, for instance, the region with the greatest contrast between local authorities was Yorkshire and The Humber with 10.2% between Kingston-upon-Hull at 14.4% and Ryedale at 4.2% (ONS, 2010a, 2010b).

2000; Sunley, Martin, and Nativel, 2006; Bambra and Eikemo, 2009; ONS, 2010a, 2010b; Cole et al., 2011; Dorling, 2012). With regard to ill-psychological health, people from the lower occupational strata, such as blue-collar or manual workers, have been found to suffer more (e.g. Hepworth, 1980; Artazcoz et al., 2004; Paul and Moser, 2009), as they are usually already subject to a number of stresses (e.g. bad housing and poor health), and consequently are less able to cope with any added pressure (Hepworth, 1980, p. 139).

In contrast, people from higher socioeconomic groups, are more privileged (if this term can be used for an unemployed individual), in many respects, in relation to the impact of unemployment, and its psychological consequences on them. Given, for instance, that occupational status depends, to a large extent, on education, those with higher education and white-collar background suffer less as they have more social contacts, greater access to financial resources (e.g. Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld, 1938; Warr, 1987; Whelan, 1994), and thus more prospects to find a job (e.g. Wolbers, 2000; Silver et al., 2005). On the other hand, individuals with blue-collar background, and less educational achievements, expect a prolonged period of joblessness (especially during economic recessions), while they have fewer financial resources to cope (e.g. Turner, 1995). As it has already been discussed earlier in this chapter, the availability of financial resources can act as a buffer with regard to the psychological impact of unemployment. Those who possess them, they experience less difficulty in filling time, and weaker feelings of external control and dependency (Little, 1976; Payne et al., 1984). But some contradictory findings also exist, according to which, there are no class differences in the psychological impact of unemployment on individuals (e.g. Payne et al., 1984) or middle and higher social classes displaying greater responsiveness to stress because of the greater social stigma attached to their unemployment (e.g. Clark and Oswald, 1994).

Geographic restrictions (limited job vacancies in the local job market), which reflect socioeconomic differences (occupational and educational), and the concentration of particular industries in particular areas, have important implications on psychological and physical distress (Turner, 1995; Warr, 2007), job-seeking behaviour, and consequently the probability of reemployment (Warr, 1987). With regard to the former, findings are conflicting. Some show that in areas with low unemployment rates, the person may suffer

more due to social stigmatisation, whereas in high unemployment areas, such as the North of England, for instance, unemployed workers are less distressed (e.g. Clark and Oswald, 1994). In such areas, the unemployed person is able to attribute his/her bad situation to external causes, and thus to experience less self-blame (e.g. Platt and Kreitman, 1985). In contrast, others support that the physical and emotional consequences of unemployment appear to be less intense when the unemployment rates are low and chances of reemployment are good (e.g. Turner, 1995; McKee-Ryan, 2005). Findings from studies by Gallie and Russell (1998), and Cole et al. (2011) show that widespread unemployment does not reduce the moral pressure to find a job and does not lead to a readjustment in the value placed to work.

The duration of unemployment is another important factor for consideration. Prolonged unemployment means that the person has failed to secure employment, and continues to face the consequences of unemployment, such as financial hardship, which become more severe (see Rowley and Feather, 1987). In addition, as the length of unemployment extends, individuals tend to have lost any social contacts they might have had, as well as motivation, confidence, and social skills that employers find attractive (see Sen, 1997; Eriksson, 2006; McQuaid and Lindsay, 2005). This said the person becomes more vulnerable to further deterioration in his/her ill-psychological health (e.g. McKee-Ryan et al., 2005; Paul and Moser, 2009). It has been found that, more psychological distress, less self-esteem (Rowley and Feather, 1987) and subjective well-being tend to accompany increasing length of unemployment (Hepworth, 1980). This reflects Eisenberg's and Lazarsfeld's (1938, p. 377), early argument, that "the length of time an individual is unemployed seems to play an important part in determining the change in his attitude; as a matter of fact, his attitude may be a reflection of his stage of unemployment." In the case of the long-term unemployed, resignation and apathy seem to reflect their attitude (Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]; Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985).

On the other hand, there is some variability in findings, with some studies reporting no observed relation between duration and mental health (e.g. Artazcoz et al., 2004), and yet others a stabilisation of mental health after a period of time, but at lower levels (e.g. Jackson and Warr, 1984; Mallinckrodt and Bennett, 1992) or even improvements in well-

being (e.g. Warr and Jackson, 1985), and psychological distress (e.g. Clark and Oswald, 1994). These findings can be attributed to adaptation or adjustment (see Hayes and Nutman, 1981; Warr and Jackson, 1987; Clark and Oswald, 1994), which is either “constructive” (e.g. involves taking up hobbies, expanding social networks) or “resigned” (e.g. involves reduced aspirations and lower emotional investment in the environment) (see Warr, 2007, p. 68). However in general there is not enough evidence to demonstrate that the long-term unemployed recover from the adverse effects of initial job loss (e.g. Platt and Kreitman, 1985; Winkelman and Winkelman, 1998; McKee-Ryan et al., 2005; Paul and Moser, 2009). In contrast, enduring or chronic stressors are more likely to be particularly damaging for the person’s psychological and physical health (see Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

The magnitude of one’s psychological deterioration also depends on age. Psychological consequences have been found to be less severe among younger age groups, and more severe among middle-aged groups (e.g. Hepworth, 1980; Rowley and Feather, 1987; Clark and Oswald, 1994; Theodossiou, 1998; Warr, 2007). These findings are mainly attributed to financial difficulties, which are more pressing and demanding in the middle years, due to family responsibilities, thus becoming more severe during unemployment in general and long-term unemployment in particular (e.g. Jackson and Warr, 1984; Warr and Jackson, 1985; Warr, 2007). On the other hand, there are findings that show larger negative effects for the youth (e.g. Winkelman and Winkelman (1998). With regard to gender, although lack of paid employment is associated with poor health status for both women and men (Arber, 1991), the implications for women appear to be less severe than men (e.g. Gallie and Vogler, 1994; Gallie and Russell, 1998; Theodossiou, 1998; Artazcoz et al., 2004; Paul and Moser, 2009); however, and irrespectively of gender, lone parents who live in low-income, are more likely than any other group to suffer from mental ill health, such as depression (e.g. Payne, 2006).

2.5.2 Unemployment theories

The complexity of the unemployment experience and its multiple effects on individuals’ psychological health has resulted in the development of several theories that attempt to explain it. Some of these are outdated and too narrowly defined to give adequate

explanations, while others encompass a large proportion of both early and recent research findings. An example from the former group is the “rehabilitation” approach, which asserts that unemployment mainly results from psychological problems, which inhibit people from working (e.g. Tiffany, Cowan, and Tiffany, 1970).¹¹ Although people with impaired mental health are more likely to become unemployed (e.g. Paul and Moser, 2009) and to obtain reemployment (e.g. Jackson and Warr, 1984) such an approach does not have much value in periods of very high unemployment rates (see Ezzy, 1993), and especially when considering the latest available findings, which strengthen the causal conclusion that unemployment leads to declines in psychological and physical health (see Payne, 2006; Shildrick et al., 2012b; Wanberg, 2012). Theories of the latter group focus on three major factors: the distress and hopelessness caused by repeated unsuccessful job-searching (Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld, 1938); the psychological impact associated with being out of work (Jahoda, 1981, 1982; Warr, 1987; 2007); and the negative impact associated with the frustration of one’s agency, which results to a large extent from the loss of income and thus the inadequate standard of living (Fryer, 1986).

Warr’s theory encompasses all the three factors, despite its focus on the psychological impact associated with being out of work. Warr’s (1987, 2007) “vitamin” model, draws upon Jahoda’s theorising and through nine environmental elements¹² related to employment explains the principal causes of the decrements in mental health which usually accompany unemployment (see Table 2.1). Jahoda’s (1981, 1982) “latent deprivation” or “functional” model focuses on the value of aspects of employment which are missing during unemployment. Jahoda (1981, 1982) acknowledges the loss of income among these aspects (“manifest” function of paid employment), but she explains the psychological destructiveness of unemployment mainly through the value of functions of paid work (“latent functions”), which are absent during unemployment (see Table 2.1). On the other

¹¹ Ill mental health can lead to unemployment, but it cannot be viewed as the cause of unemployment. Given that 16% of the UK adult population living in private households has been affected by mental health disorders, it is now evident that mental health issues affect many people at some point in their lives (see Singleton et al., 2000; Jenkins et al., 2008) Given that a large proportion of the unemployed live in public housing, thus are not included in the 16%, this rate concerns, to a large extent, employed populations. In addition, this rate clearly shows that people with some form of mental health disorder accounted for more than triple of the 2000 unemployment figures of around 5% (ONS, 2001).

¹² Warr later added three more elements: supportive supervision, career prospects, and equity, which are irrelevant within the context of this study (see Warr, 2007).

hand, the argument that some of these functions are not always available in employment, and especially in today's labour market of low-pay and temporary jobs has seen increased support (e.g. Toynbee, 2003; Shildrick et al., 2012b; European Commission, 2013b).

Table 2.1 “Latent deprivation” and “vitamin” models

“Latent deprivation” model	“Vitamin” model
1. Time structure Employment imposes a time structure on the day. In unemployment there is no such structure: days stretch long when there is nothing to be done, and individuals lose their sense of time.	1. Opportunity for control Shortage of money, unsuccessful job seeking, inability to influence employers and dependence on welfare reduce people's ability to control what happens to them.
2. Social experience outside the family life Employment implies regularly shared experiences and contacts outside the family. Unemployment implies social exclusion and relative social isolation.	2. Opportunity for skill use During unemployment people do not use skills which they already possess. In addition, they are restricted from the acquisition of new skills.
3. Participation in a collective purpose or effort Employment links people to goals and purposes that transcend their own. During unemployment the individual suffers from lack of purpose.	3. Externally generated goals During unemployment objectives are reduced, and purposeful activity is less encouraged by the environment. Routines are less often set in motion.
4. Status and identity Employment defines aspects of personal status and identity. Losing their status and identity as a result of unemployment, people feel outsiders to normal life.	4. Variety The person leaves the house less often, and loses the contrast between job and non-job activities. Activities are reduced due to the drop in income, and homogeneity of experience is increased.
5. Required regular activity Employment enforces activity.	5. Environmental clarity This concerns information about the consequences of behaviour and about the future. Availability of such information permits appropriate decision and actions, allows planning and reduces the anxiety generated by uncertainty.
	6. Availability of money Lack of money and poverty bear down upon basic (food and physical protection) and other needs (activities), reducing one's sense of personal control.
	7. Physical security Physical security is usually associated with the availability of money.
	8. Opportunity for interpersonal contact Contact with others is essential: it reduces feelings of loneliness, provides emotional support and helps in goal attainments, which cannot be achieved alone.
	9. Valued social position In most societies being employed is a central source of public and private esteem, which is lost when the person becomes unemployed.

Source: “Latent deprivation” model adopted from Jahoda, M. (1981, p. 188, 1982, pp. 22-27), and “vitamin” model adopted from Warr, P. (1987, pp. 210-226; 2007, p. 82).

With regard to Eisenberg's and Lazarsfeld's (1938, p. 378) “stages” model, the emphasis is on the repeated failures during the job-search process as the most crucial factor in

explaining the negative psychological effects of unemployment: “Initially, there is a shock, which is followed by an active hunt for a job, during which the individual is still optimistic and unresigned; he still maintains an unbroken attitude. When all efforts [job-seeking] fail, the individual becomes pessimistic, anxious, and suffers active distress; this is the most crucial state of all. The individual becomes fatalistic and adapts himself to his new state but with a narrower scope. He now has a broken attitude.” Such theories summarise Sen’s (1997, pp. 157-160) later argument, that “unemployment has many other serious effects for the individual and causes deprivation in many other ways as well, and therefore, the concentration on income inequality alone can be particularly deceptive...Of course, the income inequality is the cause of a series of other social inequalities, such as loss of freedom and social exclusion.”

2.5.3 Psychological consequences of financial hardship

Although the loss of job is translated to a loss of significant benefits, such as independence, and a sense of purpose (e.g. Cole et al., 2011), financial hardship is a major factor underlying the psychological consequences of unemployment (e.g. Pearlin et al., 1981; Creed and Macintyre, 2001; Price, Choi, and Vinokur, 2002; Vinokur and Schul, 2002; Okechukwu et al., 2012). It is the main source of a series of overlapping problems in basic aspects of one’s life, which in turn, contribute to further deterioration of his/her mental health. The significance of the economic factor in influencing the psychological response to unemployment reflects Fryer’s (1986) “agency” theory and has been demonstrated consistently in a plethora of studies among different disciplines (Rice, 1923; Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]; Elder, 1999[1974]; Jackson and Warr, 1984; Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985; Kessler, Turner, and House, 1987; Rowley and Feather, 1987; Liem and Liem, 1988; Warr, 2007; Madianos et al., 2011; Ervasti and Venetoklis, 2010; Economou et al., 2013). “Agency” theory lies in the assumption that people are agents, who strive to assert themselves, initiate and influence events, and that these features of one’s agency are restricted and frustrated during unemployment, mainly due to the relative or absolute poverty associated with being out of work (see Fryer, 1986, pp. 15-16). Thus, it is not simply the lack of work, but its destructive impact on the individual’s quality of life (see Burchell, 1994). In addition, the longer a person remains unemployed the greater the stress associated with unmet psychological and physical needs is likely to be (Cole, Daly, and Mak, 2009).

2.5.3.1 Poor living conditions

Lack of work, and thus loss of income or inadequate income, is one of the major causes of poverty (Sen, 1999; Bailey, 2006; JRF¹³, 2010). Of course, while in the 1930s the unemployed suffered absolute deprivation (Jahoda, 1987), today their deprivation is mainly relative, at least in the “developed” countries (Jahoda, 1982; Sen, 1999), and at least so far. This said, first of all financial hardship has a direct negative impact on people’s living conditions (e.g. Marsden, 1982; Bartley, 1994; Bandura, 1995) with a large proportion of the unemployed, and the long-term unemployed in particular, being segregated in public housing within deprived areas, where poverty is concentrated (Arber, 1991; Cutrona, Wallace, and Wesner, 2006; Gregg, 2008). As Dorling (2012, p. 38) stresses, “In a country with growing inequalities, more and more neighbourhoods are created as areas where most of the people have a comparable income. Here they live in houses that are alike, have similar backgrounds and, to some extent, a common future.” Data from both sides of the Atlantic confirm that the poor live in places with environmental and social problems, in areas that are physically dirty and degraded, crime-ridden, violent, dangerous, and generally challenging places to live (e.g. Fine and Weis, 1998 on US data; Gbate and Hazel, 2004 on UK data; Pantazis, 2006 on UK data).

These environments do not meet the necessary conditions of living spaces, such as physical security (e.g. Warr, 1987), but in contrast they induce anti-social behaviour, and comprise a source of fear (e.g. Wilson and Kellig, 1982; Pantazis, 2006), which have negative implications for the individuals’ sense of personal control, stress levels, participation in community life, and consequently creation and maintenance of socially supportive relations (Levy-Leboyer, 1982; Skogan, 1986; Bell et al., 2001; Evans, 2003; Cole et al., 2011). According to Bandura’s (2012) categorisation of environments¹⁴, these are imposed environments. “Imposed environments act on individuals whether they like it or not; however, they have some leeway in how they construe it and react to it” (Bandura, 2012, pp. 11-12). As a consequence, and considering the significant role that surroundings play in our mental health (e.g. Canter, 1977), these environments are associated with general health risks (Arber, 1991; Pickett and Pearl, 2001; Shields and Price, 2005; Stiglitz, 2013),

¹³ Joseph Rowntree Foundation.

¹⁴ Bandura (2012, p. 11) distinguishes environment among three types – imposed, selected, and constructed.

and increased stress (Ross and Mirowsky, 2001), depression or depressive symptoms (Jahoda, 1987; Ross, 2000; Mair, Diez Roux, and Galea, 2008), substance abuse (Silver, Mulvey, and Swanson, 2002), aggression (Bell et al., 2001) and psychiatric medication prescription (Crump et al., 2011). As Cutrona, Wallace, and Wesner (2006, pp. 188-190) explain, “the stress imposed by adverse neighbourhoods increases depression above and beyond the effects of the individual’s own personal stressors, such as poverty and negative events within the family or work place [...] Someone who experiences a negative event (e.g. job loss) in a poor neighbourhood is more likely to become depressed than is one who experiences the same event in a more advantaged neighbourhood.” This is reasonable as in these environments people have limited opportunities to escape from such negative circumstances and improve their position [Department of Social Security (DSS), 1999, p. 23]. Moreover, poor quality housing (e.g. public estates) (see Ghate and Hazel, 2004; Payne, 2006), and unsafe playgrounds for the children (Sampson, Morenoff and Gannon-Rowley, 2002; Sedgley, Pritchard, and Morgan, 2012), impose additional stress and worries on the individual. For families living in public housing, suitability of recreation for children and safety are particularly significant (Weidemann et al., 1982).

2.5.3.2 Dysfunctional family relations

As Jackson and Walsh (1987, p. 195) argue, “Unemployment is a family experience rather than simply a solitary event,” and its negative effects concern the family unit as a whole (Elder, 1974/1999; Schliebner and Perego, 1994; Vinokur, Price, and Caplan, 1996; Kalil, 2009). To a large extent, such effects are manifested through the loss or drop of income, a crucial determinant of the family’s stability and cohesion and quality of life (Rice, 1923; Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]; Jackson and Walsh, 1987; Glyptis, 1989; Voydanoff, 1990). Financial pressures and the tensions that these pressures cause within the family have been found to have a significant effect on family relations (Komarovskiy and Philips, 1987[1962]; Elder, 1999[1974]; Conger et al., 1990; Lampard, 1994).

There is evidence that men’s unemployment is associated with psychological distress among the wives (e.g. Liem and Liem, 1988) and often breakdown (Jackson and Walsh, 1987). Depressive symptoms and demoralisation of both partners, as a result of financial hardship, have been associated with marital conflict and dissatisfaction with the relationship (Conger

et al., 1992; Vinokur Price, and Caplan, 1996); family disorganisation and physical abuse (Fine and Weis, 1998; Kyriacou et al., 1999); separation and divorce (Liem and Liem, 1988; Voydanoff, 1990; Shildrick et al., 2012b). As Elder (1999[1974], p. 85) explains, economic hardship lessens harmony within the family “by diminishing mutuality of expressions of love, sharing, and respect. As emotional distance increases, hostile feelings are aroused which further aggravate relations.” On the other hand, the cohesion of family before unemployment also determines the extent to which unemployment and its consequences will affect the family unit (Feather, 1990).

With regard to the children, economic hardship or the disparity between income and needs (Elder, 1999[1974]) deprives them from good living conditions, material things, and safe local places to play (Jackson and Walsh, 1987; Ghate and Hazel, 2004). This deprivation together with depression and demoralisation of parents have been associated with neglect rise, and disruptions in skilful parenting (Elder, 1999[1974]; Hayes, and Nutman, 1981; Schliebner and Peregoy, 1994; Elder, 1995; Fine and Weis, 1998; Ghate and Hazel, 2004), which in turn, have a negative influence on the developmental trajectories of children (Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]; Eisenberg and Lazarsfeld, 1938; Conger et al., 1992; Cutrona, Wallace, and Wesner, 2006). Stressful family circumstances in general and parental economic distress in particular, have been also linked to behaviour problems and depressive affect among children (Voydanoff, 1990; Elder et al., 1992).

The negative impact of unemployment on the family unit has, in turn, further adverse effects on the unemployed individual’s psychological health (e.g. Atkinson, Liem, and Liem, 1986). First, financial hardship, and thus the person’s failure to meet successfully his/her normatively prescribed familial role - to provide his/her family the basic means of subsistence - has a negative impact on his/her self-worth and self-confidence in general (Rice, 1923; Bakke, 1933; Komarovskiy and Philips, 1987[1962]; Pearlin et al. 1981; Marsden, 1982; Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985; Cole et al., 2011; Sedgley, Pritchard, and Morgan, 2012), and on his/her parental efficacy (Jackson and Walsh, 1987; Voydanoff, 1990), especially when there is a lack of a supportive partner, such as in weak marriages and in single-parents households (see Elder et al., 1995).

As Jahoda (1982, p. 26) stresses, “for better or worse, family relations enrich or impoverish emotional life,” and in the case of the unemployed they seem to contribute to the latter. The family is the most important and usually the only source of support for the unemployed person particularly among low-income groups (Jackson and Walsh, 1987; Argyle, 1994; Cole et al., 2011). During unemployment, family support can play an important role as a stress buffer (e.g. Gore, 1978; Atkinson, Liem, and Liem, 1986; Goldsmith, Veum, and Darity, 1996); however, support requires a degree of cohesion and stability in those relationships to which the person might turn for help (Liem and Liem, 1988) and responsiveness to the person’s needs (Cohen and Wills, 1985). In contrast, family disorganisation, conflicts between partners, and children’s behavioural problems, all diminish the communication among family members, resulting in weak family bonds, and consequently in dysfunctional and less supportive family relations. This said the partner or the spouse of the unemployed person or poor provider, is often less supportive, more critical, and may adopt undermining behaviours, further decreasing the person’s self-esteem, increasing his/her anxiety and frustration (e.g. Komarovsky and Philips, 1987[1962]; Atkinson, Liem, and Liem, 1986; Vinokur, Price, and Caplan, 1996; Hanisch, 1999) and resulting in greater family conflicts (Voydanoff, 1990). With regard to the children, feelings of confusion, anger and insecurity have been found to affect their attitudes toward their parents, thus increasing the likelihood for conflicts (e.g. Hayes and Nutman, 1981; Schliebner and Peregoy, 1994).

As such, the lack of family support leaves the unemployed person alone, thus causing further deterioration of his/her psychological health. As Bandura (1995, p. 15) explains, “Given the fragmentation of social life in impoverished communities and the paucity of resources, parents have to turn inward for their support in times of stress. If it is lacking in the home the mounting stressors begin to overwhelm their coping efforts. For single parents, financial strain weakens their sense of efficacy both directly and indirectly by creating feelings of despondency.” Unsupportive family environments become more evident in the case of long-term unemployment. Longer spells of unemployment put increased strain on supportive relationships (Hayes and Nutman, 1981; Schliebner and Peregoy, 1994; Russell, 1999).

2.5.3.3 Disruption of social life

Paid employment gives access to a larger social world (Jackson and Walsh, 1987), whereas being out of work, results in the disruption of social relations and the loss of social contacts (e.g. Elder, 1999[1974]; Jahoda, 1987; Bartley, 1994; Wanberg et al., 2012a). Economic deprivation is simultaneously social deprivation, and the unemployed person cannot afford to participate in social activities and the lifestyle of the employed, and becomes socially isolated (Bakke, 1933; Russell, 1999; Waters and Moore, 2002). But this isolation is also in part the result of the loss of the person's self-confidence (e.g. experiencing shame and self-doubt) that can lead the individual to withdraw from former social relations (Jahoda, 1982; Glyptis, 1989; Gallie, Gershuny, and Vogler, 1994). Social isolation results in further deterioration of one's self-esteem and lack of social support when the person needs it. With regard to low-income groups in particular, social relations outside the family and consequently, social support have been reported to be less irrespective of being unemployed (e.g. Komarovsky and Philips, 1987[1962]; Argyle, 1994). Considering that social contact with others and social support are significant mediators of stress and depression (they help the person to maintain a positive self-concept¹⁵) (see Pearlin et al., 1981; Cohen and Wills, 1985; Mallinckrodt and Bennett, 1992; Bandura, 1995), their absence during life hardships, such as experiencing unemployment, has an additional negative impact on one's psychological health (Gore, 1978; Hayes and Nutman, 1981; Bolton and Oatley, 1987).

2.6 Impact of psychological deterioration on job-search behaviour

Job-search or the pursuit of new employment (Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz, 2001) is a considerably stressful and challenging process with many ups and downs (Amundson and Borgen, 1982; Wanberg, Zhu, and van Hooft, 2010). Given that JSB is a self-regulatory process that refers to a pattern of thinking and affect (Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz, 2001; Wanberg et al., 2012b), the experience of unemployment and its consequences further challenge the job seekers' psychological well-being, and their JSB respectively (Skinner, 1965[1953]; Vinokur et al., 1996; Wanberg et al., 2012a). Under such

¹⁵ The self-concept is a composite view of oneself that it is presumed to be formed through direct experience and evaluations adopted from significant others (Bandura, 1997, p. 10).

circumstances, individuals have less energy to expend (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), which diminishes their motivation to search for work, their persistence in the job-search process, and the likelihood of a successful outcome in job-seeking (Gallie and Marsh, 1994; Vinokur and Schul, 2002). In long-term unemployment, where the job-search process extends over time, mental and physical energy, as well as self-confidence are further reduced (Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]; Amundson and Borgen, 1982; Wanberg et al., 2012b). As a result, the effort the person puts in job searching is reduced accordingly and together the probability of reemployment (e.g. Rowley and Feather, 1987).

On the other hand, and similarly to the heterogeneity in individuals' responses to the experience of unemployment, people show variability with regard to their JSB. Some look for work more intensively and effectively, while others not, some persist after rejections, while others cannot cope with the situation, and some others may stop because they decide to spend their time on other activities (e.g. Vansteenkiste et al., 2004; van Dam and Menting, 2012). Despite this variability, there is a consensus among a plethora of unemployment studies that after a period of unsuccessful job searching, people tend to become discouraged from the process (especially in a harsh economic climate). Furthermore, "the destructive psychological legacy" of unemployment affects traits that are important to employers, which means that jobs simply are not offered (Darity and Goldsmith, 1996, p. 134). As such, the long-term unemployed view regaining a job as beyond their personal control, they spent less time in looking for a job, and often withdraw, at least temporarily, from the labour market (Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]; Warr and Jackson, 1985, 1987; Borgen and Amundson, 1987; Warr, 2007; Krueger and Mueller, 2011).

2.6.1 The role of social protection (unemployment policies)

Under these circumstances, the role of the state in formulating policies to support the unemployed is of vital importance. In general, labour market policies are grouped in two main categories, the so-called 'passive' policies, which aim to support financially those citizens out of work, and the 'active' policies which are formulated to help them return to employment (see Nickell, 1997; Martin and Grubb, 2001). The former is mainly concerned with unemployment benefits, and the latter with labour market training, assistance with job

search, services and sanctions, and provision of subsidised employment (see Martin and Grubb, 2001; Kluve, 2010). Although all ‘advanced’ countries are welfare states to some extent, the degree of social protection during unemployment varies substantially across countries (see Krugman, 1994; Bambra and Eikemo, 2009) with the US system, for instance, to be in the one end of the spectrum, focusing more on corporate welfare and tax cuts for the rich, thus, providing less to support the unemployed (Fine and Weis, 1998), the Scandinavian countries, such as Sweden, to be on the other end offering generous unemployment benefits combined with active labour market policies (see Strandh, 2001), and France somewhere in the middle among the OECD countries (see Immervoll et al., 2004).

England has been historically a welfare state, with “the systematic involvement of government with the provision for (and control of) the unemployed going back nearly four hundred years, to the Elizabeth Poor Law of 1601” (Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985, p. 1). However, in contemporary England, public spending on labour market measures is relatively low (see Kluve, 2010), in fact, 0.8% of GDP, with a typical OECD country spending just over 2% of its GDP (see Martin and Grubb, 2001), despite the wide perception shared by the government and the public alike, that current policies are particularly generous. It is due to such perception, to a large extent, that the UK welfare benefit system has been under radical reform since autumn 2010, aiming through new measures (e.g. Universal Credit) to make the benefit system more effective in terms of tackling poverty, worklessness and welfare dependency (DWP, 2010b).

With regard to ‘active’ manpower policies, since the Job Creation Scheme, launched in 1975 (the first major programme for the unemployed) (see Glyptis, 1989) and until the most recent initiatives, such as ‘The Work Programme’, ‘Work Together’, ‘New Enterprise Allowance’ and ‘Work Clubs’ (DWP, 2010b), a plethora of different schemes have been implemented. The main focus has been on services and sanctions, with 55% share of the total spending, with training having a secondary role, and a share of 12.9% of the total spending (see Kluve, 2010). Service and sanctions are concerned with tighter monitoring of benefit eligibility rules and increased job-search assistance (see Dolton and O’Neil, 2002 on the Restart unemployment program), whereas training programmes (usually encompass

classroom training, on-the-job-training, and work experience) aim to enhance participants' human capital, and employability, by increasing skills (Kluve, 2010). Although existing evaluations of active labour market programmes remain to a large extent inconclusive, with no much consensus among findings with regard to their effectiveness (Kluve, 2010), there is some evidence that the former type is more effective than the latter (e.g. Dolton and O'Neil, 2002).

Admittedly, all such initiatives have good intentions. On the other hand, it can be argued that the large volume of different schemes, which have been succeeded or complemented each other over the past decades, makes the effectiveness and adequacy of many of these services and programmes rather questionable. Evidence about employment services, such as Jobcentre Plus (the main government agency), is contradictory, including both positive evaluations (e.g. Gregg and Wadsworth, 1996 on Jobcentre; Riley et al., 2011), and examples of bad practices, according to which, unemployed do not receive the support they need, and experience unsympathetic attitudes on behalf of some staff (e.g. The Guardian, 2011; Shildrick et al., 2012b). It must be mentioned at this point that existing assessments have used operational measures with severe limitations (see National Audit Office [NAO], 2013), and that the temporary and low-paid character of many jobs on offer, usually leads to a return to unemployment (e.g. Shildrick et al., 2012b).

In addition, existing services and their programmes have rather neglected the central role of the psychological factor in the job-search and reemployment process, especially for the long-term unemployed. This said a fundamental element of unemployment services and schemes should be concerned with the improvement of individuals' psychological health. Then and after the unemployed person manages to stand up in his/her own feet again, existing policies (e.g. training) could follow, with more potential with regard to their effectiveness. It has been found that policies which focus exclusively on skills improvement, for instance, do not affect the mental well-being of the unemployed (e.g. Strandh, 2001). In contrast, research evidence has shown that labour market programmes that include group psychological support have been found to be effective (e.g. Proudfoot et al., 1997; Vinokur and Schul, 1997; Cole, Daly, and Mak, 2009), resulting in the promotion of mental health and the increase of reemployment (see Wahlbeck and McDaid, 2012). This evidence

strengthens the argument that programmes which revolve around positive mental health and well-being should be incorporated to current 'active' labour market policies, especially in periods of extended economic depression (e.g. Warr and Payne, 1983).

2.6.2 Self-efficacy beliefs and motivation for change

It is clear from the earlier discussion that the negative effects of unemployment are compounded by a series of other stressful events (Feather, 1990; Turner, 1995), and all these direct and indirect effects, have a negative impact on the person's functioning in general, and on his/her job-search in particular. The individual feels psychological stress, which means that "he/she appraises his/her relationship with the environment as taxing or exceeding his/her resources and endangering his/her well-being" (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984, p. 19). Events seem overwhelming, uncontrollable, and unsolvable (Elder, 1999[1974]; Price, Choi, and Vinokur, 2002) and the person faces the danger of resignation (e.g. Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]; Jahoda, 1987). This said the person may be trapped into a vicious circle of inaction and apathy from where it is difficult to escape (Eden and Aviram, 1993; Gallie and Marsh, 1994). Under these circumstances, taking control over one's life, initiating effort and active behaviour, such as searching for work, appears to be an extremely difficult task, which demands major changes within the individual and his/her well-established negative beliefs.

Social cognitive theory suggests that, motivation for change can be addressed in terms of explicit cognitive factors (e.g. various forms of outcome expectations) known to regulate human motivation and action (Bandura, 1986, 1997). Among such factors, SE beliefs appear to have a crucial role in the process of change within the individual as they influence how people feel, think, motivate themselves, and act (Bandura, 1997). SE was first conceptualised in White's (1959) theory of effectance motivation. White (1959, p. 329), asserted, that the existence of an intrinsic motivation (effectance motive), which develops gradually through prolonged transactions with the environment, and named the experience produced as a feeling of efficacy or competence. Bandura (1989), built on this conceptualisation, and defined SE as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to exercise control over events that affect their lives" (p. 1175). In other words, SE can be regarded as "an optimistic and self-confident view of one's capability to deal with certain life stressors"

(Scholz et al., 2002, p. 242). According to social cognitive theory, SE beliefs are distinguished from outcome expectancies (the other major regulator of human motivation and action), which are defined as the estimate that a given behaviour will lead to certain outcomes (e.g. Bandura, Adams, and Beyer, 1977, p. 126). In addition, SE beliefs appear to be more central in behavioural changes than outcome expectancies, and other mechanisms, through which, personal agency is exercised (Bandura, 1989, 1997). As Bandura, Adams, and Beyer (1977) explain, a person may believe that a particular action will result in a certain outcome, but may question whether he/she can perform this action. In contrast, when the person believes that he/she can produce desired effects by his/her action, he/she has the incentive to act (Bandura, 1997, p. 3). Thus, “people’s level of motivation, affective states, and actions are based more on what they believe than what is objectively the case” (Bandura, 1995, p. 2). Similarly, SE appears to be more central in human functioning than self-esteem. As Bandura (1997, p. 11) argues, “People need much more than high self-esteem to do well in given pursuits.”

Due to the central role that SE plays in human motivation and functioning, over the past two decades, it has become one of the most widely studied variables in several fields, such as in psychology, education, sociology, public health, and organisational research (see Maddux, 2002; Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006). Within the context of psychology studies on unemployment, SE is particularly relevant as it is directly linked to unemployment. People derive a major proportion of their SE from work, and as a consequence, joblessness causes a blow to self-concept (Hayes and Nutman, 1981; Sherer et al., 1982; Goldsmith, Veum, and Darity, 1996). In addition, many other factors operate in everyday life to undermine people’s sense of mastery (Pearlin et al., 1981; Bandura, 1997). For unemployed individuals, such factors are to a large extent the consequences of unemployment discussed earlier in this chapter (e.g. economic strains), which create circumstances under which, SE is further deteriorated (e.g. Boardman and Robert, 2000). This has severe implications for one’s JSB, as negative SE beliefs may influence the person’s motivation and intensity to search for work, and consequently, his/her chances for reemployment. Given that JSB is based on thinking and affect (Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz, 2001), the central role of motivation in job-seeking (e.g. Vansteenkiste et al.,

2004) and the relationship between SE and motivation, SE beliefs can play a particularly significant role in people's job-search process (Bandura, 1995, 1997).

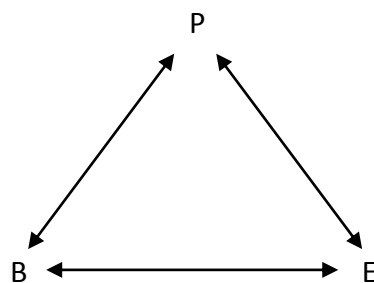
High levels of job-search self-efficacy (JSSE) have been found to be positively associated with job-search intention (e.g. van Ryn and Vinokur, 1992), job-search intensity (e.g. van Ryn and Vinokur, 1992; Epel, Bandura, and Zimbardo, 1999; Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999), and increased likelihood of reemployment (Vinokur and Schul, 1997; Vinokur et al., 2000; Vuori and Vinokur, 2005). As Eden and Aviram (1993, p. 352) point out, "feeling efficacious and expecting to do well motivate intensification of effort and persistence in the face of long odds and setbacks." In contrast, individuals who report low levels of JSSE feel that they have less personal control over the job-search process (Bandura, 1997) and as a consequence, they look for work less intensely and are less likely to use effective search techniques (e.g. Kanfer and Hulin, 1985; Van Ryn and Vinokur, 1992; Eden and Aviram, 1993). For this reason several psychology studies on unemployment have focused on training programmes specifically designed to build or restore a sense of job-search efficacy in unemployed people (e.g. Caplan et al., 1989). On the other hand, and despite the widely acknowledged central role of SE in human behaviour, SE is not the sole determinant of action (Bandura, 1997).

2.6.2.1 Reciprocal causation

The concept of SE is based on social cognitive theory's postulate that the person operates within an interdependent causal structure, which Bandura (1986, 1997) calls triadic reciprocal causation. "In this transactional view of self and society, interpersonal factors (cognitive, affective, and biological events); behaviour; and environmental events all operate as interacting determinants that influence one another bidirectionally" (Bandura, 1997, p. 6) (Figure 2.1). Since Lewin's (1936) early theorising on human behaviour, there is a consensus among the major learning theories (social learning theory of personality and social cognitive theory [formerly social learning theory]), and pedagogical philosophy, in viewing individuals and environments as interacting with each other and comprising reciprocal determinants of each other (see Rotter, 1954; Rotter, Chance, and Phares, 1972; Freire, 1972a; Bandura, 1977). Behaviourism also advocates that part of the person's behaviour is under the control of the environment (Skinner, 1965[1953]). In this

relationship, the influence of the person and the environment is not of equal strength, but it varies, and its relative importance is different under different circumstances (Lewin, 1936; Bandura, 1997). This said, when the environment is deprived and imposed the person is less influential in the exercise of his/her behaviour than the particular environment (Bandura, 2012). But notwithstanding the degree of influence of the environment on the individual, as the environment changes, changes are induced in the person's experiences and behaviour, due to the different environmental feedback he/she receive (Woodworth, 1958; Proshansky, 1976).

Figure 2.1 Reciprocal causation



Source: Adopted from Bandura, A. (1997, p. 6).

Note: B=behaviour; P=internal personal factors; and E=external environment

2.6.2.2 Sources and activated processes of self-efficacy information

According to the social cognitive theory, the person's SE, whether it is accurate or faulty, is based on the following principal sources of information: enactive attainments or enactive mastery experiences; vicarious experiences of observing the performances of others; verbal persuasion and allied types of social influences that one possesses certain capabilities; physiological and emotional states from which people partly judge their capabilities, strengths, and vulnerabilities to dysfunction; and changing environmental conditions (Bandura, 1977b, 1986, 1995, 1997) (Table 2.2). Influences from these sources are usually not independent of each other. As Bandura (1986, p. 399), points out that "Any given influence, depending on its form, may draw on one or more sources of efficacy information."

Table 2.2 Sources of self-efficacy information

Successful enactive experiences	They refer to direct experiences in which the individual participates actively. They are especially influential as they provide the most authentic evidence of whether one can master whatever it takes to succeed. When people are dealing successfully with a specific event, they build a robust belief in their personal efficacy. As a result, they become convinced that they have what it takes to succeed, they persevere in the face of adversity and quickly rebound from setbacks. In contrast, when the person experiences repeated failures, his/her sense of efficacy is undermined.
Vicarious experiences	People do not rely on enactive attainments as the sole source of information about their capabilities. Seeing or visualising other similar people perform successfully can raise observers' beliefs that if others can do it, they can also master comparable activities or they should be able to achieve at least some improvement in performance.
Verbal persuasion and other types of social influences	People who are persuaded verbally that they possess the capabilities to master given activities under problematic circumstances are likely to mobilise greater effort and sustain it than if they preserve self-doubts and focus on personal deficiencies. However, social persuasion alone may be limited in its power to create enduring increase in SE. In actuality, it is more difficult to instil high SE by social persuasion alone than to undermine them. In addition, a host of factors, including personal, social, situational, and temporal circumstances under which events occur, affect how personal experiences are cognitively appraised.
Physiological and emotional states	People also rely partly on their physiological and emotional states in judging their capabilities. They interpret their stress reactions and tension as signs of vulnerability to poor performance. Mood also affects people's judgements of their personal efficacy. Positive mood enhances perceived SE, whereas despondent mood diminishes it. As such, reducing stress and negative emotional proclivities, and enhancing physical status, is another way of altering negative SE.
Changing environmental conditions	A change in environmental setting can instantly alter what preoccupies one's thinking.

Source: Adopted from Bandura, A. (1977b, pp. 195-200, 1986, p. 399, 1995, pp. 3-5, 1997, pp. 79-161).

On the other hand, the impact of available information (whether conveyed enactively, vicariously, persuasively or physiologically/emotionally) on one's efficacy beliefs depends on how the person will cognitively process this information (e.g. Bandura, 1977b, 1986). Cognitive processing refers to how the person selects, weights, and integrates available information into SE judgements (Bandura, 1997). In this process, several different factors, including personal, social, situational, and temporal ones, affect how efficacy-relevant experiences are interpreted (Bandura, 1986). For example, the extent to which performance attainments alter perceived efficacy will depend on people's knowledge gained from past

experience and thus, preconceptions of their capabilities (Lewin, 1935; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984), the perceived difficulties of the task, the amount of effort they expended, their physical and emotional state at the time, the amount of external aid they received, and the situational circumstances under which they performed (Bandura, 1995, p. 5). Once SE

Table 2.3 Major self-efficacy activated processes

Cognitive	Most courses of action are initially organised in thought ¹⁶ . Much human behaviour, being purposive, is regulated by forethought embodying valued goals. People shape anticipatory scenarios: those with high levels of SE visualise success scenarios, whereas those who doubt their efficacy visualise failure scenarios. The former provide positive guides and boost performance and the latter has the opposite function.
Motivational	Similarly to most courses of action, most human motivation is cognitively generated. People motivate themselves and guide their actions anticipatory by the exercise of forethought. They form beliefs about what they can do, and they anticipate likely outcomes of prospective actions. Efficacy beliefs contribute to motivation in several ways: they determine the goals people set for themselves, how much effort they expend, how long they persevere in the face of difficulties, and their resilience to failures. People who distrust their capabilities put less effort and give-up quickly, whereas those we believe in their capabilities exert greater effort.
Affective	People's beliefs in their coping capabilities affect how much stress and depression they experience in threatening or difficult situations, as well as their level of motivation. People who believe that potential threats are unmanageable view many aspects of their environment as fraught with danger. Through inefficacious thinking they distress themselves and impair their level of functioning. In contrast, people who believe in their capabilities to deal with the environment, experience less stress, anxiety, and depression.
Selection	Choices are influenced by beliefs of personal capabilities. Hence, beliefs of personal efficacy can play a key role in shaping the courses lives take by influencing the types of activities and environments people choose to get into. People avoid activities and environments they believe exceed their capabilities, but they readily undertake activities and pick social environments they judge themselves capable of handling. As such, if people feel inefficacious to deal with an activity, they avoid it, thus, not allowing the other regulative process to come into play. It is only when people choose to engage in an activity that they mobilise cognitive, motivational and affective processes.
Changing environmental conditions	A change in environmental setting can instantly alter what preoccupies one's thinking.

Source: Adopted from Bandura, A. (1995, pp. 5-11, 1997, pp. 116-161).

¹⁶ This does not mean that cognition always precedes emotions. Emotions can also precede cognition as causality is bidirectional (see Lazarus and Folkman, 1984, p. 285).

information is interpreted, SE beliefs are formed, and they contribute to the quality of human functioning in diverse ways (Bandura, 1997, p. 115). Furthermore, efficacy beliefs regulate human functioning through four major processes, including cognitive, motivational, affective, and selection processes (Bandura, 1995) (Table 2.3). These different processes usually operate in concert, rather than in isolation, in the ongoing regulation of human functioning (Bandura, 1997, p. 116).

2.7 Self-efficacy and tourism

The concept of SE only appears in tourism literature in a recent article by Hung and Petrick (2012), where it is studied in relation to travel intentions and decision-making (it is tested whether SE moderates the relationship between travel constraints and constraint negotiation). With regard to any potential links between the tourism experience and SE, there is only one study in educational research showing that participants in student teaching abroad (which was provided by US universities) reported an increase in their SE (see Quezada, 2004). This study, however, does not provide adequate evidence due to the lack of methodological soundness (it is not explained how data were collected and how SE was measured). On the other hand, and although there is not any empirical evidence about the potential relationship between the tourism experience and SE upon which to build an argument, there are reasons to believe that this relationship may exist, and more specifically that the holiday experience may affect SE beliefs. Such reasons stem from a parallel examination of the psychological benefits of the tourism experience, and the sources and activating processes of SE information.

There is a plethora of evidence in the wider tourism and social tourism literatures showing that the tourism experience has positive effects on tourists' affective and cognitive states. At a first level, a holiday as a break from the constraints of everyday life has a positive impact on people's affective states through stress mitigation, relaxation, and restoration (e.g. Cohen, 1979b; Iso-Ahola, 1982; Jafari, 1987; Ryan, 2002). Indicative of this, are findings from studies that show positive effects of holiday-taking on people's well-being (e.g. Gilbert and Abdullah, 2004[on general tourism]; McCabe and Johnson, 2013[on social tourism]). At a second level, tourism is also a cognitive experience which widens horizons and often results in self-reassessments and discovery (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Jafari, 1987; Krippendorff

1987; Urry, 2002[1990]; Ryan, 2002; Kler, 2009). Such re-evaluations are the result of learning processes that have been found to be embedded in the holiday experience (Iso-Ahola, 1982[on general tourism]; Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009[on social tourism]). In fact, characteristics of the tourism experience, such as the provision of novel situations, which give tourists the chance for exploration (Cohen, 1979b; Fridgen, 1984; Graburn, 1989; Pearce, 2005) are also important requirements for learning (Jarvis, 2006). Within the specific context of SE, the main characteristic of tourism, which is the physical displacement of people from their normal surroundings (e.g. Ryan, 2002) is particularly relevant as changing environmental conditions is among the ways of altering SE beliefs. As Bandura (1997, p. 147) explains, “A change in environmental setting can instantly alter what preoccupies one’s thinking.”

Furthermore, findings from recent social tourism studies that show positive effects of holiday-taking on participants subjective well-being (e.g. McCabe and Johnson, 2013) and self-esteem (e.g. Minnaert, 2007; Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009), can be particularly relevant to SE. This said, the concepts of subjective well-being (SWB), self-esteem, and SE have been related to positive psychology and share similarities (Maddux, 2002). More specifically, SWB is based on affective states and life satisfaction (Diener et al., 1999), thus, similarly to SE, it includes an affective component. As mentioned earlier in this chapter affective states play a dual role in SE as they are both sources of SE information and major activating processes of this information (Bandura, 1995, 1997). In a similar vein, self-esteem and SE have been found to be interrelated. Despite the fact that self-esteem is different from SE as it is concerned with evaluations of self-worth (e.g. whether someone values, approves or likes oneself) (Blascovich and Tomaka, 1991, p. 115), and it is more related to affective constructs and processes, whereas SE is concerned with judgements of personal capability and relates more strongly to motivational constructs and processes (see Rosenberg et al., 1995; Bandura, 1997; Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2004), the two concepts have been found to be interrelated and to share conceptual similarities (e.g. Judge, Erez, and Bono, 1998; Judge et al., 2002). Firstly, they have a common base as a central component of self-esteem is self-confidence (Rosenberg 1979 cited in Rosenberg et al., 1995); and secondly, both concepts are among the four well established traits in the personality literature, which together with emotional stability and locus of control, form the core self-

evaluations construct (a broad, latent, higher order trait) (Judge and Bono, 2001; Judge et al., 2003). As a result, it is not surprising that several studies have shown that the two concepts are interrelated.

With regard to the direction of this relationship, there is evidence that perceived efficacy, among other factors, contributes to self-esteem. Sherer et al. (1982), for instance, found that high scores of general and social SE are associated with increases in self-esteem. Explaining this relationship, they asserted that “belief in one’s ability to perform behaviour is one factor contributing to an individual’s attitude toward oneself” (p. 670). On the other hand, any relationship between the two is not fixed, especially when SE is conceptualised as a situation-specific belief (Bandura, 1997). The extent to which SE will contribute to one’s self-esteem, depends on the degree of importance the person places on what he/she masters (Judge, Erez, and Bono, 1998; Maddux, 2002). If, for instance, a person feels efficacious in executing a specific task, but he/she does not value this task, his/her self-esteem remains unaffected. Moreover, there is evidence that self-esteem also affects SE. For example, when self-esteem declines, SE declines as well (e.g. Eden and Aviram, 1993).

Finally, another potential link between holiday-taking for unemployed individuals and SE may stem from some specific functions of employment, which can be found during holidays. Of course, this is not to say that a holiday-break can replace employment; however, it can offer temporarily functions of employment whose absence has been found to contribute significantly to people’s psychological deterioration in general and to the decrease of their SE in particular. Functions such as, social experiences outside the family life, externally generated goals, opportunity for skill use, opportunity for control, physical security, status and identity (Jahoda 1981, 1982; Warr, 1987, 2007), for example, are often available through tourism participation (e.g. Urry, 1995, Minnaert, 2007; McCabe, 2009).

2.8 Conceptualisation of self-efficacy

In the majority of unemployment studies, SE has been conceptualised as a task-specific competence belief (SSE), focusing on job-search self-efficacy (JSSE). This situation-specific focus is consistent with Bandura’s (1997) conceptualisation, as well as with the wider conceptualisation of SE in other fields (e.g. Maddux, 2002). JSSE refers to “an individual’s

confidence in his/her ability to successfully perform a variety of job-search activities” (Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999, p. 899). This conceptualisation of SE is, of course, irrelevant to holiday-taking. Moreover, and notwithstanding the importance of JSSE, its influence on job-search intensity appears to be restricted in the short-term (e.g. van Ryn and Vinokur, 1992), and as unemployment duration is extended it is rather inadequate in influencing motivation and intensification of effort (e.g. Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999). It seems that after repeated failures in securing employment, one’s confidence in writing a good resume, for example, is not sufficient to keep the person motivated in a continuous job-searching process. As such, and given the stressful character of job search, especially within the context of long-term unemployment, different conceptualisations of SE are, perhaps, more appropriate. Moreover, a trait-like conceptualisation of SE was deemed as more appropriate given that this study is drawing, to a large extent, upon findings from social tourism studies, which concern another personality trait, such as self-esteem.

Generalised self-efficacy (GSE) has been developed as a derivative or extension of SSE (Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006), and has seen an increasing interest (e.g. Sherer et al., 1982; Schwarzer and Jerusalem, 1995) by challenging its narrow conceptualisation (Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001). More specifically, personality psychologists have conceived of SE as a generalised trait that represents “one’s belief or perception in his/her overall ability or competence to perform across a variety of achievement situations” (Judge, Erez, and Bono, 1998, p. 170; Eden, 2001, p. 75). In other words, “GSE is a cognition about general self-competence, whereas SSE is a cognition about specific performance” (Eden and Kinnar, 1991, pp. 771-772). On the other hand, the measurement of SE as a situation-independent construct has been criticised as being unrelated to particular activity domains or behaviour, thus, having limited explanatory and predictive value (Maddux, 2002; Bandura, 2006). Nevertheless, proponents of GSE argue that mastery experiences, in one area may generalise to other areas of behaviour influencing a variety of task domains (e.g. Sherer et al., 1982; Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001), an argument that has its roots in Bandura’s early work on the concept of SE (e.g. Bandura, Adams, and Beyer, 1977). As Sherer et al. (1982, p. 664) further explain, “An individual’s past experiences with success and failure in a variety of situations should result in a general set of expectations that the individual carries into new situations. These generalised expectancies should influence the

individual's expectancies of mastery in the new situations." It is apparent from this explanation that GSE remains relatively stable over time as it reflects the accumulation of lifetime experiences (Eden and Kinnar, 1991; Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001), stability that characterises much of our old knowledge and beliefs (see James, 1907).

But beyond any debates between GSE and SSE, it must be stressed that any choice between the two is not a matter of superiority of one over the other, but a matter of what is appropriate in a given research context. This said, and as Sherer et al. (1982, p. 671) suggest, "when dealing with specific behaviours in unambiguous situations, specific forms of self-efficacy are likely to provide the most accurate estimates of an individual's self-efficacy expectations." In other words, the degree of specificity of generality varies with the context (see Scholz et al., 2002), and often both concepts of SE should be investigated (see Eden, 1988; Eden and Kinnar, 1991). Within the context of this study, which investigates any effects of holiday-taking on people's SE, the primary focus is on the more general dimension of SE. Any positive effects of a holiday-break on people's SE would be irrelevant to a task-specific form of SE, such as JSSE. As such, unlike unemployment studies on JSB, which use experimental interventions specifically designed to boost JSSE, here the "intervention" (holiday-break) is not concerned with any specific situation, but with the belief in one's general capabilities or competencies to overcome difficult circumstances. Thus, the focus of the study reflects the conceptualisation of GSE as used by Sherer et al. (1982) and Chen et al. (2001), which refers to people's beliefs in their capability to persist in the face of adversity¹⁷. Moreover, there is evidence that GSE is particularly relevant to JSB. Eden and Aviram (1993), for instance, designed a training workshop to boost GSE among 66 vocational workers unemployed for up to 18 weeks and found that training boosted GSE. Their workshop also increased job-search activity, confirming the hypothesis that raising GSE motivates intensification of effort. On the other hand evidence about direct effects of GSE on JSB are rather limited.

¹⁷ Adding to the earlier conceptual confusion revolving around the self-efficacy debate, Bandura (2006, p. 330) uses the same conceptualisation as a specific form of self-efficacy, which names 'resiliency self-efficacy' and which consists of items that replicate, to a large extent, those used in Sherer et al.'s and Chen et al.'s scales.

The secondary focus of this study is on job-finding self-efficacy (JFSE) or reemployment efficacy, which refers to an individual's belief in his/her capability to find a job (see Epel, Bandura, and Zimbardo, 1999). The interest on JFSE stems from the overall aim of the study to investigate any linkages between holiday-taking and JSB. Thus, JFSE is used as a link between GSE and JSB. The role of personality constructs, such as GSE, has been found to be important, not so much through main effects (Weiss and Adler, 1984), but by moderating the impact of the environment (e.g. negative feedback) on the person's SSE (e.g. Eden, 1988; Eden, 2001; Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006), and in general on the relationships among other variables (e.g. Eden and Kinnar, 1991). Here, GSE is expected to influence JFSE, which is particularly important in the person's JSB. For example, it has been found that the overall fall in exit rates from unemployment and, thus, the increase of long-term unemployed is explained by the combined effect of: a) a fall in the ratio of vacancies for the unemployed, and b) the negative connotations that the extended duration of unemployment has in the eyes of employers (see Jackman and Layard, 1991). Under these circumstances, the extent to which an individual believes that he/she can find employment, especially when things are getting harder, such as when unemployment duration is prolonged and when the job market climate is negative, may determine his/her behaviour with regard to job-seeking. Depending on this belief, the individual may either retain his/her motivation and keep searching or feel unmotivated and give up looking for work. As such, this belief is related to motivation control, which in some studies appears to be the best predictor of sustained job-search intensity, as unemployment duration extends (e.g. Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999).

Finally, and although the main focus of the study is on GSE and JFSE for the reasons discussed above, the holiday-break may also influence other forms of SE. Findings from earlier social tourism studies, for instance, have shown that holiday-taking has a positive impact on participants' family and social relations (e.g. Minnaert, 2007; McCabe, 2009; Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009). As such, improvements in these life-domains may have positive effects on individuals' parental-efficacy and social SE, respectively. On the other hand, there are not any theoretical linkages in the existing literature to show relationships between these forms of SE and JSB. Nevertheless, and given that the sources of SE information are common between different forms of SE, the study still allows other

SSE forms that could be potentially linked to JSB to emerge (see Methodology chapter: §3.6).

2.9 Conceptualisation of job-search behaviour

JSB has been mainly studied in terms of intensity (e.g. Blau, 1993, Vuori and Vesalainen, 1999; Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999; van Hooft et al., 2004; Wanberg et al., 2012b). In such studies participants are asked to indicate how frequently they engaged in specific job-search activities, such as reading the classified advertisements, talking with friends or relatives about possible job leads, preparing a resume, and going to a job interview. There is no doubt that such activities and the frequency with which unemployed individuals undertake them are the central component of JSB; however, approaching JSB solely through intensity, excludes other important patterns of thinking and affect that are also parts of this behaviour. JSB is a wider construct that “begins with the identification and commitment to pursuing an employment goal” (Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz, 2001, p. 838). This said, thinking to look for work or the intention to look for work are also important components of JSB as they “capture the motivational factors that drive a behaviour” (Wanberg et al., 2005, p. 412). In other words, job-search intensity is not an independent part of JSB, but the result of these motivational factors. Within the context of this study, JSB is mainly conceptualised in terms of intensity, but attention is also given to the initial motivational factors prior to the actual behaviour. In addition, and due to the fact that some job-search activities are more stressful than others, such as those that require more social skills and self-confidence (Barber et al., 1994), the perception of participants’ toward these activities (e.g. job-interview) is also assessed as a part of their JSB. As such, and despite the focus on job-seeking intensity, the study goes beyond intensity, and aims to capture the construct as a whole from the intention to look for work until the last stage of the process, which is the job-interview.

2.10 Consideration of background characteristics

The extent to which: a) the holiday-break will have any positive effects on GSE; b) any positive changes in GSE will have any positive effects on JFSE; and c) any positive changes in JFSE will have any positive effects in the JSB of the unemployed, will also depend on the influence of specific background characteristics on these variables. As Bandura (1995, p. x)

stresses “socioeconomic factors, family processes, and beliefs of personal efficacy are treated as interrelated determinants within an integrated causal structure.” Several of such factors have been discussed earlier in this chapter, as influencing the magnitude of unemployment effects on psychological health. Similarly, there is evidence about their moderating role within the specific context of SE and JSB of unemployed individuals. Hence, the consideration of such characteristics is essential, while examining any changes in the dependent variables of the study.

2.10.1 Age

Traits in general, and SE as a generalised trait in specific, are shaped in early years, and then remain relatively stable over time (e.g. Warr, 1987; Jerusalem and Mittag, 1995). As such, age is expected to influence the malleability of GSE, with younger age groups being more likely to show any GSE changes, than the older age groups. With regard to JFSE, age also appears to be a crucial factor. The belief in one’s capability to find a job is not only affected by psychological factors, but from objective factors as well. Given that the youngest and the oldest in the labour force appear to have fewer chances for reemployment, and are those most likely to be unemployed (e.g. Sinfield, 1981), it is less likely to show significant changes in their JFSE, than middle-aged participants. The lower JFSE among the youngest and the oldest can have negative implications for their JSB, and these two age groups are expected to search for work less than the middle-aged. This said, it has been found that middle-age people do not adopt in their constraint position and they do not reduce their job-related and other aspirations, even when unemployment duration extends (e.g. Warr and Jackson, 1987). On the other hand, the relationship between age and JSB becomes more complex when the influence of unemployment duration is considered, with other studies reporting that job-search activity decreases with increasing length of unemployment for the middle aged (e.g. Rowley and Feather, 1987).

2.10.2 Gender and restrictions to work

With regard to the impact of gender on SE, findings are controversial. But in general, GSE is unaffected by gender (e.g. Jerusalem and Mittag, 1995), and any gender differences tend to fluctuate by age and family life cycle, and are less evident with increasing age (see Gecas, 1989). Evidence about gender differences is clearer in JFSE and JSB. With regard to the

former, it has been found that unemployed women report lower JFSE than men (e.g. Epel, Bandura, and Zimbardo, 1999). With regard to the latter, available findings show that gender in conjunction with caring responsibilities (which usually depend on the role the person has within the family) determine to a large extent one's motivation and efforts to look and find work. Women's attitudes to work are affected by their heavier domestic responsibilities, such as childcare (e.g. Jackson and Warr, 1984; Gallie and Vogler, 1994; Bailey, 2006), which make job-search process problematic, and increase the likelihood to remain unemployed for an extended period of time (see Moen, 1979; Dorling, 2010).

2.10.3 Education and last occupation

With regard to GSE, it has been found that it is positively associated with education (e.g. Sherer et al., 1982), but it is unaffected by employment status (employed and unemployed) (e.g. Jerusalem and Mittag, 1995). On the other hand, both prior occupational status and education seem to influence people's JFSE and JSB, respectively. A person with blue-collar work experience, and lower education (who is more likely to live in an area with few job-opportunities), for instance, is unlikely to believe that he/she can find a job (e.g. van Dam and Menting, 2012). As a consequence, his/her JSB is expected to be influenced, accordingly, and the person may feel that it is pointless to look for work. But some contradictory findings also exist, according to which, JFSE is unrelated to education (e.g. Epel, Bandura, and Zimbardo, 1999). In addition, such background characteristics may have an indirect impact on the individuals' JFSE and JSB, through the further deterioration that may cause in one's psychological health. There is a plethora of evidence, that under these circumstances (and especially in times of slow economic growth and high unemployment), the vast majority of people still feel the moral pressure to find work, and want to work, but their motivation to look for work and their JSB in general, are negatively affected, which, in turn, lowers any probability to find a job (e.g. Amundson and Borgen, 1982; Jackson and Warr, 1984; Turner, 1995; Goldsmith, Veum, and Darity, 1996).

2.10.4 Unemployment length

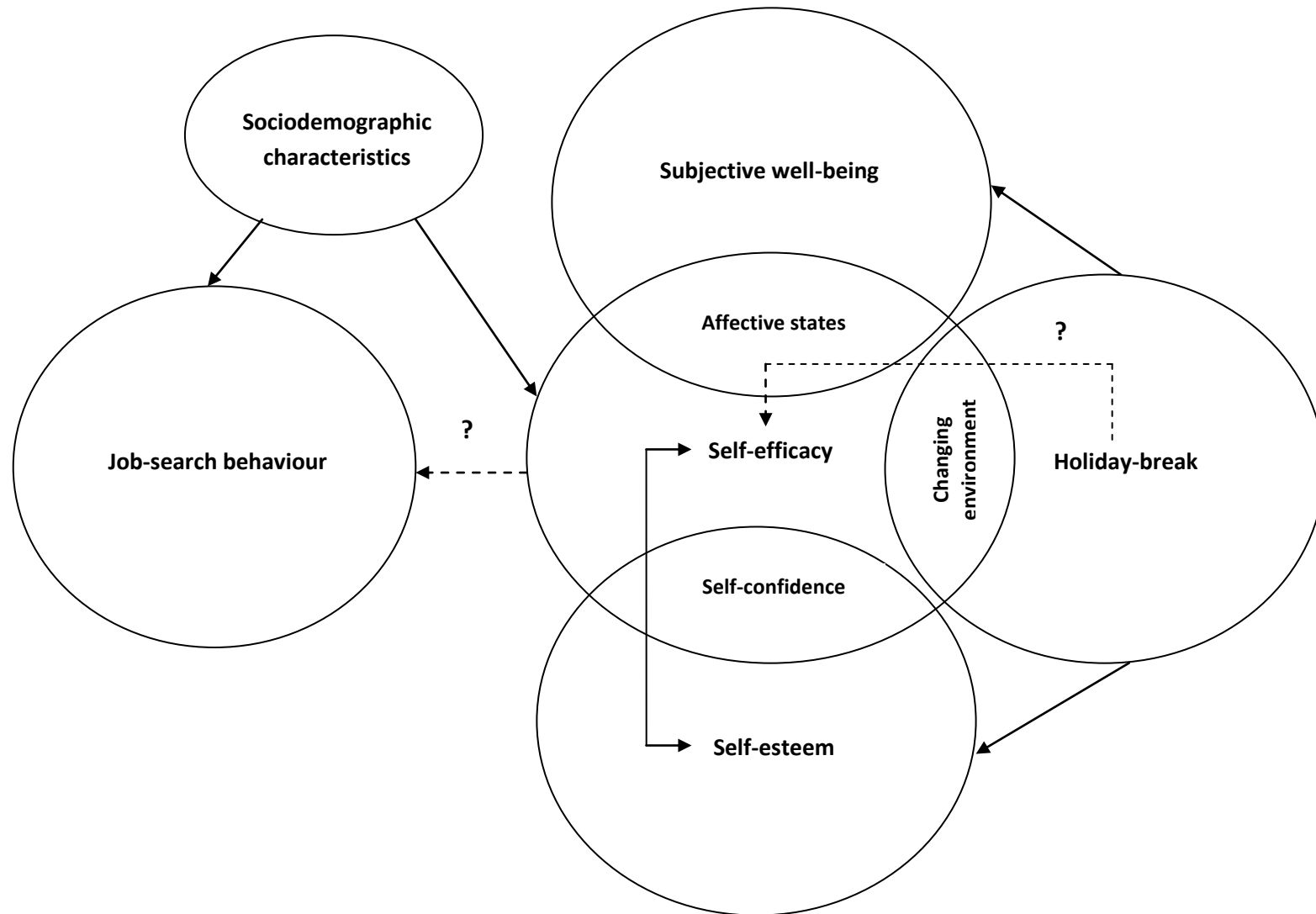
Given that resignation and apathy seem to reflect the attitude of the long-term unemployed (e.g. Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]; Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985), unemployment length is expected to influence the person's belief in his/her capabilities to find a job. As

such, it is not surprising that unemployment length is a significant determinant of one's JSB. As unemployment duration extends, individuals spend less time and energy on finding a job (e.g. van Dam and Menting, 2012), they become rather detached from the labour market, play little role in competing for jobs, and their chances to find employment further decrease (see Sen, 1997; Wadsworth et al., 1999). This is confirmed by the exit rates out of unemployment, which are lower for long-term than for short-term unemployed people (Bjorklund and Eriksson, 1998; Machin and Manning, 1999; Krueger and Mueller, 2011).

2.11 Synopsis of theoretical background

This section provides a brief summary of the theoretical background upon which this study's argument is based (see Figure 2.2). The circle on the right represents the holiday-break. The arrow on the top-left side of the circle shows that the holiday-break has been found to have positive effects on subjective well-being, while the arrow on the bottom-left of the circles show that the holiday-break has positive effects on self-esteem. The left side of the circle shows that it overlaps with the circle of SE, and more specifically, that they share a core element, namely, changing environment. The three circles in the middle of the figure represent three major constructs of positive psychology, namely, subjective well-being, SE, and self-esteem, and show where these constructs overlap. The common component of subjective well-being and SE is affective states, and the common component between SE and self-esteem is self-confidence. In addition, the two connected arrows inside the circles of SE and self-esteem (on the left side of the constructs, which point to the constructs) show the bidirectional relationship between SE and self-esteem. Given all the above linkages, the study explores whether the holiday-break has any effects on SE. This is depicted by the dotted arrow, which points from the holiday-break to SE (direction to the left), and by the question mark on the top of the arrow. Then the study asks whether effects on SE, have, in turn, any effects on JSB. This is depicted by the dotted arrow on the left side of the figure, which points from the 'SE' circle to the 'JSB' circle (direction to the left), and by the question mark on the top of the arrow. Finally, the circle on the top-left side of the diagram represents the sociodemographich characteristics, which have been found to influence SE (arrow on the bottom-right of the circle, which points to the circle of SE) and JSB (arrow on the bottom left of the circle, which points to the circle of JSB).

Figure 2.2 Theoretical background



2.12 Research aim, questions, and hypotheses

The review of the literature shaped the study's aim as follows: to examine any effects of social tourism on unemployed parents' psychological health, with specific reference to their SE beliefs; to examine the extent to which, such effects further result in positive changes in their JSB; and to understand how these effects in SE and JSB are manifested. The following research questions, sub-questions and hypotheses were addressed to achieve this aim:

Q1. To what extent does the holiday-break affect participants' SE?

SQ1. To what extent does the holiday-break affect participants' GSE?

Hypothesis 1: Participants' GSE will increase after the holiday-break.

Q2. What is the relationship between GSE and SSE?

SQ2. To what extent do changes in participants' GSE affect their JFSE?

Hypothesis 2: Changes in participants' GSE will affect positively changes in their JFSE.

Q3. To what extent changes in participants' SE affect their JSB?

SQ3. To what extent do changes in participants' JFSE affect their JSB?

Hypothesis 3: Changes in participants' JFSE will affect positively their JSB.

Q4: To what extent do background characteristics affect changes in participants' a) GSE, b) JFSE, and c) JSB?

Hypothesis 5a: i) Younger participants, and ii) those with higher educational level, are more likely to show an increase in their GSE.

Hypothesis 5b: i) Participants with no restrictions to work, ii) males, iii) the middle aged in the labour force, iv) the short-term unemployed, v) those with higher educational level, and vi) those with white-collar background are more likely to show an increase in their JFSE.

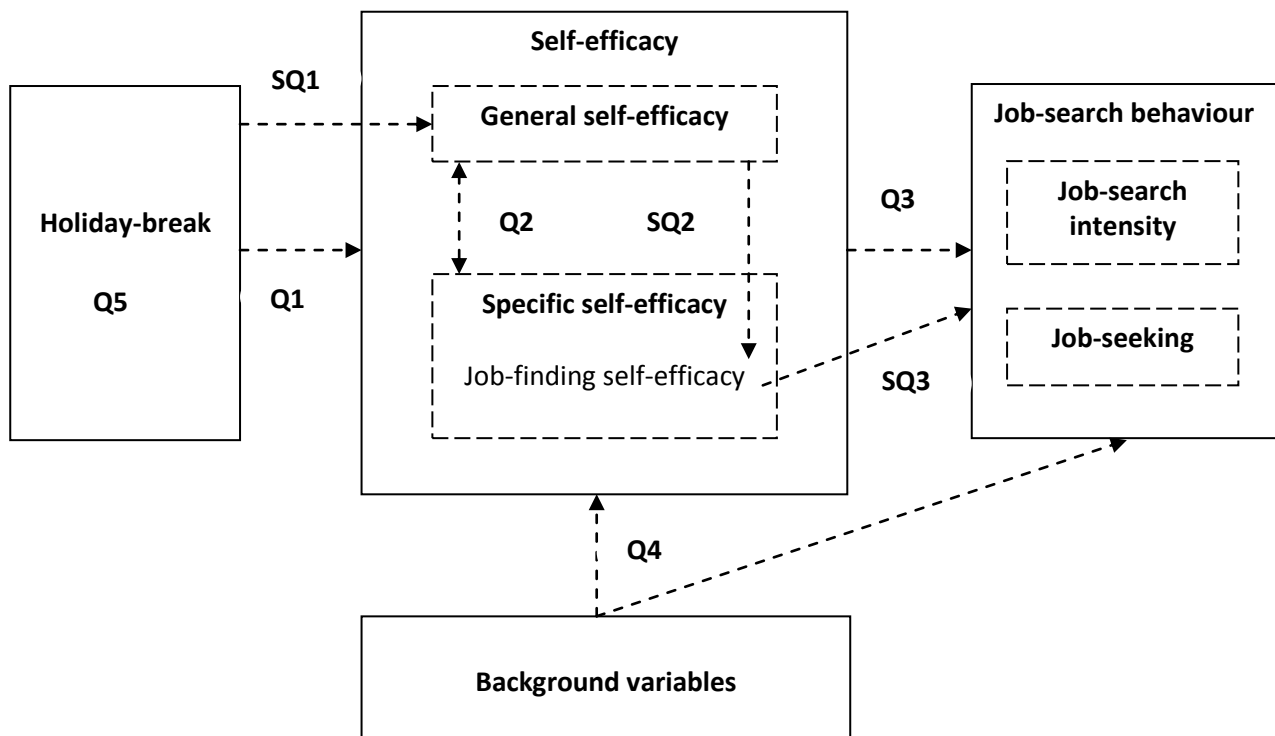
Hypothesis 5c: i) Participants with no restrictions to work, ii) males, iii) the middle aged in the labour force, iv) the short-term unemployed, v) those with higher educational level, and vi) those with white-collar background are more likely to show an increase in their JSB.

Q5. How are the effects in participants' SE and JSB manifested?

These research questions shaped the study's conceptual framework, depicted in figure 2.3. The three large vertical boxes represent the main concepts of the study, namely, holiday-break, SE, and JSB, while the horizontal box at the bottom of the diagram represents participants' sociodemographic characteristics. Inside each of the 'self-efficacy' and 'job-search behaviour' boxes, there are two smaller dashed boxes, which depict different forms of self-efficacy, and the components of job-search behaviour, respectively. The first two horizontal arrows on the left side of the figure, which point from the 'holiday-break' box to the 'self-efficacy' and 'general self-efficacy' boxes, depict the first research question and sub-questions, respectively. The next two vertical arrows inside the large 'self-efficacy' box,

in the middle of the diagram, represent the second research question (up down arrow between the ‘general-self-efficacy’ and ‘specific self-efficacy’ boxes), and sub-question (downwards arrow that points from the ‘general-self-efficacy’ to job-finding self-efficacy), respectively. The next set of arrows comprises of one horizontal arrow that points from the ‘self-efficacy’ to the ‘job-search behaviour’ box and represents the third research question, and a diagonal arrow that points from job-finding self-efficacy to the ‘job-search behaviour’ box and represents the third research sub-question. Research question four is depicted from the two arrows at the bottom of the diagram, which point from the ‘background variables’ box to the ‘self-efficacy’ and ‘job-search behaviour’ boxes. Finally, the fifth research question, which aims to shed light into all the other research questions, is embedded in the ‘holiday-break’ box. Research hypotheses are not depicted in the figure, due to space limitations; however, they are included in the respective research questions or sub-questions (e.g. H1 in SQ1).

Figure 2.3 Conceptual framework



2.13 Conclusion

This chapter reviewed the literatures on the psychological benefits of the tourism experience, with specific reference to the social tourism literature, and on the psychological impact of unemployment for the individuals and their job-seeking behaviour. The significant role of SE beliefs was discussed in relation to its potential to positively motivate people to initiate action (e.g. expend more effort in job-searching) and to lead to positive changes in their lives. It was then identified that SE has several linkages with the psychological benefits of the tourism experience, which were discussed analytically. The chapter concluded with the conceptual framework and the research questions that emerged from the literature discussion. The following chapter presents in detail the methodological approach of the research.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the study's methodological approach, and it is divided into three main parts. The first introduces the reader to the chosen mixed-methods approach. It begins with a discussion on the rationale behind this choice in relation to the philosophical assumptions of pragmatism, the research context and aims, and continues with the presentation of important aspects of the research design, namely, mixed-methods data collection, analyses, and sampling. Before proceeding with the discussion on the separate quantitative and qualitative designs, ethical considerations that guided, to a large extent, this research are presented. The second part of the chapter focuses on the quantitative phase of this study, and discusses analytically the development, administration, and implementation of a pre-post-holiday survey, as well as the challenges that accompanied access to the target population. Finally, the third part of the chapter presents the qualitative phase of the study and discusses the development and conduct of semi-structured interviews.

3.2 Philosophical assumptions

Although a chosen methodology is guided by the nature of the research objectives and questions (Crotty, 1998; Robson, 2002), it is not simply an issue of a study's aims, but it is also influenced by particular philosophical assumptions (Baert, 2005, p. 154). Such assumptions concern the way the researcher perceives the nature of reality (ontology) and knowledge (epistemology), and are related to particular methodological approaches (Morgan and Smircich, 1980; Crotty, 1998; Greene, 2006). This set of beliefs form what is called "paradigm" and influence the whole research process (Lincoln and Guba, 1985). Different paradigms are linked to different philosophical assumptions and, consequently, to different methodological approaches. According to positivism, for instance, reality exists "out there" as an objective entity, and it is knowable in its entirety (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Della Porta and Keating, 2008). Advocates of positivism use quantitative methods, involving deductive research strategies, such as experiments and surveys in order to test hypotheses based on particular theories (Crotty, 1998; Patton, 2002). In contrast, according to interpretivism, reality does not exist as an objective entity separate from human subjectivity, but it is comprised of multiple constructed realities, resulting from people's experiences and the meanings they attach to it (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Della Porta and

Keating, 2008). Interpretivists believe that knowledge is created through the interaction between human beings and their world (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Crotty, 1998). They seek different ways to understand processes and experiences, and their preferred methods are qualitative, with strategies including induction, exploration, and theory generation (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Denzin and Lincoln, 2008). Such competing standpoints about the nature of reality and knowledge have caused a long standing debate within the social sciences, with important methodological implications (Morgan, 2007).

Central to this debate are considerations of the superiority of positivism and quantitative methods from one hand, and the superiority of interpretivism and qualitative inquiry on the other hand (Patton, 2002; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Within the social sciences in general, and within management studies in particular, there has been an emphasis on the positivist tradition, often due to an attempt to achieve “scientific” legitimisation (Bailey and Ford, 1996; Bennis and O’Toole, 2005; Starkey and Tiratsoo, 2007). The same emphasis on positivist research modes and for the same reasons has been also given in tourism studies (Tribe, 1997; Walle, 1997; Botterill, 2001; Goodson and Phillimore, 2004; Cooper et al., 2005). Similarly, psychological research has been highly quantitative since its conception, however, with a growing interest in qualitative research since the 1960s (Gelo et al., 2008). Such a shift towards the acceptance of qualitative research has been evident in the wider social sciences, since the 1980s (Huberman and Miles, 2002; Denzin and Lincoln, 2003), with some disciplines (e.g. management studies) adopting faster (Catterall, 1998; Milliken, 2001), and some others (e.g. tourism) somewhat slower (Phillimore and Goodson, 2004).

Notwithstanding the level of acceptance of these two research paradigms and their respective methodologies among different disciplines, their advocates had been long “concerned with defending their accustomed lines of inquiry, than with indicating the possible points of convergence with other approaches” (Fielding and Fielding, 1986, p. 10). In contrast to this rather narrow approach to inquiry there are arguments about the necessity of more open and dialectical approaches. Feyerabend (2010[1975], p. 4), for instance, points out that, “the world we want to explore is largely an unknown entity. We must, therefore, keep our options open and we must not restrict ourselves in advance.”

Similarly, Freire (1972a, p. 27) argues, that objectivity cannot be conceived without subjectivity and vice versa, and that both are in a constant dialectical relationship.

Inquiry as an evolving process has responded to such arguments and has seen the variety of its approaches expanded beyond the two dichotomised stances (Newman and Benz, 1998; Patton, 2002). This expansion has been the result of the emergence of alternative worldviews to those of positivism and interpretivism. One such worldview is pragmatism, according to which, reality is both singular and multiple (Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Pragmatism rejects “pretended absolutes and origins” and favours “the possibilities of nature, as against dogma, artificiality, and the pretence of finality in truth” (James, 1907, p. 51). It challenges the contrast between objectivity and subjectivity as this “creates issues of prejudices about what constitutes credible and valuable contributions to knowledge, which limit methodological choices, flexibility and creativity” (Patton, 2002, p. 71). Such ideas have led to the argument that “Pragmatism offers a third choice that embraces super-ordinate ideas gleaned through consideration of perspectives from both sides of the paradigms debate in interaction with the research question and real world circumstances” (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009, p. 73). As such, pragmatists focus on synthesis instead of dichotomisation, and combine deductive and inductive thinking in their inquiry (Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011).

This study reflects a pragmatic approach to social inquiry, driven by its aims and the nature of the research questions, rather than a preconceived preference associated to specific methodologies and research methods (see Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). This pragmatic approach has the advantage that “allows one to eschew methodological orthodoxy in favour of *methodological appropriateness* as the primary criterion of judging methodological quality, recognising that different methods are appropriate for different situations” (Patton, 2002, p. 72). In addition, such an approach is consistent with the overall aim of the study, which is to produce socially useful knowledge (see Feilzer, 2009). On the other hand, and despite these advantages, pragmatism, like any other philosophical approach, has its shortcomings (e.g. workability or usefulness can be vague unless explicitly addressed) (see Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004, pp. 17-19).

3.3 Mixed-methods design

As already mentioned earlier, pragmatism as a research paradigm, supports the use of a mix of different methods (Feilzer, 2009). Mixed-methods research reflects multiple standpoints, and lies somewhere in the continuum between quantitative and qualitative research, recognising the utility, and often the necessity, of both methodologies (Morgan and Smircich, 1980; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004; Flick, 2006; Johnson et al., 2007; Crotty, 2009). More specifically, it enables researchers to deal with the complexity of social life by using quantitative methods to measure some aspects of the phenomenon under study and qualitative methods for others (Feilzer, 2009). In other words, by adopting different methodologies it aims to map and understand the social world as completely as possible (see Feyerabend (2010[1975]; Baert, 2005). This reflects the idea of triangulation¹⁸, “an attempt to secure an in-depth understanding of the phenomenon in question” (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003, p. 7). On the other hand, the aim for in-depth understanding is not achieved without additional cost, as different methods require different amounts of resources (e.g. research skills, money and time) which make mixed-methods research particularly challenging, especially for researchers working independently and on self-funded projects (Brannen, 1992; Frost, 2011; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). While, acknowledging these challenges a mixed-methods approach was followed.

The study’s design consisted of separate quantitative and qualitative phases. In addition, it had the form of a cohort semi-longitudinal study given that there was also an interest to identify effects over time. In such designs, data are collected in at least two waves on the same variables on the same people, and the people share a certain characteristic – e.g. being unemployed in this case (Bryman, 2008). The study was conducted in three waves, namely, before the holiday-break (T1) and after the holiday-break (T2 and T3). With regard to the first two waves, a one group pre-test post-test non-experimental design was used in the form of a pre- post-holiday survey to examine any effects of the holiday-break on unemployed parents SE beliefs and JSB, respectively. This phase of the study addressed research questions 1-4. With regard to the third wave, semi-structured interviews were

¹⁸ Triangulation is also a research validation process (see Campbell and Fiske, 1959; Denzin, 1970; Flick, 1992). This means that results obtained by two different methods and support the same conclusion enhance the belief that they are valid and not a methodological artefact (see Bouchard, 1976; Fielding and Fielding, 1986).

conducted among a subsample of the initial sample aiming to: a) understand through participants' own explanations, how any such effects were manifested, b) investigate whether such effects lasted in the medium-term, and c) strengthen the quantitative design in terms of interpretations of results. This phase of the study addressed all research questions, focusing on research question 5, but also readdressing research questions 1-4. This overlap in the treatment of data was deemed as necessary to shed more light and provide a more complete picture of the phenomena under study (see Brannen, 1992; Darlington and Scott, 2002; Frost, 2011), something that could not be achieved through a single methodological approach (e.g. one group pre-test post-test non-experimental design) (Bryman, 1988; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). But irrespectively of the choice of this particular design, it has been also argued that "the measurement of change often requires more than the traditional pre-post data" (Rogosa, Brandt, and Zimowski, 1982, p. 744). In addition, the combination of surveys with semi-structured interviews is a classic mixed-methods approach (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009).

The two different methods utilised are further and separately discussed later in this chapter. What must be mentioned at this point is that with regard to the priority or status of the quantitative and qualitative approaches, both had been given an equal weight, a choice that is consistent with the logic of mixed methods research (Darlington and Scott, 2002; Johnson et al., 2007). Consistent with this is the fact that resources allocated to data collection and analysis were roughly equal (Brannen, 1992). This was also an answer to such critiques that maintain that mixed methods inquiry relegates to qualitative methods a secondary status (Greene, 2006). Moreover, and although the quantitative design facilitated the qualitative, and vice versa, the two phases of the study can be also viewed as two separate but linked studies (Brannen, 1992).

3.3.1 Analysis of results

Despite the sequential character of data collection, in terms of chronological order, the two data sets were analysed in parallel or independently. This type of analysis is among the most widely used analytic strategies in mixed-methods research and has been associated with triangulation and convergence (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). Data collected first (quantitative) were not analysed before the collection of

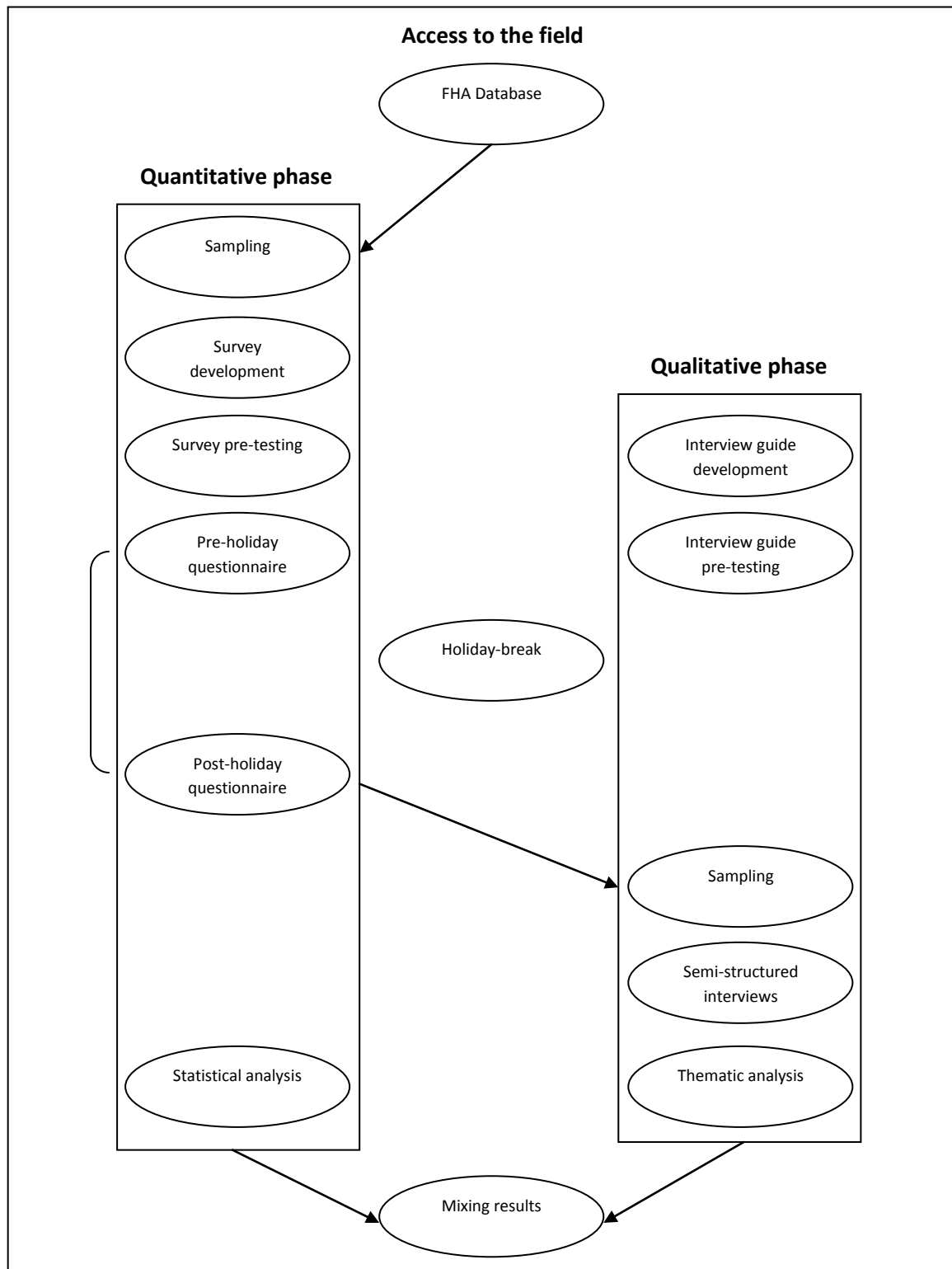
qualitative data, thus, the difference in timing did not bias the analysis (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Only descriptive statistics from the survey were obtained prior to the qualitative phase to get the essence of the sample's characteristics, which was necessary to guide qualitative sampling (see §3.6.2). More specifically, data analysis involved two separate processes, namely, quantitative analysis of surveys using descriptive/inferential statistics for the appropriate variables, and qualitative analysis of semi-structured interviews, using thematic analysis (these strategies are presented analytically in the respective quantitative and qualitative analysis chapters). After these two different analyses were completed, the results were mixed during the overall interpretation stage. As such, although the two sets of analysis were independent, each provided an understanding of the phenomena under investigation (Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). The mixed methods design unfolds as presented in Figure 3.1.

3.3.2 Sampling

The study utilised a non-random, purposive sampling approach. This is a widely used sampling strategy in mixed-methods studies, regardless of the methodology's goals (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Within the specific context of this study, the choice of a purposive sampling strategy was dictated by the characteristics of the target population, namely, unemployed individuals who participate in a holiday-break, through social tourism initiatives. In such instances, where the population under study is rare, the first consideration is whether there is a special list that gives contact information of the population (Kalton and Anderson, 1986). Such lists, when available, can usually be obtained from institutions that work with rare populations. Social tourism in the UK largely depends on grants from the charities sector (see Smith and Hughes, 1999; Hazel, 2005; European Economic and Social Committee, 2006). There are a large number of voluntary and charitable agencies that support and enable specific groups to access holiday opportunities either as a primary or ancillary function (see McCabe, 2009). From a list of charities and organisations that provide social tourism services in the country, the Family Holiday Association (FHA), a London-based charity that operates all around the UK was chosen to be approached for two reasons. Firstly, the charity is the major provider of social tourism in the country, and unlike other social tourism providers, its services are not restricted to the disabled or the elderly, but they are offered to low-income families in general, with many of

the members of these families being unemployed. Secondly, there had already been a well-established co-operation between the Nottingham University Business School and the charity, making accessibility more feasible.

Figure 3.1 Mixed methods design



Adapted from Teddlie, C., and Tashakkori, A. (2009)

Key contacts within the organisation were approached in March 2011. In this process, and as Cohen (2007, p. 152), for instance, stresses, “it is critical for the researcher not only to consider whether access is possible but how access will be undertaken – to whom does one have to go, both formally and informally, to gain access to the target group.” Acknowledging this, the initial contact was made through emails to the Director and the Policy & Programme Manager of the charity (a brief research proposal with the aim and objectives of the study was attached). The study depended on the charity’s willingness to provide the researcher access to the target population. Therefore, a more personal approach was essential in order for the researcher to create a relationship of trust with the key people within the charity. The first face-to-face contact was made at the end of March 2011, during a social tourism seminar (NET-STaR) in London. A formal meeting was arranged in the beginning of April 2011, where further details of the research project were discussed. The people within the charity expressed a genuine interest for the study and their willingness to support it, and gave their permission to access their data base. The co-operation started in April 2011 with a three-day visit at the charity’s offices in London.

On the other hand, sampling a rare population is a complex process that often requires many different contacts to identify the sample members (Kalton and Anderson, 1986). Due to the fact that ethical issues in research need even more serious consideration when vulnerable social groups are involved, such as unemployed parents, respondents were initially approached through their welfare agents. Welfare agents or referring agents are mainly health or social workers from a variety of organisations, who apply for holidays on behalf of the families and are the contact point between the charity and the families (see Minnaert, 2007; FHA, 2012). Although contacting families directly was a simpler and less time-consuming approach, it was not seen appropriate in ethical terms. As such, welfare agents played a crucial role in this study, by being the links between the researcher and family members. Access to their contact details was also permitted through the FHA, and since the beginning of the study a frequent contact was maintained with them, through email and over the phone in order to ensure the participation of the families they represented.

Specific sampling issues for the quantitative and qualitative phases are discussed analytically in the respective sections of this chapter. What must be mentioned at this point is that the sample of the qualitative phase was a subset of those individuals who participated in the full quantitative phase (completed both pre- and post-test questionnaires). This is a nested relationship of the quantitative and qualitative samples and consistent with the study's purpose to relate the two data sets (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007; Creswell and Plano Clark, 2011). In addition, the qualitative phase involved the presence of welfare agents, during the interviews, something that was not intentional but occurred due to ethical reasons (see §3.6.3). Their insight was deemed important and it was utilised during the data analysis. As such, there was an element of an additional multilevel relationship¹⁹ between the quantitative and qualitative samples.

3.3.3 Quality assurance

The study's credibility was ensured through a "prolonged engagement" in the field, regular meetings with people in the Family Holiday Association during the fieldwork, and the use of methodological and theoretical triangulation (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Patton, 2002). With regard to the quantitative phase of the study, measures that have been widely used in psychology studies, and have been found to be reliable, valid, and efficient within the contexts of SE and JSB, respectively, were chosen (Epel, Bandura, and Zimbardo, 1999; Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001; Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006; Hoepfner et al., 2011). With regard to the qualitative phase of the study, attention was paid to issues of transparency, subjectivity and reflexivity, and negative case analysis. The analytic process was explicitly articulated in order to become as clear as possible how research was undertaken and how data were transformed into results (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Gephart, 2004; Braun and Clarke, 2006). All the above processes ensured the study's trustworthiness (Morrow, 2005), while the utilisation of purposive sampling increased the likelihood of the results' transferability (Teddlie and Yu, 2007).

¹⁹ A multilevel relationship involves the use of two or more sets of samples that are extracted from different levels of the study (i.e. different populations) (see Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007, p. 292).

3.4 Ethical considerations

Ethics in social research revolve around such issues as “How should we treat the people on whom we conduct research?” (Bryman, 2008). Within the context of this study, ethical considerations had a fundamental role, not only with regard to this issue, but for several reasons. Firstly, the target population comprised a vulnerable social group; secondly, access to this group was feasible only through the database of the Family Holiday Association, which contained a plethora of personal and sensitive information about physical and mental health, alcohol and drug use, bereavement, abuse, and domestic violence; thirdly, both the surveys and the interview included questions about personal and sensitive issues; and fourthly, the mixed-method design of the study required additional ethical considerations for the qualitative phase of the research, such as the presence of welfare agents in face-to-face interviews, and the assignment of pseudonyms to the interviewees (e.g. Shildrick et al., 2012b). As such, it was acknowledged that while the main goal of each research project is to find credible answers to its questions, such answers are only acceptable if they ensure the well-being of the participants in the study (Darlington and Scott, 2002; Creswell, 2003). Consistent with this principle, the study conformed to the research ethics of the charity and the University of Nottingham, and the relevant social research guidelines (e.g. Heberlein and Baumgartner, 1978; Mertens, 1998; Bradburn et al., 2004; Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011; Brace, 2013). This entailed:

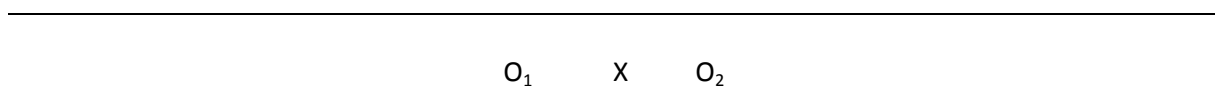
- Informing participants and welfare agents about the purpose, the content, the successive stages of the research, and the benefits from participation;
- Explaining in detail what was expected from the participants and how their responses would be used;
- Making explicit the voluntary nature of participation, their right not to answer particular questions, and their right to withdraw the study at any time and for no reason;
- Ensuring participants’ anonymity, and their right for privacy;
- Ensuring that any data identifying participants will remain confidential while the study is in progress, and that they will be destroyed after the study’s completion; and
- Asking participants for their signed informed consent.

Finally, and as it will become apparent throughout this chapter, ethical considerations, being an integral part of the study, guided and in some instances dictated decisions, especially those concerned with the data collection. This often resulted in complications, delays, and amendments in the data collection processes. Nevertheless, the study remained consistent in its ethical framework.

3.5 Quantitative study design

The quantitative phase of the study aimed to assess any effects on the SE beliefs and JSB of unemployed parents, following a holiday-break. As such, there was a need for a design that could test for changes in participants' SE and JSB, between two different time periods, before and after the holiday-break. For this purpose of measuring change pre-test post-test designs are widely used in behavioural research (Dimitrov and Rumrill, 2003). Among this type of designs, a one group pre-test-post-test non-experimental design was chosen. It is often characterised as a pre-experimental design (Campbell, 1957; Cohen et al. 2011) and is a frequently used design in the social sciences (Cook and Campbell, 1979) (see Figure 3.2). In non-experimental designs the investigator does not control that which he/she studies (does not assign individuals to conditions) but individuals may naturally fall into conditions (Spector, 1981, pp. 7-8). In addition, it is implemented in those situations where independent variables cannot be manipulated (Gelo et al., 2008).

Figure 3.2 One group pre-test-post-test non-experimental design



Source: Adopted from Campbell, D. T. (1957).

Note: O_1 = pre-test observation or measurement, X=exposure of a group to the experimental variable or event, O_2 = post-test observation or measurement

Within the context of this study, the investigator could not assign participants to conditions, and events or conditions could not have been manipulated by the investigator. Holiday-breaks had been offered to selected participants by the Family Holiday Association, and had already been arranged in terms of departure date, duration, destination and type of holiday. Apart from the fact that these characteristics were preset, they varied from family to family and could not have been controlled. In addition, events occurring during the holiday-break

could not have been controlled either. The holiday-break takes the form of an “intervention,” but in contrast to experimental research, it occurs in “real world” settings, and is not feasible to be modified. In fact, it is in the absence of “absolute control” where the power of real world research lies. Control implies an artificial setting, which “no matter how well it duplicates the real world of the individual, it cannot serve as a substitute of such a reality given that the person’s knowledge that it is not the actual setting immediately invalidates the integrity of any person-environment phenomenon being studied” (Proshansky, 1976, pp. 305-306). In addition, and as it is further discussed later in this chapter (see §3.5.6), in this non-experimental design, any control is exercised in the selection of cases to include in the study, which meet certain specified criteria (Spector, 1981). Another advantage of the single-group before-after design is in terms of equivalence (individuals who completed a measure before an intervention, are equivalent to those who completed it after) (Stangor, 2007). Moreover, the design often suggests issues worth further exploration (Cook and Campbell, 1979). Within the context of this research, further exploration occurs through the qualitative phase of the study.

On the other hand, this design has been criticised due to the absence of a control group (Spector, 1981). Pre-test post-test designs often include a no-treatment control group, which strengthens the experimental design and makes results interpretable (Robson, 2002). But the use of control group is meaningful “if each individual undergoing the reform [intervention] can be matched with an individual with the same matching variables who has not undergone the reform” (Blundell and Costa Dias, 2000, p. 429). Due to this requirement control or comparison groups often unavailable, especially in program evaluation studies, making the utilisation of this design the only feasible option (Spector, 1981). On the other hand, researchers often ignore the requirements that the appropriate use of a control group entails. This may have severe implications with regard to a study’s results, given that by misusing a control group “the counterfactual effect cannot be correctly measured” (Blundell and Costa Dias, 2000, p. 429). An indicative example from tourism research is a study conducted by Gilbert and Abdullah (2004) on holiday-taking and the sense of well-being. While the majority of the holiday-taking group (66.9%) belonged to the professional and upper middle class or middle class category, the majority of the non holiday-taking group

(48.6%) belonged to the working and lower class category²⁰. Furthermore, and despite the importance of a control group in studies that aim to evaluate an intervention, the use of a control group is not a panacea. Common time effects across all groups, for instance, cannot be controlled, and may cause difficulties with regard to the results' interpretation (see Blundell, Duncan, and Meghir, 1998).

Within this study's context, apart from the main matching variable (being unemployed), it was not possible to identify individuals who shared other important matching variables. More specifically, locating unemployed individuals for the control group would have been feasible only through the Job Centre in Nottingham, where the researcher was located. Recruiting individuals from different cities was not an option given the costly and time-consuming character of the study.²¹ As such, recruiting individuals from a specific city, and thus excluding people from other areas around the UK, was deemed problematic with regard to the generalisability of findings, given that the "experimental" group consisted of participants geographically distributed in different areas around the country. Moreover, individuals comprising the control group had to meet the specific requirements of the "experimental group" for any comparisons to be meaningful (see §3.5.6). Collecting this information meant that the researcher had to establish a co-operation with several Job Centres, similar to the co-operation established with the Family Holiday Association, in order to have access to their data base. This would have over complicated the research, given the different geographical locations, and the successive character of the data collection process. Such an approach required additional resources (e.g. multiple researchers, more time and money) which were not available in this project. The use of a control group would have been more feasible if the study was focusing on a different socioeconomic group, which could have been accessed directly.

²⁰ Only 14.1% of the holiday-takers belonged to the working and lower class category. In addition, from the 66.9% (upper middle and middle class professional) of the holiday-taking group, 31% belonged to the professional upper middle class category. In contrast, only 8% of the non holiday-taking group belonged to this category (see Gilbert and Abdullah, 2004, p. 110).

²¹ Frequent travelling from Nottingham to London to access the charity's data base; multi-mode and repeated character of data collection: pre- and post-holiday survey (cost of telephone calls and postage); travel expenses to conduct face-to-face qualitative interviews in different cities, cost to conduct some interviews over the phone.

Furthermore, the fact that the holiday-break did not occur at a single point in time made the use of a control-group problematic. Most experiments occur at a single point in time, which allows the researcher to have control over the planning and implementation stages of the experiment: recruiting both experimental and control groups at the same (or approximately the same) point in time before the experiment, and taking pre- and post-test measures of the two groups at the same (or approximately the same) point in time before and after the experiment, respectively. This was not feasible due to the successive holiday departure dates (August - October) of the experimental group, and the consequently successive recruitment of the participants.

On the other hand, and while acknowledging the limitations of the chosen design (e.g. history, maturation)²² (see Cook and Campbell, 1979), such limitations and potential threats mainly concern mono-method studies, and they can be minimised through the use of a mixed-methods approach. This said, the qualitative phase of the study was expected to provide information regarding the interpretation of quantitative results, thus, strengthening the quantitative design. This is in line with arguments that such designs in which control or comparison groups are unavailable can be of value as a part of a wider study (Spector, 1981; Robson, 2002). As Cook and Campbell (1979, p. 103) further argue, “such a design can produce knowledge, even when pretest-posttest intervals are long and the outcome variables are subject to multiple influences other than the treatment.” Furthermore, there are no particular problems with their use if their concern is to determine whether there is an increase of performance after a treatment or even to assess statistical significance (Robson, 2002).

Finally, and with regard to possible alternative designs, such as the one-group post-tests only design and the one-group time series design, these were rejected for the following reasons: the former due to the lack of a pre-test; the latter due to the fact that involves

²² History: during the time span between pre-test (O_1) and post-test (O_2) measurements, many events have occurred in addition to the experimental event (X), and the results might be attributed to these; Maturation: concerns effects which are systematic with the passage of time (e.g. respondents may have grown older) and these may have produced the difference between O_1 and O_2 , independently of X (see Campbell, 1959, p. 298; Spector, 1981, p. 29). On the other hand, such threats to internal validity also exist in nonrandomised control group pre- post-test designs (see Dimitrov and Rumrill, 2003).

measurement more than twice over a period of time. As such, and given the particular difficulties in accessing marginalised populations, and the semi-longitudinal character of the study, this design could have caused additional fatigue to participants, resulting in high attrition rates (Stangor, 2007). In addition, the main advantage of such a design, namely the number of measurements over time, was achieved through the qualitative phase of the study (third measurement).

3.5.1 Method of data collection and survey development

Quantitative data were collected through a survey, a choice that stemmed from the efficiency and prevalence of this data collection tool for learning about people and their behaviours (Bradburn and Sudman, 1979; Dillman, et al. 2009). With regard to the survey mode, participants were offered to choose between a self-administered mail and an online questionnaire. The self-administered mail survey has been seen as a prominent way of collecting data and more convenient for the respondents (Bryman, 2008). In addition, the online survey shares similar advantages with the mail survey (Brace, 2013); however, it must be stressed that within the context of the study it had a supplementary character²³. With regard to a telephone survey, this was not perceived as an appropriate option due to ethical reasons, as it required direct contact with the participants. On the other hand, the use of a telephone survey was reexamined due to the low-response rates one month after launching the survey. After further discussions and agreement with the charity a fully multi-mode strategy was adopted, including telephone surveys (see §3.5.3). In addition, the charity kindly offered a free holiday-break in 2012 for one family, provided that family members completed both surveys, an incentive that was expected to influence response rates positively (Yu and Cooper, 1983).

The main aim of the questionnaire's development was to be easy for the respondents to understand and complete. As Feilzer (2010, p. 11), for instance stresses, "The implicit expectation is that survey respondents comprehend the questions in the same way as the

²³ Respondents belonged to a socioeconomic group that was less likely to have internet access. Given that respondents were less familiar with internet technology (e.g. did not possess a computer, and did not have an email address), the aim of the online survey was to target those very few exceptions who had internet access and who preferred to complete an online survey. The survey was hosted on Zoomerang website, and participants were invited by a link sent through email to their welfare agents.

researcher does.” Any unclear terminology is likely to produce biased estimates, thus, affecting a study’s findings (Fowler, 1992). When respondents read ambiguous questions or do not understand a question, they make their own idiosyncratic interpretations, which causes random answering or answering systematically related to the surrounding questions (Sudman et al., 1996; Podsakoff et al., 2003). For this reason the questionnaire was kept simple and short, providing clear instructions and asking clear and short questions to eliminate any ambiguities (Brace, 2013).

The pre-holiday questionnaire had three attached documents, an information letter to the welfare agents, and an information letter and an informed consent form for the family members (see Appendix 1). Postage also included a freepost envelope (Yu and Cooper, 1983). The form of these documents was discussed and agreed with the Policy & Programme Manager of the charity. Letters to welfare agents and families, provided information regarding the researcher, the institutions involved in the study, the purpose, importance, and timeframe of the study, and what was needed on behalf of them. The Informed Consent form, presented in a simple way, the key ethical aspects of the research in order to ensure that every participant understood exactly what he/she was agreeing to before proceeding to sign the form. Particular attention was paid on assurances of confidentiality given the sensitivity of specific questions (e.g. about JSB). This was essential in order to minimise any respondents’ fears that data might be disclosed to third parties not involved in the study (see Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski, 2000). Hence, all these attachments were important as they could act as response facilitators (Heberlein and Baumgartner, 1978; Yu and Cooper, 1983, Brace, 2013).

The questionnaire consisted of four A4 pages (see Appendix 2). Questionnaires with an upper limit of four pages have been found to increase response rates (e.g. Yammarino, Skinner, and Childers, 1991). The first page had the logos of the FHA and Nottingham University’s Business School at the top in order to create trust concerning the credibility of the survey. A short introduction informed the participants about who was conducting the survey, and its topic. After the introduction participants were asked to provide their unique charity reference number (this number had been allocated from the FHA to each family that had applied for a holiday break). This number was essential as the main identifier and

enabled contact for the post-holiday survey. The main body of the questionnaire consisted of three sections: demographics, SE measures, and the JSB measure (see §3.5.2). In addition, at the end of the last page an open-ended question was added together with a brief statement. The question was asking participants “Is there anything else you would like to add?” aiming to get any additional more qualitative information. The statement thanked participants for completing the survey, informed them to submit the form to their welfare agent and reminded them that if they did so and completed the post-holiday survey, they would enter a prize draw for a free short break in 2012. This is a common questionnaire sequence, according to which, the researcher commences with unthreatening factual questions, moves to closed questions, and then to more open-ended questions (Cohen et al., 2011; Brace, 2013).

The post-holiday questionnaire had two attached documents: one was a thank you letter for the welfare agents, and one for the families who completed the pre-holiday questionnaire (see Appendix 3). A brief introduction on the first page of the questionnaire thanked respondents once more for completing the pre-holiday questionnaire, and stressed the significance of their participation. Their unique charity reference number was also asked in order to match the scores with those from the pre-holiday questionnaire. The only demographic question asked was about gender. Given that each family had one reference number and in some families both adults replied, gender was another necessary identifier of the particular respondent. The questionnaire was kept shorter as it did not require any other demographic information (see Appendix 4). The main body of the questionnaire was identical to the pre-holiday questionnaire, but at the end, two open-ended questions were added. The first - asked: “Has the holiday affected your motivation to search for paid work? If yes, how?” aiming to find out if the holiday experience had any potential impact on JSB, and to understand this impact. This question did not have any theoretical background, and is akin to Feyerabend’s (2010[1975]) argument about the potential usefulness of this type of questions in inquiry. The second question asked: “Did the holiday affect the way you see yourself as a person? If yes, in what ways?” Given that self-esteem has been found to be positively affected by holiday-taking (e.g. Minnaert, 2007; Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009) and that the central component of self-esteem is self-confidence (Rosenberg 1979 cited in Rosenberg et al., 1995), this question aims to identify any linkages between the

holiday-break and self-confidence. Moreover, both questions had the general aim to capture information that could potentially facilitate the integration of data obtained from the surveys and semi-structured interviews, respectively, during the mixing stage of the different data sets.

In order to check the appropriateness of the questionnaire and the attached documents in the specific context of this study, a pre-test was conducted at the end of July 2011. Pre-testing is an essential process in order to identify questions that are ambiguous or difficult for respondents to understand, and to gain feedback about structural aspects of the questionnaire (e.g. instructions, layout, attractiveness, length, questions' format and so forth) (Reynolds and Diamantopoulos, 1998; Krosnick, 1999; Cohen, Manion, and Morrison, 2011). The questionnaire was pre-tested among both experts and non-experts, namely, two welfare agents, who co-operated with the charity, an academic with expertise in social tourism for low-income families, and a factory worker, who shared similar demographic characteristics with the research sample and had experienced frequent spells of unemployment. The choice of participants was based on the need for experts' input, as they were more likely to identify errors in the questionnaire (Diamantopoulos et al., 1994), and simultaneously on the premise that the pre-test should use respondents similar to those of the target population to screen items for appropriateness (Hair et al., 2010, p. 655). The welfare agents in particular, combined expertise on the topic and shared characteristics with the low-income families (e.g. they were integral parts of their communities). With regard to the method used to conduct the pre-test this was a mixture of telephone and face-to-face surveys. It has been found that such a personal approach to pre-testing is more likely to result in errors being detected than the impersonal administration (Reynolds and Diamantopoulos, 1998).

While the questionnaire was developed carefully in order to eliminate ambiguities and to be easy for respondents to complete, the pre-test results showed that issues with regard to wording and layout existed. More specifically, there was a consensus among all the participants in the pre-test survey that the wording in specific questions might be difficult for the target population to understand. The same issue arose with regard to the attached documents. As such, the language was carefully amended and kept as simple and

straightforward as possible (Clark and Watson, 1995). Furthermore, one of the experts argued that many questions about SE in a sequence, could possibly cause fatigue to participants due to their sensitive character, and suggested to mix the NGSE scale's items with a few filler items (general, neutral, and very easy to answer items) (Scheier and Carver, 1985; Scheier, Carver and Bridges, 1994). By adding these items the questionnaire would appear less difficult to complete.

Finally, it was suggested that the questionnaire had to be more tailored to the characteristics of the sample and, thus, it needed developments in its layout in order to draw the attention of the participants. According to Cohen et al. (2011, p. 398), "this is not only a matter of appeal to the respondents, but, perhaps, more significantly, is a matter of accessibility of the questionnaire to the respondents, i.e. a matter of reliability and validity." Given that the willingness of people to complete a questionnaire, to a large extent, depends on whether they find it interesting, colours and images were expected to contribute positively into this direction, by making the questionnaire attractive (Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski, 2000; Brace, 2013). For this reason, images were attached on the final form of the questionnaire, with one relevant image next to each question, as well as on the attached documents. After the proposed amendments were implemented, a second pre-test was conducted a week later with the same participants, which resulted in no further recommendations.

With regard to a pilot study, this was not conducted due to two interrelated reasons. Firstly, the target population was small (unemployed individuals who go on a holiday-break through social tourism initiatives), and particularly difficult and complex to identify, which resulted in a time-consuming process. Considering that access to the database of the charity required frequent travelling from Nottingham to London, the time the researcher needed to get familiar with a new software, the large volume of applications, their rich information and the sensitivity of personal data included, as well as the specific work and ethical procedures of the organisation, the shortlisting of application forms needed more time than it was expected. Moreover, the usage of and access to someone else's data base, implies that the researcher cannot act independently (Hunter-Jones, 2005). Therefore, issues regarding what information can be collected, how this information will be used and what particular

methodological approaches are appropriate within the context of the project, were subject to scrutiny by key people in the charity. As such, between April and October 2011 a constant communication either with the form of face-to-face meetings and conference calls or emails and brief telephone calls, ensured the consensus concerning the issues stated above. For such reasons of time constraints, it was deemed risky to reduce the main data collection activities in order to conduct a pilot study.

Secondly, and although the procedures discussed above were essential and unavoidable, they resulted in delays. The pre-test was conducted relatively close to the participants' holiday departure dates, thus, not allowing sufficient amount of time for a pilot study. An alternative option would have been to conduct a small pilot study among university students, who could be easily accessible; although widely used, such an option cannot really achieve the objectives of a pilot study (see Dillman et al., 2009, p. 221). A pilot study is meaningful when it is conducted among respondents drawn from the population under study, and this would require locating a group of unemployed individuals (Foddy, 1993). On the other hand, and while acknowledging the significance of a properly conducted pilot study, especially when new or self-developed measures are to be used, as it contributes to the validity and reliability of these measures (Brace, 2008), a plethora of surveys today appear to be implemented without the conduct of pilot studies (Dillman et al., 2009). In addition, the scales used to measure SE and JSB were adopted from earlier psychology and unemployment studies, a choice that could allow the researcher to converse across studies (Teddle and Tashakkori, 2009). Considering the use of existing measures, and the conduct of pre-tests, the absence of a pilot study was not expected to affect the survey's validity and reliability. In addition, and given the relatively small total sample, the pre-test served as a proxy for a pilot study.

3.5.2 Measures

3.5.2.1 General self-efficacy

The major construct in the study, General Self Efficacy (GSE) was measured using a revised version of the 8-item New General Self Efficacy (NGSE) scale developed by Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) (see Table 3.1). The NGSE scale is the newest of the three most frequent measures of GSE (see Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006). The other two measures

are: Sherer et al.'s (1982) General Self-Efficacy Scale, and Schwarzer's and Jerusalem's (1995) General Perceived Self-Efficacy Scale. The choice of the NGSE scale stemmed from its superiority when compared to the two other measures. More specifically, Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) compared its psychometric properties and validity to that of Sherer et al. (SGSE) and found that the NGSE scale has higher construct validity. In addition, and although shorter than the SGSE scale, the NGSE scale demonstrated high reliability, and predicted specific self-efficacy (SSE) for a variety of tasks in various contexts. Similar results were presented in a more recent comparison of all the three GSE measures, conducted by Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern (2006). Utilising item response theory analyses, a modern psychometric technique, Scherbaum et al. confirmed the high construct validity of the NGSE measure (items were found to be consistently related to GSE), and its higher efficiency than the two other scales, as it provided equivalent information about GSE with fewer items. Moreover, the NGSE scale did not include reverse rated items (e.g. SGSE included 11 reverse rated items), thus, eliminating any ambiguities, and making it easier for participants to complete (Bryman, 2004). The scale had been also found to work best for individuals with average or low below average GSE levels (Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006), and this was perceived as advantageous, given the sociodemographic characteristics of the sample, according to which, unemployed participants were more likely to report relatively low levels of GSE (see Sherer et al., 1982).

The scale is a five-point Likert scale with 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree' as anchors. This choice follows Hair et al.'s (2010, p. 7) suggestion that the researcher should use a scale format according to the respondents' ability to give accurate responses (e.g. not imposing a 7-point scale when he/she knows that the respondents can accurately respond only to a 3-point rating). As such, and given that: most people are unable to make the required distinctions beyond a specific number of response options (Miller, 1956); the optimum number of alternatives is between four and seven (Schwarz et al., 1991; Lozano, Garcia-Cueto, and Muniz, 2008) with the upper practical limit of useful levels usually set at seven (see Streiner and Norman, 2008)²⁴; and the particular characteristics of the sample in

²⁴ The optimal number of response alternatives depends of the specific circumstances of a study. As such, there is no single number of response alternatives for a scale, which is appropriate under all circumstances (Cox, 1980, p. 418).

question (e.g. financially and psychologically pressurised) (see Hawthorne et al., 2006; Lozano, Garcia-Cueto, and Muniz, 2008), a five-point scale was considered as the most appropriate option in terms of minimising the possibilities of measurement error. Such format could protect from random and imprecise responding, thus preserving the validity of the scores (see Clark and Watson, 1995; Hair et al., 2010). While in survey research the emphasis is usually on the reliability of a scale (e.g. response formats with seven or more categories and/or scales with large number of items are preferred), and not so much on whether the chosen response format, for instance, encourages or not response error (Cox, 1980; Lozano, Garcia-Cueto, and Muniz, 2008), in this study, any small reduction in the reliability that accompanies formats with less response options was deemed preferable than any threats to validity (Cronbach, 1950, Cox, 1980).

With regard to the items, and as mentioned earlier in this chapter, the original NGSE scale was revised due to issues of wording, and concerns about some sensitive questions, which came up during the pre-testing. Modifications in wording concerned amendments from formal to more everyday language and did not affect the meaning of the items (Brace, 2013). Concerns about sensitive questions that could cause fatigue to participants led to the use of 'easy to answer' embedded items. This choice was also perceived as a potential remedy with regard to response consistencies, one of the threats to a survey's validity (Harrison and McLaughlin, 1993). Such consistencies occur as a result of the context of a specific item (e.g. prior items), which can influence how respondents interpret²⁵ this item and, consequently, the answer given to it (Schuman and Presser, 1981; Tourangeau, Rasinski, and Bradburn, 1989). Context effects are more likely to occur when related questions are placed relatively close to each other (Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski, 2000), and among people with lower educational attainments (Krosnick and Alwin, 1987; Narayan and Krosnick, 1996). Such effects refer to limitations of conventional measurement which cause responses that have little or nothing to do with the construct one intends to measure, thus, having strong implications for construct validity (Harrison and McLaughlin, 1993, p. 129). It has been argued that a potential solution or prevention from such effects is to separate the related items (e.g. Schuman and Presser, 1981). This said, embedded items

²⁵ This is akin to question-order effects, which mainly involve transfers of meaning from one question to another (see Shuman and Presser, 1981, pp. 57-58)

could break the series of a scale's items and any consistency in responses, such as carryover effects (Tourangeau, Rasinski, and Bradburn, 1989). As such, four more items were added in the NGSE scale and were mixed with the existing items (see Table 3.1). In addition, the JFSE single-item was also embedded in the NGSE scale for reasons explained in the next section (see §3.5.2.2). With regard to any impact of this choice on the scores of the NGSE scale, it was expected that the JFSE item would play a role similar to the other four embedded items, thus, assisting in the reduction of any potential context effects within the NGSE scale as well. These additional items were removed at the data analysis stage.

Table 3.1 New General Self-Efficacy Scale

Original	Revised
1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself. 2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them. 3. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me. 4. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavour to which I set my mind. 5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges. 6. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks. 7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well. 8. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.	<i>I can do well in some activities (e.g. sports)</i> 1. I will be able to achieve a goal that I have set <i>I can do well in some household tasks (e.g. cooking)</i> 2. When facing a difficult task, I am certain that I can do it 3. I can achieve outcomes that are important to me <i>I can help my friends when they need my help</i> 4. I can succeed at most things to which I set my mind to 5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges <i>I can be there for my family</i> 6. I can perform well on many different tasks 7. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well <hr/> I can find paid work if I want to <hr/> 8. When things are tough, I can perform quite well

Source: Chen, G., Gully, S. M. and Eden, D. (2001)

Note: In italics are the embedded items. In bold between the dotted lines is the single-item JFSE measure.

On the other hand, it was acknowledged that embedded items on unrelated topics cannot guarantee any disruption of context or sequence (Schuman and Presser, 1981; Bishop, 1987). In addition, the fact that all embedded items with the exception of the JFSE item, were easy and simple, and thus more likely to result in responses with high scores, could, in turn, boost responses in the NGSE scale's items. Despite this possibility and the complications that embedded items could potentially cause during the statistical analysis stage, it was deemed preferable to attempt to deal with context and order effects. As

Schuman and Presser (1981, p. 74) point out, proceeding according to convenient assumptions (e.g. treating such effects as nonexistent or a trivial matter) is a process that must be challenged in survey research. The potential threat of order effects was tested and results showed that the scores of NGSE items were significantly lower compared to the scores of their preceding embedded items (see Appendix 5). On the other hand, and with regard to other proposed solutions to deal with response consistencies, such as reverse-worded or reverse-scored items, these were rejected as they had the risk of to create a source of method bias by increasing ambiguity and complexity (Podsakoff et al., 2003).

3.5.2.2 Job-finding self-efficacy

Job-finding self-efficacy (JFSE) was measured with the single-item “I can find paid work if I want to” and a five-point response format with ‘strongly disagree’ to ‘strongly agree’ as anchors. The item is conceptually based on SE for employment or reemployment efficacy²⁶ (see Epel, Bandura, and Zimbardo, 1999; Wanberg, Zhu, and van Hooft, 2010). As mentioned earlier in this chapter, during the pre-test it was suggested that this item, due to its intrusive character would be best embedded in the NGSE scale (see Table 3.1). Implications of this choice are presented and discussed later in this section. The choice of a single-item measure stemmed from two reasons. Firstly, one’s belief in his/her capability to find work could be captured with one question (e.g. Epel, Bandura, and Zimbardo, 1999). Within a different sociodemographic group (e.g. people previously in professional or managerial occupations), where the interest would have been not only in JFSE *per se*, but also in the person’s confidence to find a well-paid job, and/or a job that one’s like and so forth, the use of more items would have been necessary (e.g. Wanberg, Zhu, and van Hooft, 2010). However, within the context of this research, and given the sociodemographic characteristics of the population under study (e.g. less likely to have professional/managerial background and more likely to have a blue-collar work experience, residents of deprived areas with particularly high unemployment rates), the interest was on JFSE *per se*. Such populations do not usually have the privilege to expect that they can find interesting and well-paid jobs. Finding a job or any job is usually what meets or exceeds their expectations. Secondly, JFSE was not the key construct of interest. Given that holiday-taking and JFSE are two concepts

²⁶ “How confident are you that you can find a job in 1 year?” or “How confident are you that you can find a job if you look?”

with no existing links between each other (e.g. going on a holiday-break does not have any relevance with one's belief in his/her capabilities to find a job) JFSE was used as a potential linkage between GSE and JSB. This said what was aimed through the use of JFSE was a "snapshot" of the topic rather than a comprehensive coverage (see Bowling, 2005, p. 342). As such, and under these circumstances, a single-item measure was considered as an appropriate choice.

Single-item measures or global items have long been used in surveys to measure health status, self-esteem and quality of life (e.g. Warr and Jackson, 1985; Bowling, 2005), as well as job-search efficacy and job-search intention (e.g. Wanberg et al., 2005). Robins et al. (2001, p. 151), for instance, presented evidence, that the Single-Item Self-Esteem Scale (SISE) ("I have high self-esteem") can serve as a useful proxy for the Rosenberg 10-item Self-Esteem Scale (RSE) in a variety of research contexts. Overall, the findings supported the reliability and validity of the SISE and suggested that it can provide a practical alternative to the RSE in adult samples. De Boer et al. (2004) found that a single-item scale measuring quality of life is an instrument with good validity and reliability, and they recommended its use in clinical trials to assess global quality of life. Within a marketing context, Bergkvist and Rossiter (2007) compared the predictive validity of single-item and multiple-item measures of attitude toward the advert and attitude toward the brand and found no difference in the predictive validity of the multiple-item and single item measures. With regard to single-item SE, findings are conflicting. Lee and Bobko, (1994), for instance, compared five ways of operationalising SE that are commonly found in the literature, and recommended that researchers refrain from using single-item measures of confidence as indexes of SE. However, although single measures of SE may have lower test-retest reliability than multiple item measures, they can have high convergent validity and higher predictive validity (Lewen and Maurer, 2002 cited in Wanberg et al., 2005, p. 412). Similarly, in a recent study, Hoepfner et al. (2011) demonstrated that the use of a single-item measure of SE was not inferior to multiple-item measures, but, in fact, it showed superior predictive validity.

These findings, though, do not imply that single-items are better than multi-item measures. It has been acknowledged that "multiple responses reflect the *true* response more accurately than does a single response" (Hair et al., 2010, p. 8). However, and as it has been

mentioned earlier, the specific concept of interest could be captured with one item within the specific context of the study. In addition, researchers use single-item measures when the group of interest is frail or vulnerable, and they wish to minimise the burden on the individuals (In such circumstances, single questions are advantageous as they are less demanding for respondents) (see Bowling, 2005, p. 342). This was particularly relevant to this research, given both the population under study (unemployed individuals), and its longitudinal character, which was quite demanding for the participants (Robins et al., 2001).

Finally, and as mentioned earlier in this chapter, the JFSE single-item was also embedded in the NGSE scale. The item was closely related to the subsequent JSB scale (it was not only concerned with one's belief in his/her capability to find work, but also with his/her willingness to do so), hence, both were particularly sensitive given the public opinion about the attitudes of unemployed people towards paid work (see previous chapter). This issue is akin both to how closely two constructs are related, and to social desirability (see Bradburn et al., 1978; Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski, 2000). It has been noted, that "items or constructs on a questionnaire that possess more (as opposed to less) social desirability may be observed to relate more (or less to each other as much because of their social desirability as they do because of the underlying constructs that they are intended to measure" (Podsakoff et al., 2003, p. 883). As such, not placing JFSE and JSB constructs closely to each other was considered as means to reduce participants' fatigue with regard to threatening questions, and any potential context effects (see earlier discussion). The assessment of order effects showed that the embedded JFSE item was not affected by the NGSE scales' items (see Appendix 5).

3.5.2.3 Job-search behaviour

JSB was measured using the Job-Seeking Activity (JSA) Scale developed at the Finnish Institute of Occupational Health by Vuori and Tervahartiala²⁷ (see Vuori and Vesalainen, 1999). The choice stemmed from two reasons: a) it condensed all the core items that can be found in other widely used scales, and b) it was particularly developed for use among unemployed individuals. These core items reflect mainstream job-seeking patterns which

²⁷ The original publication is in Finnish. Information about the scale can be traced in a paper written by Vuori, one of the scale's co-developers (see Vuori and Vesalainen, 1999).

apply to any unemployed individual and are also included in the two most widely used job-search measures, namely, The Job Search Behaviour Index (JSBI) (see Kopelman et al., 1992), and the Job-search behaviour scale (see Blau, 1993, 1994). These two scales were initially considered as possible options, but were rejected due to the fact that they were first developed for use among employed people (both), and graduate students (the former), thus, also including questions irrelevant to the unemployed. In addition, these scales were first used among middle-class individuals, thus, including items that did not apply to the working class or to marginalised populations with different sociodemographic characteristics (e.g. not possessing educational qualifications, and with rather blue collar- than white-collar past work experience).

The original JSA scale was a 7-item measure, which was slightly amended due to issues of wording (see Table 3.2). The scale had an introductory question “Have you been searching for a job during the past month?” with a dichotomous response format ‘yes’ or ‘no’. After the pre-testing, the question was slightly amended to “Have you been searching for a paid job during the past month?” This was due to the ambiguity with regard to what constitutes ‘job’ or ‘work’ (e.g. unpaid, charitable, paid) (see Brace, 2013). Those who answered ‘yes’, were further asked how frequently during the past month had they been engaged in five job-seeking activities (items 1-5). In item two, the word ‘internet’ was added as the web has become a very common place to search for vacancies, an amendment that has been also made in more recent psychology studies on unemployment (e.g. Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999; Vansteenkiste et al., 2004; Wanberg et al., 2005). Item six, which asks about the number of job applications²⁸, was not included, due to the great North-South disparities, in terms of job vacancies (see Baker and Billinge, 2004; Dorling, 2011). Although the number of applications depends on the individual’s effort, it also depends, to a large extent, on the job market. As such, and irrespectively of individuals’ initiation of effort, participants from North England, Yorkshire and the Humber, and Midlands, had much less job vacancies to apply for than participants from London and South England. Indicative of such disparities is the employment growth between the North and the South (Martin, 2004). For instance, in

²⁸ In Finland of the 1990’s, where and when the job-seeking activity (JSA) scale was developed, regional disparities had been much smaller than in the UK today (see Kangasharju, 2000, p. 360). Furthermore, in several studies upon JSB where this item is also used, participants are located in the same area (e.g. Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999; Vinokur and Schul, 2002).

the year to March 2010, 2,000 more jobs were created in Yorkshire and the Humber, and 70,000 more in London (for every new position in Yorkshire and the Humber, there were thirty-five in London) (ONS, 2010). Even greater imbalances were reported three years later, with 148,000 more job openings in London and South England, and 58,000 less in North England, Yorkshire and the Humber, and Midlands (ONS, 2013).

Table 3.2 Job-search behaviour scale

Original scale	Revised scale
<p>Have you been searching for a job during the past month? (yes/no) Those who answered 'yes' were further asked:</p> <p>1) Have you been looking for vacancies at the local employment office? 2) Have you been following newspaper advertisements of vacancies? 3) Have you contacted employers without 'official' advertisements of vacancies? 4) Have you been asking friends and neighbours for job opportunities? 5) Have you been looking for vacancies in other than your previous profession? 6) For how many vacancies have you applied for during the past month?</p>	<p>Have you been searching for a paid job during the past month? (yes/no) Those who answered 'yes' were further asked:</p> <p>1) Have you been looking for job in the job centre? 2) Have you been looking for a job in the newspapers or on the internet? 3) Have you contacted employers directly (e.g. door to door, by telephone)? 4) Have you been asking family, friends or neighbours for job opportunities? 5) Have you been looking for a job in a different sector than before?</p>

Source: Vuori, J. and Vesalainen, J. (1999)

The scale's items were rated on a 4-point response format: 1 = not at all, 2 = once or twice during the month, 3 = weekly, and 4 = daily. Given that answers to questions about frequency are particularly vulnerable to errors (e.g. forgetting) (Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski, 2000), this response format had two important advantages. Firstly, it was offering few options, and secondly these options were clearly distinguishable (adjacent categories had an adequate distance between each other). As a result, it did not require respondents to enumerate any large numbers, and/or to put much cognitive effort while processing the available response options (Krosnick and Alwin, 1987; Brace, 2013). This said the chosen format was more likely to minimise estimates based on guessing²⁹ or/and affected by

²⁹Most questions about behavioural frequencies are likely to involve guessing, because records of the frequency of the given behaviours are usually not available and respondents provide an estimate rather than an exact report (see Schwarz et al., 1985, p. 389).

respondents' fatigue³⁰, thus maximising the likelihood to produce answers as close as possible to their true job-searching intensity (see Schwarz et al., 1985; Blair and Barton, 1987). In contrast, other popular formats used in jobs search behaviour studies (e.g. Blau's, 1993) were rejected for offering adjacent categories that were difficult to be distinguished reliably by the respondents (Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski, 2000). In Blau's response format (see next paragraph) a person who looked for work nine times during the past month, for instance, would have been reported precisely his/her job-seeking intensity, while another individual would have rounded it up to ten times, thus, causing loss of accuracy (see Brace, 2013, p. 86).

Moreover, the intervals were large enough (zero to once/twice during the month, once/twice during the month to every week, and every week to every day) to depict important changes in one's job-search intensity. In contrast, other widely used formats, such as Blau's (1993) response format, for instance, [5-point scale where 1 = never, 2 = rarely (1 or 2 times), 3 = occasionally (3 to 5 times), 4 = frequently (6 to 9 times), and 5 = very frequently (at least 10 times)], were considered as risky in terms of producing misleading results (e.g. fluctuations in job-seeking frequency from 3-5 times to 6-9 times or changes from 6-9 times to at least 10 times reflect relatively small real changes in terms of intensity, than changes from 1-2 times per month to every week or from every-week to every day). With regard to other possible formats, such as dichotomous (e.g. Kopelman, Rovenpor, and Millsap, 1992), or open-ended, these were rejected; the former due to the fact that, formats with too few options may fail to discriminate between respondents with different underlying judgements, and the latter due to its susceptibility to rounding (see Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski, 2000, p. 249, pp. 232-233).

Unlike most survey research that has paid little attention to the mental and cognitive processes that take place when people answer survey questions, and emphasises response accuracy (see Blair and Barton, 1987; Bradburn, Rips, and Shevell, 1987), while ignoring that

³⁰ When respondents are asked to provide an increasing number of events, the time and effort required for enumeration increases, and respondents either become unwilling to enumerate or cannot do so as such effort exceeds their capacity (see Blair and Barton, 1987; Bradburn, Rips, and Shevell, 1987). From this difficulty that respondents face due to many alternatives, usually context effects arise, such as response-order effects (see Schuman and Presser, 1981) and satisfying (some respondents simply provide a satisfactory answer instead) (see Krosnick, 1991).

accuracy requires serious consideration of such processes, this study followed a different path. Of course, no path is without disadvantages. The unequal intervals of the scale have implications with regard to the statistical analysis, as they do not allow for the use of parametric tests (Stevens, 1946). This said an alternative option would have been to use a response format with equal intervals, but such an option was not possible given that job seeking intensity calls for ordinal measurement to produce meaningful results. This said on ordinal scales, the difference between 0 and 1 or 0 and 10 cannot be assumed equal to the difference between 1 and 2 or 10 and 20 respectively (see Stucki et al., 1996). In several studies though, upon job seeking intensity, parametric tests are used with similar ordinal scales of unequal intervals (e.g. Blau, 1993; Caska, 1998; Vansteenkiste et al., 2005).

3.5.2.4 Reliability Analysis

Due to the fact that “measured variables certainly contain some chance fluctuations in measurement, known as random error,” checking the reliability of a measure is necessary in order to find out “the extent to which it is free from random error” (Stangor, 2007, pp. 86-88). For the GSE scale reliability (embedded items were not calculated) was high with coefficient alphas of .87 in T1 and .92 in T2. In studies conducted by Chen et al. (2001) among different samples in two time periods, alpha coefficients were equivalent varying between .86 and .90 (sample of 323 undergraduates), and .85 and .88 (sample of 54 managers). For the single-item JFSE measure, the pre-test post-test Pearson’s correlation coefficient was used as a measure of test-retest reliability (Leech, Barrett, and Morgan, 2005). Although the correlation was significant at the $p < .01$ level, the score $r(57) = .46$ did not indicate a very high test-retest reliability, something that is rather common in single-item measures (see §3.5.2.2). With regard to JS the resulting Cohen’s Kappa of .58 ($p < .000$) was slightly lower than the usual limit of .70, which indicates high reliability. Finally, Kendall’s tau correlation used for the JSA was relatively high (.64 at the $p < .01$).

3.5.2.5 Background variables

Demographic and background variables were assessed through standard survey questions. Participants were asked to report their age, gender, unemployment length, educational level, and previous occupation. All variables have been widely used in psychology studies on unemployment and are seen as potentially important in SE and JSB (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3 Sources of demographic variables

Variables	Studies
Age	Kafner, R. and Hulin, C. L. (1985); Caplan, R. D., Vinokur, A. D., Price, R. H. and van Ryn, M. (1989); Eden, D. and Aviram, A. (1993); Epel, E. S., Bandura, A. and Zimbardo, P. G. (1999); Wanberg, C.R., Kanfer, R., and Rotundo, M. (1999); Vinokur, A. D., Schul, Y., Vuori, J. and Price, R. H. (2000); Wanberg, C.R., Glomb, T. M., Song, Z. And Sorenson, S. (2005); Wanberg, C. R., Zhu, J., and van Hooft, E.A.J. (2010).
Gender	Caplan, R. D., Vinokur, A. D., Price, R. H. and van Ryn, M. (1989); Eden, D. and Aviram, A. (1993); Wanberg, C.R., Kanfer, R., and Rotundo, M. (1999); Vinokur, A. D., Schul, Y., Vuori, J. and Price, R. H. (2000); Wanberg, C.R., Glomb, T. M., Song, Z. And Sorenson, S. (2005); Wanberg, C. R., Zhu, J., and van Hooft, E.A.J. (2010).
Unemployment length	Eden, D. and Aviram, A. (1993); Wanberg, C.R., Kanfer, R., and Rotundo, M. (1999); Wanberg, C.R., Glomb, T. M., Song, Z. And Sorenson, S. (2005); Wanberg, C. R., Zhu, J., and van Hooft, E.A.J. (2010).
Educational level	Kafner, R. and Hulin, C. L. (1985); Caplan, R. D., Vinokur, A. D., Price, R. H. and van Ryn, M. (1989); Epel, E. S., Bandura, A. and Zimbardo, P. G. (1999); Wanberg, C.R., Kanfer, R., and Rotundo, M. (1999); Vinokur, A. D., Schul, Y., Vuori, J. and Price, R. H. (2000); Wanberg, C.R., Glomb, T. M., Song, Z. And Sorenson, S. (2005); Wanberg, C. R., Zhu, J., and van Hooft, E.A.J. (2010).
Previous occupation	Caplan, R. D., Vinokur, A. D., Price, R. H. and van Ryn, M. (1989); Epel, E. S., Bandura, A. and Zimbardo, P. G. (1999); Wanberg, C.R., Glomb, T. M., Song, Z. And Sorenson, S. (2005).

In addition, information about one's restrictions to work and area of residence were also collected. 'Restrictions to work' does not appear in the table of demographic variables; it concerns situational factors, that might limit individuals' job-search efforts and it has been assessed as a separate construct, in several studies (e.g. Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999). Participants had to answer which of the following factors restricted them from work: caring responsibilities, ill health, location, study, or other (Presser and Baldwin, 1980; Brooks and Buckner, 1996; Kimmel, 1998; Jenkins and Symons, 2001). Information about participants' region of residence was collected not for statistical analyses, but rather to get a general picture of the sample that would allow for any comparisons with the UK unemployed population. Finally, although marital status is another variable widely used in unemployment studies (e.g. Caplan et al., 1989; Vinokur et al., 2000), it was not included in the study. Information about marital status, such as being a single parent, could link one's unavailability to work with the caring responsibilities that a single parent has. But such information was obtained by the question 'Restrictions to work' without asking directly another sensitive question.

3.5.3 Pre-holiday survey

In total 184 application forms had been short listed, representing 263 individuals. The holiday departures of families were successive throughout summer-autumn 2011, and for this reason, contacts were made in different time periods, varying from mid-summer to mid-autumn 2011. All initial contacts were made approximately one month before each family's departure through email and by post. A self-administered pre-holiday questionnaire was sent to the welfare agents. Their role was crucial as they had to inform families about the study, to forward the surveys to families willing to participate and often to contact them several times in order to remind them to complete the survey. As a result, the control of the researcher upon the completion of the survey in general, and the timing of completion in particular, were limited to frequent reminders to the welfare agents.

The time when a participant completes a survey is extremely important and especially so in pre- post-test designs (Stephan and McCarthy, 1958). It has been suggested, the pre-test to be conducted as close to the start of the intervention as possible, to avoid the influence of confounding effects between the pre-test and the start of the intervention (Cohen et al., 2011). A common timing for the pre-test in studies on SE and JSB is two weeks before the intervention (see Caplan et al., 1989; Vinokur et al. 1991; Vinokur et al. 2000). However, the appropriateness of a time interval is relative to the specific characteristics of a study. In existing studies participants were contacted directly, and the intervention occurred at a single time-point. In this study, on the other hand, participants were not contacted directly, and the intervention did not occur at a single time-point (the successive holiday departure dates during the summer, required that the surveys had to be sent in different time-points). With regard to the former, it could not be known (estimated) when participants would receive the surveys. This would depend on when their welfare agents forwarded the surveys to them. This said, it was certain that an additional amount of time was necessary for the welfare agents to forward the questionnaire to the participants. With regard to the latter, in some cases, surveys had to be sent to the same welfare agents who represented different families, going on a holiday-break on different dates. Considering that the welfare agents were busy, and the possibility of fatigue caused by receiving successive surveys for different families, it was assumed that the delivery of the questionnaire on time would probably not be their first priority, and that it would take in total at least a week for the participants to

receive the surveys. As such, a two-week time interval was deemed as not feasible, entailing high risk of missing many participants. Therefore, surveys were sent to the welfare agents, four weeks before the holiday-break. Given any delays, explained above, the four-week would be roughly equivalent to a real time interval of two weeks. Then the completion of the questionnaire would depend only on participants' available time and willingness to fill in the questionnaires.

In addition, the four-week time-frame aimed to secure that in cases where welfare agents and participants respectively, had not replied, there was still enough time to chase responses (send reminders). This is what actually happened as there were delays with regard to the delivery of surveys to participants. Moreover, and according to many welfare agents, there were also delays on behalf of the participants after they received the surveys. For this reason email reminders were sent both to welfare agents who did not reply, and to those who said that they had sent the survey to the families but had not got it back, one week after the initial contact and one week before the family's departure date. However, and in many cases, there was a more frequent chasing for responses, including telephone calls, until the day before the holiday departure. In actuality, and although this did not occur intentionally, the majority of replies were received within a week before the holiday break.

By mid-September 2011, and despite the intense chasing for responses, the response rate of received surveys was low, with many families departed already on holiday without completing the questionnaire. Given that accessibility is also relative to time (Stephan and McCarthy, 1958), the reliance on the welfare agents due to ethical reasons seemed problematic, at a time when there was a need for instant access to participants due to their upcoming departure dates. This is one of the disadvantages of using institutional lists as "the increased emphasis on privacy and informed consent frequently results in denial of access" (Rothbart et al., 1982, p. 409) or in too late access. For this reason, a conference call with key contacts in the charity was set to discuss this issue. Despite the ethical reasons during the planning stage of the research fieldwork, which had dictated access to participants only through their welfare agents, a more flexible approach was agreed. This allowed the researcher to contact directly (over the phone) those families that could not be reached through their welfare agents. This approach had the additional advantage to reach

people who were inaccessible via a single survey-mode, and to allow collecting data from less motivated sample members (see Fowler, 2009). With regard to any multi-mode effects, these were tested and results showed that data collected with different survey modes can be pooled together (see Appendix 6).

3.5.4 The holiday-break

Participants and their families went on holidays on different dates within the period between August-October 2011. Most of the holiday-breaks were caravan-type of holidays. The duration of the holiday-break varied between three, four and seven nights. Two-thirds of the participants (70.2%) had a short-break between three and four nights, while the rest one-third (29.8%), had a longer holiday. The destination also varied and included areas, such as Golden Sands, Seashore, Thorpe Park, Devon Cliffs, and Butlins-Skegness, among others.

3.5.5 Post-holiday survey

Similar to the pre-holiday survey was the post-holiday survey administration process. More specifically, a self-administered post-holiday questionnaire was sent to the welfare agents, whose families took part in the pre-holiday survey, through email and by post. The survey was sent while families were on holiday or about to return. Email reminders were sent, and telephone calls were made to welfare agents who did not reply, two weeks, four weeks, and seven weeks after the family's return date. As agreed with the charity during the pre-holiday survey, in instances where welfare agents could not be reached after several attempts or they had replied that the families preferred a telephone survey, families were contacted over the phone.

The choice of a specific time-frame for the completion of the post-holiday survey was crucial. As Cohen et al. (2011) argue the issue of timing of the post-test is more difficult, and they explain their argument as follows: "The argument is strong that it should be as close as possible to the end of the intervention, as this will reduce the possibility of the influence of confounding effects. On the other hand, it may well be that the effects of a particular intervention may not reveal themselves immediately, but much later. Further still, it is possible that an immediate post-test could easily find an effect, but the effect is not sustained to any worthwhile degree over time" (pp. 327-328). In psychology studies on SE

and JSB, the post-test time interval varies, depending on each study's objectives, from immediately after an intervention (e.g. Eden and Aviram, 1993) to two-weeks after the intervention (e.g. Vuori et al., 2002; Vuori et al., 2005; Vuori and Vinokur, 2005) to three months (e.g. Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999), with several studies lying between four (e.g. Kafner and Hulin, 1985; Caplan et al. 1989; Vinokur et al., 1991; Van Ryn and Vinokur, 1992) and eight weeks (e.g. Eden and Aviram, 1993; Vinokur and Schul, 1997; Vinokur et al., 2000). Most of these studies have employed a time-series design where a short time-interval is followed by a longer one (e.g. Eden and Aviram, 1993). Moreover in most of these studies, participants were offered a separate incentive (equal to the pre-test cash incentive), thus reducing the risk of non-completion irrespectively of time-interval.

The pros and cons of different time-frames were taken into serious consideration, together with the specific characteristics of this study. First of all, and with regard to Cohen et al.'s argument, it is true that the chosen eight-week time interval enhances the possibility of the influence of confounding effects. However, given the participants' transition from the rare state of a holiday-break to the usual state of a daily and often deprived life, it was less likely for any such effects *per se* to produce positive results and significant changes. Moreover, a longer time interval would eliminate any effects of transient mood. The holiday-break was expected to enhance participants' transient mood, which could affect responses accordingly. A large volume of research has shown that transient mood influences memory (e.g. Bower, 1981; Forgas et al., 1984). With regard to SE in particular, Kavanagh and Bower (1985), found that emotional states have widespread impact on judgements by making mood-congruent thoughts more available. This said, the longer time-interval chosen, could present a more realistic picture with regard to the role of a holiday-break in the lives of unemployed individuals, and thus, more valuable results, depicting mid-term rather than short-term effects. A two-week time interval, for instance, might have produced more impressive results because of mood, in terms of statistical significance, but not in terms of true longer-term significance.

In addition, the choice of a longer post-test time interval was supported by reasons relevant to particular characteristics of the study. More specifically, after returning from the holiday-break, participants had to complete a compulsory feedback report form for the charity, in

which it was expected to give priority. Moreover, the charity was conducting another study at the same period of time, not exclusively among unemployed individuals, but which shared some common potential respondents. As such, a post-test very close to the holiday-break could cause fatigue to respondents, given that they had also completed the pre-test relatively recently. Finally, the pre-holiday survey experience, confirmed that chasing people to complete the questionnaire was a challenging and time-consuming process. This said and given the additional considerations above, the post-test was expected to be more challenging both in terms of completion rates, and time of completion. On the other hand, it could be argued, that there is always the possibility that the questionnaire could be filled in as soon as respondents returned from their holiday; however, this did not seem to be the norm. Therefore, the post-test was necessary to allow sufficient time for the participants to complete the charity's report first, and for the researcher to chase for responses without putting additional fatigue to the participants. Thus, eight-weeks after the holiday-break were considered as a reasonable time-frame, which would allow testing for mid-term, rather than short-term effects, and simultaneously, could reduce the risk of non-completion.

3.5.6 Quantitative sampling

The sampling strategy was dictated by two principal factors: a) access to participants could not be direct, but through the charity; and b) participants had to meet some specific requirements, in addition to the criteria imposed by the charity (e.g. they had not been on a holiday for the past four years, and they lived in low-income, such as in receipt of state benefits). According to these requirements, participants had to be unemployed, between 18-50 years of age (adults and in the most active working years), to state in their application form to the charity that unemployment was their key-constraint (among others, such as illness, alcohol dependency, domestic violence and so forth), and that they did not have any severe disabilities that could heavily affect their ability to work, and consequently the study's findings. In addition, it must be mentioned at this point that, initially, unemployment length was not included in the sample selection criteria. But research is an evolving process and during the sampling process it became evident from the sampling frame that the majority of the parents had been long-term unemployed. As a result, the majority of the participants (sample) were also long-term unemployed (see Appendix 8). Nevertheless, this

choice was not only methodological but theoretical as well. After reviewing the specific literature on long-term unemployment it also became evident that the focus on long-term unemployed parents was in many respects particularly important and relevant to this study (e.g. intergenerational transmission of disadvantage, including unemployment, in the UK) (see § 2.3.4 and 2.5).

Due to these sample selection criteria, random probability sampling was neither within the scope of the study nor feasible. It was clear from the beginning that ‘true’ randomisation is problematic in social settings (Robson, 2002), and that purposive (non-probability) sampling was the appropriate sampling strategy under the study’s specific circumstances. Through purposive sampling “particular settings, persons, or events are deliberately selected for the important information they can provide that cannot be gotten as well from other choices” (Maxwell, 1998, p. 87). Such selection has been seen as a fundamental aspect of many social processes, and has been acknowledged as particularly useful in studies on special and marginalised populations (Henry, 1990; Winship and Mare, 1992; Koch and Emrey, 2001). In addition, it can also be used in quantitative studies, despite arguments that equate it to qualitative studies (Onwuegbuzie and Leech, 2005). On the other hand, such a sampling technique entails risks regarding statistical inference and generalisability of results (Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007). Nevertheless, comparisons with the national data did not show any particular problems (see Appendix 8).

3.5.6.1 Response rate

The assessment of application forms that the charity had been receiving from families in order to identify those who met the requirements of the study started in April 2011. The process was successive as the charity continued receiving new incoming application forms until September 2011. The sampling frame comprised of 263 unemployed individuals (184 families) in the UK, who met the requirements of the study, and were asked to take part in the research. The pre-holiday questionnaire was completed by 73 respondents, giving a 28% response rate. From those, 57 individuals (78% of the T1 sample and 22% of the sampling frame) completed the post-holiday survey. The pre-holiday survey was conducted between August-October 2011 and the post-holiday survey between September-December of the same year.

Despite the flexible approach to data collection (e.g. multi-mode strategy, longer time-intervals), and the generous incentive on behalf of the charity, participation rates could be perceived as relatively low. This can be attributed to several reasons that concern the particularities of the study. First of all, access to marginalised groups, such as unemployed individuals is often more difficult and problematic when contrasted with a typical survey population, which, in turn, results in lower response rates (Stephan and McCarthy, 1958; Rothbart et al., 1982; Koch and Emrey, 2001; Cohen, 2007). This is perhaps a reason why there is no tourism study focusing on this particular group of people (Hughes, 1991). Furthermore, and within the field of psychology, widely-cited studies on SE and job-seeking, among unemployed and homeless people have been conducted with relatively small/medium sample sizes (e.g. Kafner and Hulin, 1985; Eden and Aviram, 1993; Leana and Feldman, 1995; Epel et al., 1999). But apart from the challenges that access to unemployed individuals has, locating unemployed people who go on a holiday break narrows even further the chances for a large sample. In addition, applicants to the charity were not only unemployed individuals, but rather families who lived in low-income, and some of their members were unemployed. As such, only a subgroup from the families listed in the charity's database could meet the main requirement of the study.

On the other hand, some of the individuals who met the requirements of the study, had either already been on holiday when the pre-holiday survey arrived by post or they completed the pre-holiday questionnaire after coming back from their holiday-break, and as a result they were excluded from the research. Moreover, many of the welfare agents, who were important links between the researcher and participants, had been on annual leave during the summer, and in many cases they replied when the families they represented were already on holiday or back from their holiday. With regard to other possible explanations of the response rate, this could be attributed to issues related to the initial focus on mailed questionnaires, and/or to people's fatigue, such as the sensitivity of the topic, fears of disclosure to third parties³¹, and stressful life circumstances. Mailed surveys in particular, have been found to have lower response rates (Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski, 2000). Furthermore, asking people who had been on unemployment benefits (many for a

³¹ Many respondents do not read or listen to confidentiality assurances carefully, and even if they do, they may not fully believe them (see Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski, 2000, p. 262).

long period of time) whether, and how frequently, they look for work, it can be perceived as a threatening topic, which in conjunction with fears of disclosure to third parties, may result in low response (Tourangeau, Rips, and Rasinski, 2000). With regard to participants' difficult life circumstances, these perhaps had a negative impact on their motivation to participate in the study. Another possible explanation relevant to one's lack of motivation is that the incentive to take part in a prize-draw for a free holiday-break perhaps was seen as not such a concrete reward, given that only one family would win the prize. In contrast, cash incentives³² have been found to increase response rates (Heberlein and Baumgartner, 1978; Yammarino, Skinner, and Childers, 1991).

Notwithstanding the reasons behind the relative low-response rates, there was a concern that low-response could bias the sample and restrict the external validity or generalisability of the findings (Vinokur et al., 1991; de Vaus, 2002). Although having a low-response rate does not necessarily translate to a large amount of non-response error (Krosnick, 1999), the possibility of non-response bias was tested through early-late responses (Armstrong and Overton, 1977; Miller and Smith, 1983). Results did not show any non-response effects (see Appendix 7).

3.5.6.2 Sample characteristics

Of the 57 respondents in the final sample, 16 (28.1%) were males and 41 (71.9%) females. The prevalence of women can be attributed to the sampling frame, which consisted of 263 individuals, 91 men (34%) and 172 women (65.4%). Although we do not have figures from the charity concerning the gender of all family members who went on a holiday break, it seems that women outnumbered men. This can be attributed to the fact that poverty and social exclusion are gendered experiences, with women more likely to be impoverished than men (see Pantazis and Ruspini, 2006, p. 396), and thus, more likely to live on low-income and apply for a family holiday-break through a charity. Moreover, perhaps women are more motivated to complete application forms and prepare other necessary documents in order to qualify for a free holiday break. Another possible explanation of the unequal distribution

³² In most unemployment studies a cash incentive ranging from \$5 (£3) for a study in late '80s to \$20 (£12) for a study in early '00s is given. In today's money, such incentives are roughly equivalent to one to three days of unemployment benefit.

between females and males, can be linked to specific requirements during the shortlisting of applications, according to which, participants should not suffer from severe disabilities. According to The Office for National Statistics (2012) unemployed men with a disability count for 4%, whereas unemployed women with disability for just 2%. In other words, if the study's sampling frame matches national data, it was more likely for male participants not to be included in the research. Notwithstanding the reasons behind the prevalence of females, the sampling frame composition gave a clear indication from the beginning of the research, that women would be more than men. As a result, in T1 there were 71 respondents, 18 men (25.4%) and 53 women (74.6%) and consequently, this prevalence of women was continued in T2. The proportion of female participants was roughly equivalent to a qualitative study conducted by Smith and Hughes (1999), among disadvantaged families, who were identified through the Family Holiday Association and the Rowntree Trust (9 females and 3 males). Due to space limitations, analytical information about the sample's characteristics is presented in Appendix 8. Despite the prevalence of females, comparisons of demographic characteristics with those of the national population, showed that the sample can be conceived as representative as it resembles the unemployed population in many respects (Stephan and McCarthy, 1958; Stangor, 2011).

3.6 Qualitative study design

As discussed in the beginning of the chapter, the qualitative phase of the study addresses all the research questions, but its main focus is on research question 5 and the processes through which, the phenomena under study occurred. By doing so it also sheds more light into the results of the quantitative phase (Robson, 2002). Therefore, a more flexible design was essential in order for the research to achieve in-depth insights, and to provide adequate interpretations with regard to the study's overall results. Going back to the wider assumptions of mixed-methods research and the use of triangulation, discussed earlier in this chapter, Morgan and Smircich (1980, p. 498) indicate, that "quantitative techniques may have an important but only partial role to play in the analysis and understanding of the process of social change; however, their utility is much more restricted in more subjectivist positions". Such techniques cannot capture the complexities of individual human behaviour, thus, flexible qualitative designs appear to be more appropriate (Lincoln and Guba, 1985; Robson, 2002; Flick et al., 2004). Such designs "can provide thick, detailed descriptions of

actual actions in real-life contexts that recover and preserve the actual meanings that actors ascribe to these actions and settings” (Gephart, 2004, p. 455). In addition, qualitative approaches give particular emphasis on situational and structural contexts (Strauss, 1987). In other words, the use of a qualitative design aimed to capture a more holistic picture of the phenomena under study (Crabtree and Miller, 1999).

3.6.1 Method of data collection and interview-guide development

Data were collected through interviews, a primary qualitative approach to understanding others (Fontana and Frey, 2003). According to Patton (2002, p. 341), “Qualitative interviewing begins with the assumption that the perspective of others is meaningful, knowable, and able to be made explicit. We interview to find out what is in and on someone else’s mind, to gather their stories.” Thus, the interview allows us to understand subjective meanings (Flick, 1992) by taking seriously the notion that people are experts on their own experience and so best able to report how they experience a particular event or phenomenon (Darlington and Scott, 2002), through providing true and accurate pictures of themselves and their lives (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003). As a consequence, the interview has the potential to provide rich and highly illuminating material (Robson, 2002). In addition, interviewing is a powerful data collection strategy as it uses one-to-one interaction between researchers and interviewees. This interaction gives the interviewer the opportunity to clarify topics or questions and ask for explanations of vague answers (through prompts) (Cohen et al., 2011).

Open-ended interviews, in particular, allow respondents to express their own understanding in their own terms, which may lead to a reconceptualisation of the issues under study (Patton, 2002, Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Among the three main approaches of data collection through open-ended interviews, the informal conversational interview (unstructured interview), the general interview guide approach (semi-structured), and the standardised interview (Patton, 2002; Denzin and Lincoln, 2003), the semi-structured interview was chosen. Taking into account the specific aspects of this study, and acknowledging that each approach has strengths and weaknesses, the semi-structured interview was considered as the most appropriate choice. This decision was dictated by the following specific reasons:

- a) The semi-structured interview combines the strengths of both unstructured and structured interviews:
- It retains a form of structure that gives the questions a logical sequence and makes the process of interviewing more controllable for the interviewer, and at the same time it is flexible, as the interviewer is guided by the schedule and not dictated by it (Smith, 1995; Patton, 2002);
 - This flexibility can provide rich data as it applies both to the researcher and the respondent. The researcher is free to follow up (probe) interesting topics that emerge during the interview, and the respondent is able to give a fuller picture (Smith, 1995; Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011)
- b) The longitudinal and mixed-methods character of the study was incompatible with the use of an unstructured or a structured approach. The former would fit better in a pure qualitative study, and the latter in a study that had not already used another structured approach to data collection (survey).
- c) Given the already demanding character of the study for the participants (pre- post-test design followed by face-to-face interviews), and the realization from the quantitative phase that it is challenging to convince people from this specific socio-economic group to participate in an study with multiple phases, an unstructured interview could result in more fatigue for the respondents.
- d) The use of an interview guide makes it is a more appropriate choice for inexperienced researchers compared to the unstructured interview (Patton, 2002).

On the other hand, as with every research tool, the interview has its disadvantages. For instance, it is not a neutral tool of data collection but an active interaction between people, which leads to negotiated results (Fontana and Frey, 2003). The interview situation is influenced by the personal characteristics of the interviewer, including race, class, ethnicity, and gender (Denzin and Lincoln, 2003). Another disadvantage concerns the inconvenience it may cause respondents as it requires a considerable commitment of time on behalf of them, and often their willingness to talk and reflect on deeply personal experiences (Darlington and Scott, 2002). In addition, the interview may not fully protect their anonymity (Cohen et al., 2011). As a result, such issues may be perceived from potential interviewees as

disincentives to participate, especially when a research focuses on vulnerable populations and sensitive topics.

Bearing in mind that an interview might be an uncomfortable process for the interviewees (especially for disadvantaged populations, such as unemployed individuals), the interview-guide was developed in a way that minimised as much as possible any uneasiness, and gave 'flow' to the process of interviewing. This was achieved both through the structure of the interview as a whole, and of each individual question. With regard to the interview's structure, easy questions were asked first to establish rapport, and then the interview moved to more personal matters, such as SE and JSB (Willig, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011; Brace, 2013). With regard to the structure of individual questions, each open-ended question had more than one parts; the first was the main question, and the second included probes. The first part was linking conceptually each interview question to the research questions, and simultaneously was opening the discussion on the topic of each question in an easy way for the respondents, trying to keep a balance between too open and too closed questions. Although too open questions may elicit long and rich narratives, and are significant in successful in-depth interviewing (Bernard and Ryan, 2010), this rather applies to respondents who are more talkative, and it can 'block' those who are not. For this reason a more gradual approach to interviewing was preferred. After opening the topic of each question, the second part of the question built upon the flexibility that the semi-structured interview gave the interviewer, which allowed for frequent use of descriptive probes. Probes are essential in shedding more light into aspects of the phenomena under study (Patton, 2002). In fact, descriptive probes were used here as the means through which the phenomena under study are both explored and explained. As Darlington and Scott (2002, p. 57), among others, point out, "descriptive questions about what and how things happened are particularly useful in encouraging people to describe their experiences." In addition, such questions give the freedom to the interviewee to express whatever they want to say without any restrictions (Patton, 2002). Depending on the richness of the answers given, second probes were used when necessary, asking the interviewees if there was anything else they wanted to add.

The interview-guide comprised of thirteen questions, including an opening and a closing question (Table 3.4). The questions were influenced, to a large extent, by psychology, unemployment, tourism, and social tourism literatures. The first question is an introductory question, aiming to open the conversation in an easy way for the interviewee and to establish rapport. Questions 2 and 3, aim to identify any aspects of the holiday-break that could be potential sources of SE information. Questions 4-7 concern factors that are indicators of positive mental health (Jahoda, 1958). SE beliefs are indicators of mental health and depend both on internal (affective, cognitive events) and external factors (environmental events) (Bandura, 1997). Questions 4 and 5 focus on internal factors, while questions 6 and 7 on external factors. From one hand, such factors have been found to be negatively affected by unemployment, thus, diminishing the individual's SE. From another hand, they have been found to be positively influenced by holiday-taking. The aim of these questions is to explore any effects of the holiday-break on SE, through positive effects on such factors. Question 8 and 9 focus on GSE and JFSE respectively, and have the dual aim to examine any changes in the medium-term, thus, validating in a way the survey results, and to understand the role of the holiday-break on these changes. The next three questions are related to JSB. Question 10 opens the sensitive topic on JSB in an easy way for the interviewee, and aims to identify the person's perception about the major restriction to work for unemployed parents, which is caring responsibilities. Questions 11 and 12 examine any effects of the holiday-break on the person's wider JSB from the idea to search for work, to his/her motivation and intensity during the job-search process. In addition, the second parts of these questions aim to identify any potential effects of the holiday-break among the non seekers. Finally, question 13 aims to capture any other benefits of the holiday-break, potentially relevant to the study, which had not been mentioned during the interview. Analytical information about the source and the purpose of each question is available in Appendix 9.

The interview-guide was pre-tested in August 2011, with the same people who had assisted with the survey's pre-testing. The pre-testing was conducted over the phone and through e-mail, depending on what was more convenient for the participants, and resulted in a positive feedback suggesting minor changes with regard to the length and wording (ambiguity) of some questions. Such questions were simplified and tailored to the everyday

language of the respondents (Kvale and Brinkmann, 2009; Cohen et al., 2011), leading to the final form of the interview-guide (Table 3.4).

Table 3.4 Interview-guide

1. Where did you go on holiday? For how many days? Did you like the place?
2. What did you enjoy the most about your holiday? Probe: Can you please tell me more about that? Is there anything else?
3. What types of things did you do whilst you were away? Do you think any of these experiences might be useful to your life in general? If probed: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?
4. How have you been feeling since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?
5. Has the holiday experience affected the way you see yourself as a person? If probed: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?
6. Has the holiday affected the way you see your circumstances at home? If probed: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?
7. How do you see life in general since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?
8. How do you see difficulties/challenges since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?
9. What do you think about your ability to find work since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?
10. How do you see work-life balance since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?
11. Have you thought of looking for work since the holiday? If YES ask: Has the holiday affected your motivation to search for work? If probed: How do you explain this? Is there anything else? If NO ask: What kind of job would you like to find now or in the future? Probe: Has the holiday experience affected this choice? If probed: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?
12. Have you been on a job-interview since the holiday? If YES ask: How did you feel during the interview? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else? If NO ask: How do you feel about going on a job-interview since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?
13. Do you think that you have learned anything in general from the holiday experience? If YES ask: Can you please tell me more about that? Is there anything else? If NO ask: Do you think that the holiday had any other benefit for you? If probed: Can you please tell me more about that? Is there anything else?

3.6.2 Qualitative sampling

Similarly to the quantitative phase, purposive sampling was also used in the qualitative phase of the study; however for different reasons. More specifically, purposive sampling within the qualitative phase's context had two equally important aims: to select those individuals who represented as closely as possible the broader group of cases, and to select, if possible, information rich cases (Teddlie and Yu, 2007; Teddlie and Tashakkori, 2009). Representativeness here does not concern the wider population, but the quantitative sample from which the qualitative subsample was drawn. On the other hand, and given that the quantitative sample was in many respects representative to the wider population of the UK unemployed, the representativeness of the qualitative sample would also reflect

representativeness with regard to the wider population. Available information about background characteristics from the quantitative phase of the study had revealed a prevalence of particular sociodemographic groups, and this guided, to a large extent, the selection of interviewees. With regard to the identification of information-rich cases this was a more difficult process due to the lack of any relevant information. However, the open ended questions at the end of the questionnaires (irrespectively of the mode of data collection) and the telephone surveys, gave a slight indication about the willingness of some participants to talk, and were used as selection criteria. On the other hand, and despite the researcher's attempt to control the selection of cases, it must be accepted that this selection was also affected by the denial of many individuals to participate in an interview, something that is typical when researchers attempt to obtain access to unemployed people (Warr, 1987). In total, thirteen individuals were interviewed, eight females and five males, with ages ranging from 26-50. The geographical map of the interviews included areas recording traditionally very high unemployment rates, such as Rotherham (ONS, 2010), and particularly deprived neighbourhoods within these areas (e.g. Manor Sheffield). In general the qualitative sample can be perceived as relatively similar to the quantitative sample both in terms of sociodemographic characteristics and pre-test post-test scores in SE and JSB (see Appendix 10). This is important for the potential policy implications of the study. Although achieving typicality of individuals is not the main aim of qualitative research, it gives confidence that the conclusions represent adequately the average members of the population, thus, it is important for policy makers (Maxwell, 1998; Flick, 2006).

With regard to the sample's size this was perceived as adequate given that purposive sampling typically picks a small number of cases (Teddlie and Yu, 2007); the minimum sample sizes often recommended in qualitative research; the mixed-methods and semi-longitudinal character of the study; and its focus on a disadvantaged segment of the population. Twelve interviews have been found to be enough to achieve data saturation (e.g. Guest, Bunce, and Johnson, 2006). Similarly, and within psychological research, in particular, Morrow (2005, p. 255) asserts that "the *magic number* 12 is as good as any, when necessary to predict sample size." Of course, the adequacy of sample's size also depends on the chosen analytic method. Braun and Clarke (2013, pp. 48-50), for instance, recommend for patterned-based methods of analyses (e.g. thematic analysis, interpretative

phenomenological analysis, grounded theory) 6-10 interviews for a small project, 10-20 for a medium, and 20+ for a large project. In general, and depending on the methods of data collection and analysis used, recommendations about sample size vary (see Onwuegbuzie and Collins, 2007, pp. 288-289). Notwithstanding the focus of qualitative researchers on sample size, this is not to say that the sample size exclusively determines data saturation. Data saturation depends on data quality and depth, and on the variety of evidence (Morrow, 2005).

3.6.3 Interviews' conduct

Interviews were conducted between December 2011 and February 2012. From the sample of thirteen individuals, ten were interviewed face-to-face and three over the phone. Due to ethical reasons, face-to-face interviews required the presence of participants' welfare agents. In three instances, such presence was not an option as welfare agents had not been working with the specific families any longer, and for this reason telephone interviews were conducted. Welfare agents' help during the planning stage of the face-to-face interviews was invaluable as they organised all the necessary arrangements to find venues that would be convenient and comfortable for the interviewees (Braun and Clarke, 2013). Small gifts (e.g. chocolate and biscuit boxes) were offered both to participants and welfare agents as a 'thank you' gesture for their contribution to the study. Some interviews took place in the welfare agents' workplace, and some in participants' homes. The average duration of the interviews was 45 minutes excluding briefing and debriefing (see Appendix 11). Both face-to-face and telephone interviews were audio recorded and then transcribed verbatim.

The role of power in interviewing was taken into serious consideration, given that participants belonged to a marginalised segment of the wider population, and the majority of them were females. The relationship between the interviewer and the interviewee is typically conceived of as a hierarchical one, where the interviewer holds a position of power, when interviewing people who occupy societal positions of lesser power (see Braun and Clarke, 2013, pp. 88-89). As such, interviewing across gender (e.g. male researcher and female participant) and social differences may result in some participants feeling uncomfortable to disclose personal and often sensitive information. The gender difference was managed through the presence of welfare agents during the interview. With regard to

issues of social power these were explicitly challenged by the researcher. Although his appearance was probably akin to the perception most of us have about scholars (e.g. prescription glasses and some grey hair), his dress code was not too formal and the same applied to his manners, which were polite, but at the same time friendly and simple (Fontana and Frey, 2003). This was not to pretend that difference did not exist, but to minimise social distance and create personal trust (Braun and Clarke, 2013). In addition, the interviewer followed an empathetic attitude, which was genuine as he had experienced unemployment in the past, and some of his friends and family were unemployed or underemployed at that time. This personal experience was made explicit to the interviewees before proceeding with questions about their JSB and aimed to encourage them to provide truthful and to avoid “apologetic” answers. Participants’ responses, especially with regard to particularly sensitive issues (e.g. medication, alcohol-abuse, JSB) clearly showed that they trusted the interviewer and felt free to talk (see Sennett and Cobb, 1977).

3.6.4 Method of analysis: thematic analysis

Qualitative research is a diverse field, not based on a single or unified theoretical and methodological concept (Patton, 2002; Flick, 2006; Denzin and Lincoln, 2008; Silverman, 2013). Among a plethora of qualitative analytic methods, which in practice involve similar stages (Darlington and Scott, 2002), thematic analysis was chosen for the analysis of semi-structured interviews. In general, thematic analysis can be defined as “a method of identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data, which capture something important in relation to the research question and represent some meaning within the data set” (Braun and Clarke, 2006, pp. 79-82). But analysis is also synonymous with data interpretation (Strauss, 1987), and the same applies to thematic analysis. While “a theme at minimum describes and organises the possible observations, at maximum interprets aspects of the phenomenon” (Boyatzis, 1998, p. 4).

Searching across a data set to find repeated patterns of meaning is a fundamental and generic process of text analysis that can be used with most qualitative methods (Boyatzis, 1998; Darlington and Scott, 2002). Depending on the method adopted, social scientists use different terms for themes, with the most common this of *categories*, used by grounded

theorists (see Bernard and Ryan, 2010). This common process that thematic analysis shares with other analytic forms of qualitative analysis renders it a foundational qualitative analytic method, as it provides core skills useful for conducting these other qualitative analysis methods (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Guest et al., 2012). On the other hand, this common process has been also resulted in the notion that thematic analysis is not a specific qualitative method (e.g. Boyatzis, 1998). It is often used without being specifically named as the method of analysis and it is usually claimed as something else (e.g. grounded theory or discourse analysis), when, in actuality, numerous researchers use thematic analysis (Gephart, 2004; Braun and Clarke, 2013). Although it has been long viewed as a poorly 'branded' method, more recently has been recognised as a distinctive analytic method (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Yet others prefer the term *style of interpretation* (see Willig, 2012), which has been also applied to other analytic methods, such as grounded theory (see Strauss, 1987).

The appropriateness of thematic analysis within the context of this study stemmed from two interrelated reasons, namely, its compatibility with phenomena of sociopsychological nature, such as the SE and JSB of unemployed individuals, and its flexibility, and, thus, its consistency with the general pragmatic approach of the study as a whole. With regard to the former, thematic analysis focuses on identifiable themes and patterns of living and/or behaviour (Aronson, 1994). Among its competencies is cognitive complexity (Boyatzis, 1998), which means that the complexity of psychological concepts can be better revealed with a method that can potentially provide a rich and detailed account of data (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 78). For such reasons, thematic analysis is among the main qualitative analytic methods within psychology and social psychology (Crotty, 1998; Stainton Rogers, 2011). With regard to the latter, it is "relatively unique in that it only provides a method of data analysis, and it does not prescribe methods of data collection, theoretical positions, and epistemological or ontological frameworks" (Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 178). For this reason, it offers the flexibility that is necessary for the exploration and interpretation of complex psychological and social phenomena, such as the phenomena under study, and it can be applied across a range of theoretical and epistemological approaches (Stainton Rogers, 2011). In other words, the theoretical freedom of thematic analysis does not mean

that thematic analysis is atheoretical, but rather that this freedom gives it the flexibility to combine theoretical approaches when this is required (Willig, 2012).

Moreover complex sociopsychological phenomena cannot be captured through the lens of a pure naturalistic or constructionist theoretical approach. The former focuses on the factual characteristics of the object under study, but overlooks how people create meaning in their lives (phenomenology), while the latter emphasises that facts are socially constructed in particular environments or contexts (Wertz et al., 2011, Silverman, 2013). Thematic analysis on the other hand, acknowledges the ways individuals make meaning of their experience, and the ways the broader social context impinges on those meanings (see Braun and Clarke, 2006, p. 81). Thematic analysis represents what Wertz et al. (2011, p. 83), call “innovative and fruitful methods” that can develop without much attention to complex philosophical issues. In contrast, other analytic methods, such as interpretative phenomenological analysis or grounded theory, which also seek patterns across a data set, are theoretically bounded (Braun and Clarke, 2006).

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter presented the methodological approach of the study, as this was guided by the philosophical assumptions of pragmatism and the requirements of the research questions. The chosen mixed-methods design and its two separate quantitative and qualitative components were described analytically along with practical aspects of the research process, such as ethical considerations, sampling issues, and access to the target population. This was an introduction to the empirical part of the study that follows in the next two chapters. Chapter 4 presents and discusses the analysis and results of the pre-holiday post-holiday survey, and chapter 5 the analysis and results of the semi-structured interviews.

Chapter 4 Quantitative analysis

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the results from the pre- post-holiday survey. The chapter is divided into three parts. The first is an introductory section, which discusses the analysis strategy in order to inform the reader about the processes through which results were obtained, and then presents descriptive statistics, giving a brief overview of all variables used in the statistical analyses. The second part or the main body of the chapter presents the quantitative results, which concern the first three research questions and their respective hypotheses. At the end of this section, results obtained from the two open-ended questions of the survey are also presented. Finally, the last part of the chapter discusses the results in relation to findings from earlier studies.

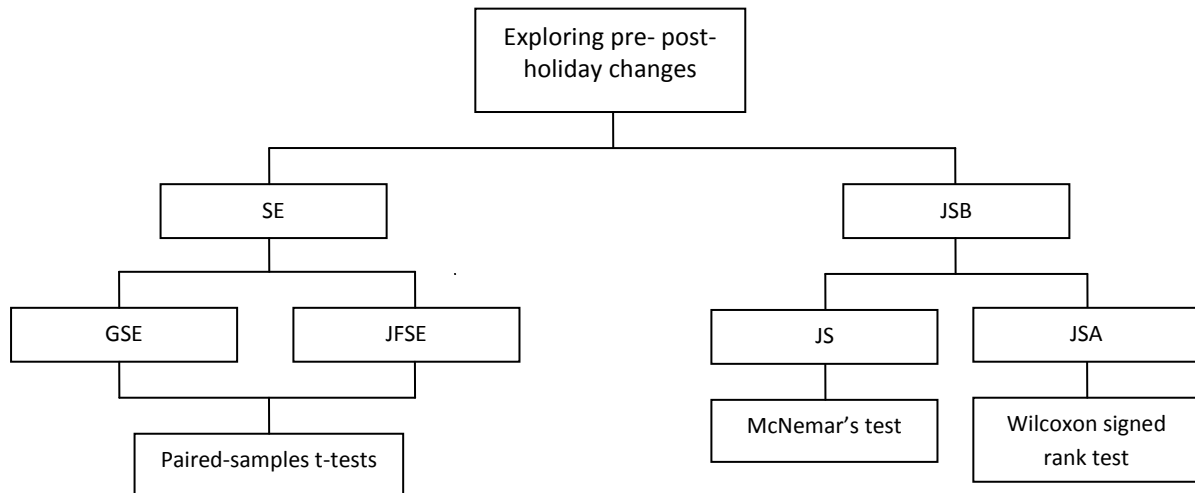
4.2 Analysis strategy

Survey data were analysed in SPSS (PASW) Statistics 21. The analytic strategy comprised of two different processes; namely, the examination of changes in participants' general self-efficacy (GSE), job-finding self-efficacy (JFSE), and job-search behaviour (JSB) after the holiday break, and the exploration of any effects of background characteristics on these changes, as well as of any effects of GSE changes on JFSE changes, and of JFSE changes on JSB. The first process involves related measures, while the second is concerned with the exploration of relationships. With regard to the choice of specific statistical techniques, both parametric and non-parametric statistics were used. This was dictated by the different measurement type, metric (interval) and non-metric (nominal and ordinal), of the dependent variables (Hair et al., 2010). Due to the fact that the JSB measure had two components with different levels of measurement, the dichotomous JS and the rank-ordered JSA, it was examined through these components and not as a whole.

Typical analytic instances involving related measures arise from longitudinal and experimental research designs of the 'before-after' variety (Diamantopoulos and Schlegelmilch, 2000). For this reason, paired-samples t-tests were used to assess changes in GSE and JFSE, a McNemar's test to assess any change in JS, and a Wilcoxon signed rank test for JSA (see Figure 4.1). All these tests can be used with repeated measures (e.g. when

participants are measured on a specific variable on two occasions), such as in one-group pre- post-test experimental or non-experimental designs (Pallant, 2010).

Figure 4.1 Analysis Strategy: Exploring pre- post-holiday changes in SE and JSB

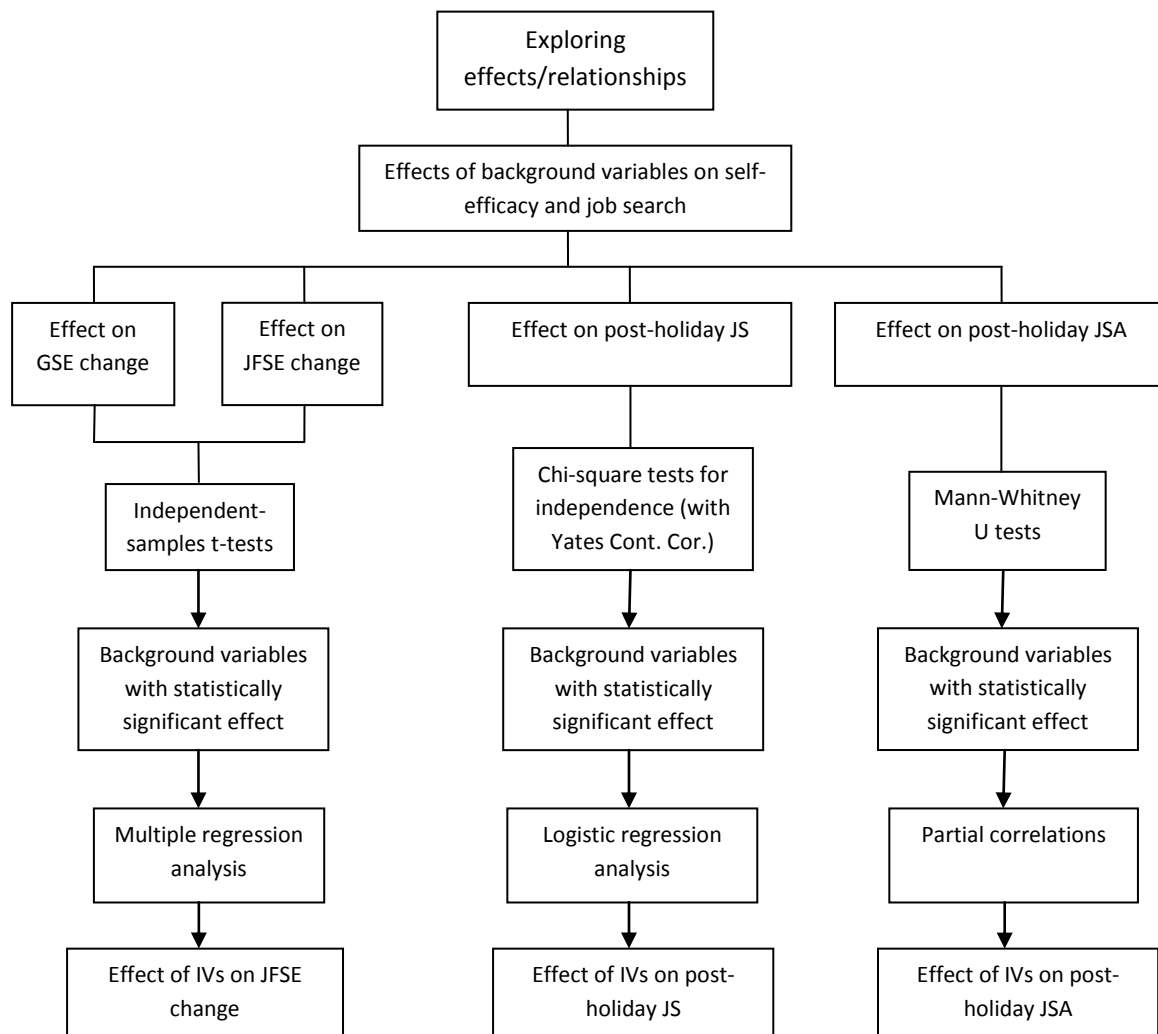


With regard to the exploration of effects of the independent variables (IVs) on the dependent variables, in addition to the different measurement level of the dependent variables (DVs), the choice of specific statistical techniques was also dictated by the sample size. The character of research questions 2-4, and their respective hypotheses called for multiple regression analyses, techniques that seek to predict an outcome variable from several predictors, thus, allowing for complex interrelationships among variables to reveal (Field, 2005; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013). Initially, however, multivariate techniques could not be used due to the large number of background variables in relation to the sample's size. Among different rules of thumb with regard to the desired sample size for a reliable regression model, the two most common suggest 10 cases for each predictor (IV) or 15 cases per predictor (see Field, 2005, p. 172). In general, it has been argued that the ratio should never fall below 5:1, which means five cases for each independent variable (see Hair et al., 2010, p. 175).

As such, it was necessary to reduce first the number of background variables, and then to proceed with these particular statistical techniques. Therefore, a series of univariate statistical tests were used first, to explore the effect of each background variable on participants' SE and JSB changes after the holiday-break. For the metric GSE and JFSE,

independent-samples t-tests were used; for the non-metric JS and JSA, the alternative non-parametric techniques, Chi-square tests for independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) and Mann-Whitney U tests, respectively, were used (see Figure 4.2).

Figure 4.2 Analysis Strategy: Exploring effects/relationships between independent and dependent variables



The background variables that were found to have significant effects on the independent variables were then entered into the relevant regression analytic models. Standard multiple regression was used to test hypothesis 2 and logistic regression for hypothesis 3. With regard to SE changes, gain scores were used. The pre-test and post-test measures of GSE and JFSE had unequal deviations and reliability coefficients indicating that the reliability coefficient of the difference scores is high (see Zimmerman and Williams, 1982, p. 150).

Finally, and with regard to the analysis of open-questions, the volume of received answers allowed only for the use of frequencies and visual representations.

4.3. Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics on the sociodemographic characteristics of the sample are presented in table 4.1. The original categories were based on a theoretical background and aimed to capture more detailed demographics and to produce a picture more comparable to demographics obtained from the Office for National Statistics. This was necessary in order to check for the sample's representativeness (see Appendix 8). On the other hand, due to the relatively small sample size, and the requirements of specific statistical tests, according to which a minimum number of individuals have to fall into each category, the initial categories of most background variables were reduced (Pallant, 2010) (see table 4.2). Collapsing the number of categories was not arbitrary but was based on conceptual similarities shared by different categories (see original codebook in Appendix 12).

Table 4.1 Sociodemographic characteristics – originally measured

Variables	Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
Gender	Male	16	28.1	28.1
	Female	41	71.9	100.0
Age	18-23	2	3.5	3.5
	24-29	18	31.6	35.1
	30-36	23	40.3	75.4
	37+	14	24.6	100.0
Unemployment duration	Up to 12 months	6	10.6	10.6
	Over 12 months	43	75.4	86.0
	Never worked	8	14.0	100.0
Education	Up to some primary school	7	12.3	12.3
	Up to some secondary school	22	38.6	38.6
	GCSE	14	24.6	75.4
	Higher education	10	15.5	93.0
	University degree	4	7.0	100.0
Last occupation	Never worked	8	14.0	14.0
	Labourers& factory workers	6	10.6	24.6
	Elementary occupations	9	15.8	40.4
	Customer services & sales	19	33.3	73.7
	Personal services	10	17.5	91.2
	Professional & managerial	5	8.8	100.0
Restrictions to work	None	13	22.8	22.8
	Caring responsibilities	34	59.7	82.5
	Health	8	14.0	96.5
	Other (location, study, criminal record)	2	3.5	100.0

Table 4.2 Sociodemographic characteristics – collapsed categories

Variables	Values	Frequency	Percent	Cumulative percent
Gender	Male	16	28.1	28.1
	Female	41	71.9	100.0
Age	18-29	20	35.1	35.1
	30+	37	64.9	100.0
Unemployment duration	Up to 12 months	6	10.5	10.5
	Over 12 months ^a	51	89.5	100.0
Education	Lower	43	75.4	75.4
	Higher ^b	14	24.6	100.0
Last occupation	Blue-collar ^c	52	91.2	91.2
	White-collar ^d	5	8.8	100.0
Restrictions to work	None	13	22.8	22.8
	Restrictions ^e	44	77.2	100.0

a. In this group were also included people who never worked (see Rose and O'Reilly, 1998, p. 17); b. Higher education includes NVQ, college, and university. Less than 30% of those who fell into this group had university education; c. It refers to manual and intermediate occupations. In this group were also included people who never worked (18% of the group); d. Refers to managerial and professional occupations; e. Restrictions include caring responsibilities, health issues, studies, and criminal record. One individual ticked the category 'studies' as a restriction and was moved to the group 'caring responsibilities'. These two restrictions are conceptually closer to each other due to their temporary character. Another participant indicated 'criminal record' as a restriction to work and was moved to the group 'health'. These two restrictions are also conceptually closer to each other due to their permanent character and effects. The vast majority of those who fell into this group reported caring responsibilities (77% of the group).

With regard to unemployment duration, there were three missing values. It was assumed that the particular individuals who did not answer were not short-term unemployed but either long-term unemployed or had never worked. If, for instance, they were short-term unemployed, they had no reason not to answer this question. On the other hand, given that the public opinion about long-term unemployed or those who have never worked is negative (e.g. Gallie and Marsh, 1994; Jones, 2011), being in such a situation is something that people would prefer not to talk about. For this reason and given that the vast majority of the sample were long-term unemployed, these three cases were treated as long-term unemployed, a decision that is akin to group mean substitution. This choice was not expected to have any implications in the study's results, given that the amount of missing data was small, comprising only 1.7% of the dataset (see Tabachnick and Fidell, 2013).

Descriptive statistics of the dependent variables are provided in table 4.3. With regard to the continuous variables, GSE and JFSE, a normality assessment was conducted before proceeding with the statistical analyses (see Appendix 13). Intercorrelations among all variables are presented in table 4.4. Kendall's tau, a non-parametric correlation is used

rather than Pearson's or Spearman's coefficient, due to the relatively small sample size and the variables' different levels of measurement, including rank-ordered data. Kendall's tau is less popular and more conservative than the other two correlation coefficients; however, it has been recommended as the most accurate option when there is a small sample, and many scores have the same rank, as it is the case with the JSA scale (see Field, 2005, p. 131).

Table 4.3 Descriptive information of dependent variables

	Pre-holiday	Post-holiday
General self-efficacy (GSE)	3.92 (.61)	4.00 (.71)
Job-finding self-efficacy (JFSE)	3.04 (1.13)	3.49 (1.12)
Job-search behaviour (JSB)		
Job-seeking (JS)		
Yes	31.6%	40.4%
No	68.4%	59.6%
Job-seeking activity (JSA)	5.0	5.0
Have been looking in the job-centre		
No not at all	73.7%	64.9%
1-2 times during the past month	15.8%	12.3%
Every week during the past month	7.0%	19.3%
Every day during the past month	3.5%	3.5%
Have been looking in the newspapers or on the internet		
No not at all	71.9%	66.7%
1-2 times during the past month	5.3%	1.8%
Every week during the past month	15.8%	19.3%
Every day during the past month	7.0%	12.3%
Have contacted employers directly (e.g. door to door, by tel.)		
No not at all	75.4%	66.7%
1-2 times during the past month	12.3%	8.8%
Every week during the past month	8.8%	17.5%
Every day during the past month	3.5%	7.0%
Have been asking family/friends/neighbours for job opportunities		
No not at all	75.4%	64.9%
1-2 times during the past month	10.5%	10.5%
Every week during the past month	7.0%	15.8%
Every day during the past month	7.0%	8.8%
Have been looking for a job in a different sector than before		
No not at all	75.4%	71.9%
1-2 times during the past month	8.8%	7.0%
Every week during the past month	10.5%	12.3%
Every day during the past month	5.3%	8.8%

Notes: For the continuous variables, mean and standard deviation are given; for the rank-ordered variable median is given; for the categorical variable and the individual JSA items the proportion of participants in different categories is given.

Table 4.4 Intercorrelations Kendall's tau

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Background characteristics														
1. Gender (0=female, 1=male)	-													
2. Age (0=up to 29, 1=30 and over)	-.11	-												
3. Education (0=lower, 1=higher)	.006	-.007	-											
4. Occupation (0=blue-, 1=white-collar)	.22	.23*	.40***	-										
5. Unempl. length (0=short, 1=long)	-.42***	-.01	-.07	.11	-									
6. Restrictions (0=no, 1=yes)	-.31**	.13	.21	.02	.22	-								
Self-efficacy														
7. T1 GSE	.04	.06	.17	.03	-.05	-.18	-							
8. T2 GSE	.004	-.08	.20*	.12	-.001	-.17	.47***	-						
9. T1 JFSE	-.001	-.01	-.03	.10	.06	.05	.32***	.22**	-					
10. T2 JFSE	.27**	.03	.10	.12	-.10	-.25**	.41***	.46***	.38***	-				
Job-search behaviour														
11. T1 JS	.25*	.02	.23*	.20	-.01	-.35***	.16	.26**	-.08	.24**	-			
12. T2 JS	.12	.005	.36***	.12	.05	-.32**	.15	.17	.005	.33***	.60***	-		
13. T1 JSAs	.25**	.01	.24*	.17	-.06	-.35***	.18	.28***	-.10	.24**	.91***	.60***	-	
14. T2 JSAs	.18	.001	.32**	.16	-.002	-.35***	.16	.20*	-.02	.30***	.60***	.88***	.64***	-

* $p < .10$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .01$

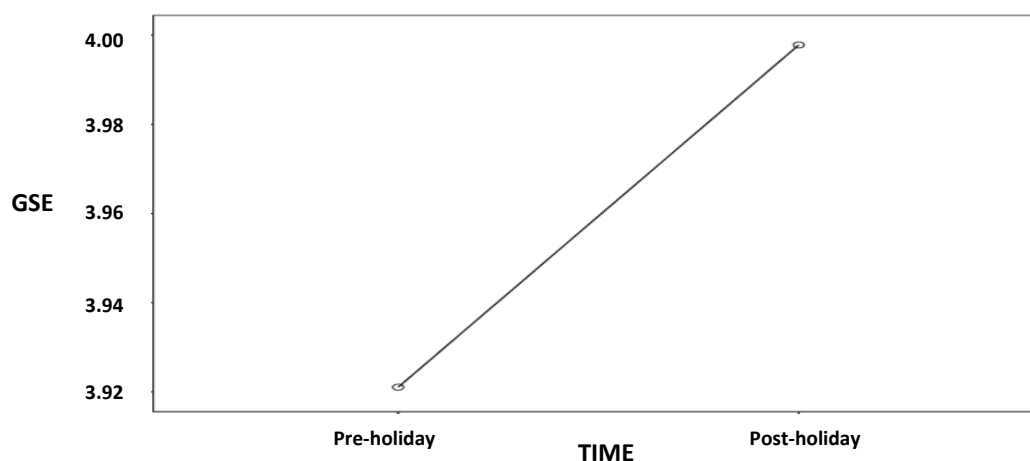
4.4 Results

The study's results are based on the traditional .05 alpha level; however adjustments to the .10 level have been also implemented because of the medium sample size. This is due to the fact, that when a group size is small, there is the possibility that a non-significant result may be due to insufficient power (Pallant, 2010). In such cases, it has been suggested that it may be reasonable to adjust the alpha level to compensate, by setting a cut-off of .10, or even .15 in smaller samples (Stevens, 2009). Moreover, and despite the fact that it is important to believe that some non-chance effect was obtained, information that is provided by the p -value as a measure of statistical significance, the effect size is also calculated (if significance is found) as a measure of practical significance (Anderson, 1961). The effect size reflects the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that is associated with levels of an independent variable (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). In contrast to the p -value, which is influenced by the sample size, the effect size is an index of the strength of a relationship that is not influenced by sample size, thus, it can be particularly useful (Stangor, 2007).

4.4.1 Testing for general self-efficacy change after the holiday-break

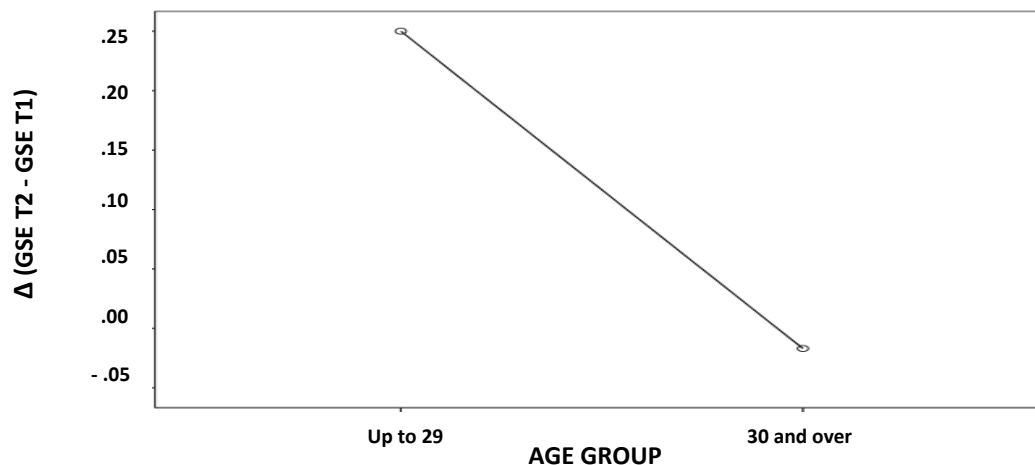
With regard to pre- post-test changes in general self-efficacy (GSE), the paired-samples t -test did not reveal any statistically significant difference [$t(56) = .90, p = .37, n.s.$]. The increase in GSE from T1 to T2 was small, and the mean scores remained relatively unchanged between the two time periods (see Figure 4.3), thus, confirming hypothesis 1, according to which participant's GSE will increase moderately after the holiday-break.

Figure 4.3 Pre- post-holiday GSE change



With regard to any effects of background variables on GSE change [$\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$] the independent-samples t-tests yielded no statistically significant differences [gender: $t(55) = .38, p = .70$, n.s.; age: $t(55) = 1.50, p = .14$, n.s.; unemployment length: $t(55) = .77, p = .44$, n.s.; education: $t(55) = -1.34, p = .19$, n.s.; last occupation: $t(55) = -.90, p = .37$, n.s.]. However, some attention needs to be paid on the role of age. Although overall, there was a relatively marginal non-statistically significant difference in $\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$, given the small sample size, changes among younger participants were much higher than changes among older participants (see Figure 4.4).

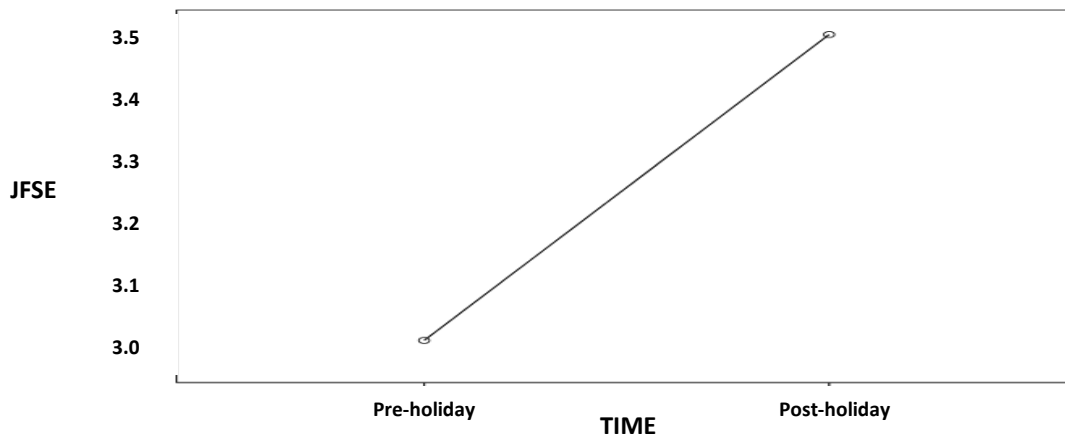
Figure 4.4 Effect of age on pre- post-holiday GSE change



4.4.2 Testing for effects of general self-efficacy change on job-finding self-efficacy change

Before testing for any effects of GSE change on job-finding self-efficacy (JFSE) change, it was necessary to check first for any pre- post-test change in JFSE. The paired-samples t-test showed that there was a statistically significant increase in JFSE scores from Time 1 ($M = 3.04, SD = 1.13$) to Time 2 ($M = 3.49, SD = 1.12$), $t(56) = 2.95, p = .005$ (see Figure 4.5). The mean increase in JFSE scores was .45 with a 95% confidence interval ranging from .15 to .77. The effect size calculated using Eta squared statistic (.13) confirmed the large increase in JFSE scores after the holiday-break.

Figure 4.5 Pre-holiday post-holiday JFSE change



Due to the relatively small sample size which did not allow for the simultaneous use of several independent variables, before testing Hypothesis 2 and 5b using multiple regression analysis, separate tests were conducted in order to check for any effects of each background variable on JFSE changes after the holiday-break [Δ (JFSE T2 - JFSE T1)]. The independent-samples t-tests revealed non-statistically significant differences with regard to age, gender, unemployment duration, education, and last occupation [Age: $t(55) = -.26$, $p = .80$, n.s.; gender: $t(55) = -1.67$, $p = .11$, n.s.; unemployment duration: $t(55) = 1.21$, $p = .23$, n.s.; education: $t(55) = -.95$, $p = .34$, n.s.; last occupation: $t(55) = -.29$, $p = .78$, n.s]; however, attention must be paid on the role of gender as the non-statistically significant difference in the scores for females ($M = .27$, $SD = .97$) and males ($M = .94$, $SD = 1.48$) was marginal (see Figure 4.6). For this reason, and as it is discussed later in this chapter any effects of gender were further explored. On the other hand, a statistically significant difference was found with regard to restrictions to work [$t(55) = 2.27$, $p = .028$]. In other words, participants without any restrictions to work reported significantly larger increases in their JFSE levels after the holiday-break than participants with restrictions, such as caring responsibilities and health problems (see Figure 4.7).

Figure 4.6 Effect of gender on pre- post-holiday JFSE change

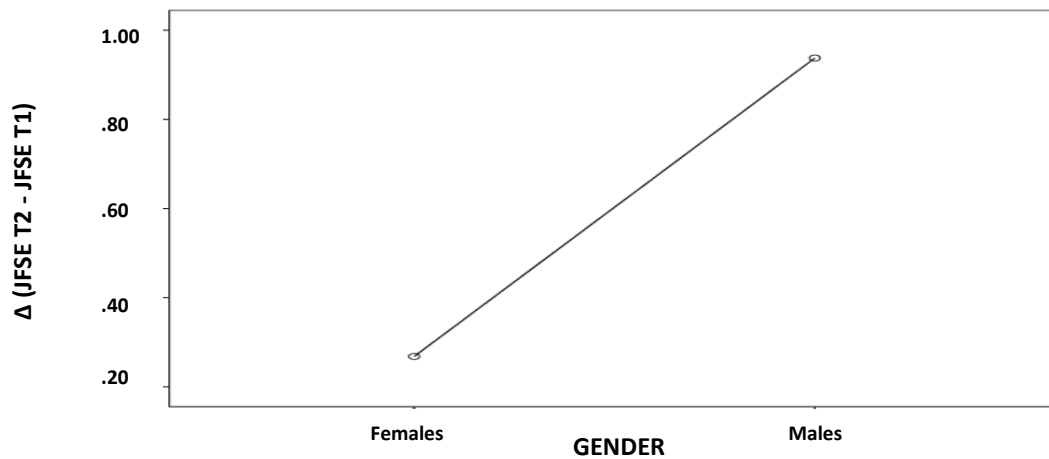


Figure 4.7 Effect of restrictions to work on pre- post-holiday JFSE change



In order to test Hypothesis 2 and 5b, gender and restrictions to work were entered in a multiple regression model together with pre- post-test GSE change [$\Delta (GSE T2 - GSE T1)$]. The preliminary analyses conducted, ensured no violations of the underlying assumptions of multiple regression statistical technique. The multicollinearity check did not identify any issues, with the highest observed VIF equalled 1.114 and the lowest value of tolerance .897. In addition, the inspection of the Normal Probability Plot of Regression Standardised Residuals, suggested no major deviations from normality. The Scatterplot of the standardised residuals was also inspected showing that most of the scores were concentrated along to the zero point. Finally, no problems with outliers were identified with the maximum value of Mahalanobis Distance to be 8.531, thus not exceeding the critical

value of 16.27, which is the normal argued cut-off for the use of three independent variables (see Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007).

The model reached statistical significance at $p = .014$. All the variables entered explained 13% of the variance in JFSE changes after the holiday-break [Δ (JFSE T2 - JFSE T1)]. However, only GSE change after the holiday-break [Δ (GSE T2 - GSE T1)] was found to have a statistically significant and positive association with JFSE change [$\beta = .25$; $p = .048$] (see Table 4.5). A marginally non-statistically significant association was found between the background variables, gender and restrictions to work, and JFSE change. More specifically, gender had a moderate positive association with JFSE change [$\beta = .21$, $p = .12$ n.s.], which means that male participants reported much higher JFSE changes after the holiday-break than female participants. On the other hand, restrictions to work were found to have a moderate negative association with JFSE change [$\beta = -.21$, $p = .11$ n.s.], which means that participants who reported restrictions to work, experienced much lower JFSE changes after the holiday-break, than participants who did not have any restrictions to work. Thus, the model confirmed hypothesis 2 and rejected hypothesis 5b.

Table 4.5 Predictors of JFSE change

Variables	Δ (JFSE T2 - JFSE T1) β
Gender (0 = female, 1 = male)	.207
Restrictions (0= no, 1 = yes)	-.213
Δ (GSE T2 - GSE T1)	.252*
N	57
R^2	.180
Adjusted R^2	.134
F	3.88*

Note: Standardised regression weights are used.

* $p < .05$

4.4.3 Testing for effects of job-finding self-efficacy change on post-holiday job-search behaviour

Before testing for any effects of increased JFSE on job-search behaviour (JSB), it was necessary to check first for any pre- post-test JSB changes. With regard to the first component of JSB, the dichotomous JS, although there was an increase in people looking for work after the holiday-break, the majority of unemployed individuals continued not to

search for work. According to the McNemar's test, there was a non-statistically significant change (Exact Sig. = .227) in the proportion of participants who were looking for work after the holiday break (40.4%) when compared with the proportion prior to the holiday break (31.6%). With regard to any effects of background variables on JS after the holiday-break, the chi-square tests of independence (with Yates Continuity Correction) indicated significant associations between JS T2 and education [$\chi^2 (1, n= 57) = 5.83, p = .016, Phi = .36$], and between JS T2 and restrictions to work [$\chi^2 (1, n= 57) = 4.38, p = .036, Phi = -.32$]. In contrast, no significant associations were found between JS T2 and the other background variables [Age: $\chi^2 (1, n= 57) = .00, p = 1.00, n.s., Phi = .005$; gender: $\chi^2 (1, n= 57) = .40, p = .53, n.s., Phi = .12$; unemployment duration, $\chi^2 (1, n= 57) = .00, p = 1.00, n.s., Phi = .05$; last occupation: $\chi^2 (1, n= 57) = .21, p = .64, n.s., Phi = .12$].

In order to test for any effects of increased JFSE in JS, pre- post-test changes in JFSE and the background variables, restrictions to work and education, were entered in a Logistic Regression model. The full model containing all predictors was statistically significant [$\chi^2 (3, n = 57) = 21.45, p = .000$], and as the pseudo- R^2 measures indicate it explained between 31% and 42% of the variance in JS after the holiday-break (see Table 4.6). Furthermore, the model correctly classified 77.2% of cases. The coefficient for changes in JFSE over time was statistically significant ($p = .08$) and positive, indicating that increasing JFSE is associated with increased odds of looking for work in T2. Nevertheless, the strongest predictors of T2 job-seeking behaviour were restrictions to work and education. With regard to restrictions to work, there was a statistically significant ($p = .010$) and negative coefficient for people with restrictions to work, indicating that restrictions (caring responsibilities and ill-health) are associated with reduced odds of looking for work. Considering that in total 77.2% of the sample reported restrictions to work is an explanation for the non-significant changes in participants' JS over time. With regard to education, there was a statistically significant ($p = .002$) and positive coefficient for people with higher education and job-seeking, indicating that higher educational level is associated with increased odds of looking for job. The fact that more than two-thirds of the participants' (75.4%) had lower educational attainments seems that has influenced the sample's overall JS after the holiday-break.

Table 4.6 Predictors of post-holiday JS

Variables	b	S.E.	Wald	Exp (b)
Education (Higher)	2.430**	.800	9.224	11.363
Restrictions (Yes)	- 2.097**	.811	6.680	.123
Δ (JFSE T2 - JFSE T1)	.580*	.336	2.978	1.786
Constant	.247	.677	.133	1.280
N	57			
-2LL	55.429			
χ^2	21.454***			
Cox and Snell R^2	0.314			
Nagelkerke R^2	0.424			

Notes: The reference group for education is 'Lower'; the reference group for restrictions to work is 'No.'

* $p < .10$, ** $p < .05$, *** $p < .001$

With regard to the second component of JSB, the ordinal JSA scale, a Wilcoxon signed-rank test revealed a statistically significant increase in participants job-search intensity, following the holiday-break [$z = -2.425$ (based on positive ranks), $p = .015$, with a medium effect size ($r = .23$)]. The median score however, remained stable ($Md = 5.0$). The median score of 5.0 represents the participants who did not search for work (68.4% before, and 59.6% after the holiday-break). Thus, the unchanged median reflects the fact that the majority of participants continued not to look for work after the holiday-break. On the other hand, looking closer to the data, and to the individual job-seeking activities (JSAs) that compose the scale, some important shifts in the frequency of specific job-seeking patterns were identified (see Table 4.7).

Table 4.7 Pre- post-holiday changes in specific JSAs (frequencies)

	No, not at all	1-2 times	Every week	Every day
JSA1 ^a T1	73.7%	15.8%	7.0%	3.5%
JSA1 ^a T2	64.9%	12.3%	19.3%	3.5%
JSA2 ^b T1	71.9%	5.3%	15.8%	7.0%
JSA2 ^b T2	66.7%	1.8%	19.3%	12.3%
JSA3 ^c T1	75.4%	12.3%	8.8%	3.5%
JSA3 ^c T2	66.7%	8.8%	17.5%	7.0%
JSA4 ^d T1	75.4%	10.5%	7.0%	7.0%
JSA4 ^d T2	64.9%	10.5%	15.8%	8.8%
JSA5 ^e T1	75.4%	8.8%	10.5%	5.3%
JSA5 ^e T2	71.9%	7.0%	12.3%	8.8%

a. Have been looking for a paid job in the job centre; b. Have been looking for work in the newspapers and/or on the internet; c. Have contacted employers directly (e.g. door to door, by telephone); d. Have been asking family, friends and/or neighbours for paid job opportunities; e. Have been looking to a different sort of job to what you have had before.

These shifts in each JSA were further tested through separate Wilcoxon signed rank tests. The results showed statistically significant increases in four out of five job-seeking patterns comprising the JSA scale at the $p < .10$ level. However, what is important to note, is the medium effect size in two particular job-search activities. More specifically, participants reported that after the holiday-break, had contacted more frequently employers directly (e.g. door to door, by telephone), and they had been asking more frequently family, friends and/or neighbours for paid job opportunities (see Table 4.8).

Table 4.8 Statistical significance and effect size of pre- post-holiday changes in specific JSAs

	z^a	p	r
JSA1	-2.034	.042	.19
JSA2	-1.697	.090	.16
JSA3	-2.594	.009	.24
JSA4	-2.446	.014	.24
JSA5	-1.364	.172	.13

a. Based on positive ranks.

The relationship between participants' pre- post-test JFSE change, and job-search intensity (JSA) after the holiday-break, was investigated using Kendall's tau correlation. There was small-medium, statistically significant correlation between the two variables, [$r = .29$, $n = 57$, $p = .009$], with high levels of JFSE associated with higher levels of job-search intensity. The effects of restrictions to work and education on this relationship were tested with separate partial correlations. With regard to the role of background characteristics on JSA at T2, the Mann-Whitney U tests revealed statistically significant differences for education [lower ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 43$), higher ($Md = 10.5$, $n = 14$), $U = 177$, $z = -2.60$, $p = .01$], and restrictions to work [no ($Md = 15.0$, $n = 13$), yes ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 44$), $U = 151$, $z = -2.90$, $p = .004$]. Participants with higher education recorded a higher median score than participants with lower education, and similarly, participants with no restrictions to work recorded higher median score than participants with restrictions. With regard to the other background variables, there were non-statistically significant differences [Gender: females ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 41$), males ($Md = 8.5$, $n = 16$), $U = 254$, $z = -1.48$, $p = .14$, n.s.; age [18-29 yrs ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 20$), 30 + yrs ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 37$), $U = 369.5$, $z = -.010$, $p = .99$, n.s.; unemployment length [up to 12 months ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 6$), over 12 months ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 51$), $U = 152.5$, $z = -.015$, $p = .99$, n.s.; last occupation [blue-collar ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 52$), white-collar ($Md = 12.0$, $n = 5$), $U = 88$, $z = -1.34$, $p = .18$, n.s.].

Despite these non-significant differences, attention must be paid on gender and especially on last occupation, due to the identified differences in the median scores among different groups. Males and participants in white-collar jobs recorded higher median scores than females, and blue-collar workers, respectively.

4.4.4 Open-questions analysis

With regard to the pre-holiday survey, the vast majority of participants did not answer the open-ended question, whereas the very few who answered, did not provide any useful information for the study's purpose as they mainly expressed their gratitude to the Family Holiday Association about the chance it offered them to go on a holiday-break, and in a few instances, they reported aspects of the holiday that needed improvements (e.g. facilities). With regard to the post-holiday survey, most participants replied to the open-ended questions. Half of the respondents said that the holiday had a positive impact on their self-concept, and one third said that it had a positive impact on their job-search motivation (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9 Holiday impact on self concept and job-search motivation

	Yes	No	N/A
Holiday impact	% (n)	% (n)	% (n)
Self-concept	49% (28)	33% (19)	18% (10)
Job-search motivation	32% (18)	33% (19)	35% (20)

On the other hand, most of the participants (more than half with regard to the first question, and two thirds with regard to the second) did not provide any explanations about their answers. Given the small amount of data and the sparse character of responses, it was deemed preferable not to use any particular analytic techniques (e.g. word counts), as these could not provide reliable results. On the other hand, and in order to avoid treating data as “unwanted noise” visual representations of responses were used. More specifically, data were first coded using “eclectic coding,” which combined in-vivo and descriptive coding (see Saldana, 2009), and then were entered into Wordle, a software tool that generates “word clouds” from textual data. The size of each “word cloud” represents the frequency of each given response, thus, giving a general indication of the most prevalent responses. With regard to the first question, the positive impact of the holiday on self concept, concerned

increases in general-confidence, parental-confidence, self-worth, and self-image. With regard to the holiday impact on job search, the most frequently mentioned positive explanation was the perception of the holiday-break as incentive, while the most frequently mentioned negative explanation revolved around restrictions to work. With regard to the former, participants said that through paid employment they could have the opportunity to take their families on a holiday-break again. With regard to the later, they said that caring responsibilities and health issues restricted them from searching for work.

4.5 Discussion

4.5.1 Pre- post-holiday general self-efficacy change

Results showed that the GSE levels of participants increased after the holiday-break, but not significantly. This is consistent with findings from earlier psychology studies, according to which SE as a generalised trait is not expected to vary significantly over time (see Jerusalem and Mittag, 1995; Chen, Gully, and Eden³³, 2001; Judge and Bono, 2001; Stangor, 2007). On the other hand, statistically significant differences reported in some other studies could be attributed to the fact that such studies used planned interventions of much longer duration than the holiday-break, exclusively designed to boost people's GSE (see Eden and Aviram, 1993). With regard to Eden's and Aviram's study, however, there is not available demographic information, such as age, which could potentially explain the obtained results. Schwoerer et al. (2005) also found GSE to be malleable, but only among young employed participants.

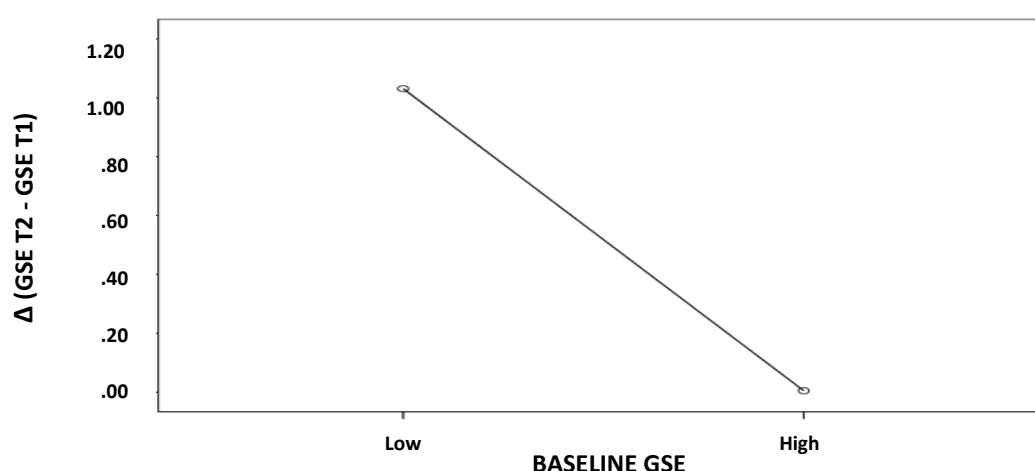
In a similar vein and considering the trait-like character of GSE, non-significant pre- post-test changes can be attributed to participants' age. After a particular age traits are well-established, thus, they are less malleable. Given that the majority of the respondents were in their thirties (mean age: 32.4, with 65% of the sample being 30+), it was less likely any significant changes to occur. This explanation is strengthened by the difference in pre- post-test GSE between the younger and the older age groups. Even if this difference was not statistically significant ($p = .14$), something that can be attributed to the sample size, this result is an indication of possible age effects on GSE changes; however, further investigation

³³ Chen, Gully, and Eden (2001) conducted two studies, one among students and one among managers. For the students, $M = 3.87$ at T1 and 3.91 at T2. For the managers, $M = 4.14$ at T1 and 4.16 at T2.

is needed with regard to the role of age (e.g. a study among the unemployed youth). Results also supported earlier findings with regard to the relationship between gender and SE, according to which gender does not affect GSE (e.g. Jerusalem and Mittag, 1995) or any gender differences in SE are less evident with increasing age (Bengtson, Reedy and Gordon, 1985, quoted in Gecas, 1989).

On the other hand, participants reported relatively high baseline GSE, which means that the margins for any significant increases after the holiday-break (T2) were particularly low. This said it has been found that persons low in SE are more susceptible to external influence, such as experiments and training workshops, than are those whose SE is high (e.g. Jones, 1986; Eden and Kinnar, 1991). As Eden and Aviram (1993, p. 353) point out, “such a moderated relationship is masked in analyses of all participants together.” For this reason, it was tested whether differences in baseline GSE had any effects in pre- post-test GSE changes. Baseline GSE was dichotomised in low and high. Scores up to the point ‘three’ in the response format were perceived as low GSE and scores over ‘three’ as high GSE. ‘Three’ represents the option ‘neutral’ in the response format, thus, reflecting answers that show uncertainty in respondents’ beliefs about their capabilities. In contrast, answers higher than ‘three’ clearly show positive GSE beliefs. An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare pre- post-test changes in GSE for participants with low and high baseline GSE. There was a statistically significant difference in scores for respondents reporting low pre-test GSE ($M = 1.03$, $SD = .91$) and respondents reporting high pre-test GSE ($M = .005$, $SD = .57$; $t(55) = 3.31$, $p = .002$). The magnitude of the differences in the means (Mean difference = 1.026, 95% CI: .40 to 1.65) was large (eta squared = .17). Expressed as a percentage, 17% of the variance in pre- post-test GSE change is explained by differences in baseline levels of GSE. As such, participants with low baseline GSE reported much larger GSE change after the holiday-break than participants with high baseline GSE (see Figure 4.8).

Figure 4.8 Effect of baseline GSE on pre- post-holiday GSE



It must be stressed at this point, that such increases among participants with low baseline GSE are not necessarily attributable to any effects of the holiday-break, but can be also attributed to regression towards the mean. Low pre-test GSE scores were far from the mean, so they tended to be closer to the mean on the post-test measurement. As Bonate (2000, p. 35) further explains, “The post-test score on an individual will tend to be greater than his/her corresponding pre-test score when his/her pre-test score is below the average, whereas post-test scores will tend to decrease when pre-test scores are above the average pre-test score, independent of any treatment effect.” But, notwithstanding the role of low and high baseline GSE in the pre- post-test GSE change, the overall high baseline GSE reported by the participants is contradictory to findings from earlier studies, according to which unemployed individuals have lower levels of GSE than the employed³⁴ (e.g. Eden and Aviram, 1993). In fact, these relatively high baseline GSE scores resemble the GSE scores obtained from earlier studies, conducted among student samples (e.g. Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001, M=3.87; Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006, M=3.91). Individual item means are available from Scherbaum et al.’s study for comparisons (see Table 4.10).

³⁴ Despite these relatively high levels, the GSE scores of the unemployed are lower than those of employed managers, for instance (see Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001, p. 76).

Table 4.10 NGSE scale: comparison of item means and standard deviations with Scherbaum et al.'s study (2006)

	Scherbaum et al. (2006) ^a	Current study
Item	M (SD)	M (SD)
1	4.04 (0.80)	4.07 (0.80)
2	3.81 (0.71)	3.63 (1.00)
3	4.13 (0.67)	4.16 (0.80)
4	4.03 (0.83)	4.16 (0.75)
5	3.89 (0.79)	4.02 (0.72)
6	3.91 (0.77)	3.96 (0.94)
7	3.77 (0.80)	3.84 (0.80)
8	3.69 (0.83)	3.53 (1.00)

a. The study was conducted among 606 north-American students. Approximately 62% of the sample was female, and 91% held a job at some point in their life.

Two possible, yet rather contradictory explanations about the relatively high baseline GSE scores of participants, concern improvements in mental health after a prolonged period of unemployment, and the role of the holiday-break anticipation (see Smith and Hughes, 1999). The first explanation is akin to findings from a minority of studies, according to which, mental health may be improved as unemployment extends, because the person adapts or adjusts to the situation (e.g. Warr and Jackson, 1985; Clark and Oswald, 1994). This said, GSE may be affected by improvements in general mental health. On the other hand, this explanation is less likely to apply here. Adjustment has been found to be either “constructive” (e.g. involves taking up hobbies, expanding social networks) or “resigned” (e.g. involves reduced aspirations and lower emotional investment in the environment) (see Warr, 2007). If participants had been adapted to the situation, their adjustment would have rather been “resigned” given that they could probably not afford to take up hobbies and that their social networks would have rather been limited, which is less likely to boost GSE levels. The second explanation could be that participants had been feeling efficacious at that time due to the forthcoming holiday-break. This explanation is strengthened given that the pre-test measures were taken very close to the holiday departure date, and that the participants had not been on a holiday-break for the past four years or had never been on a holiday-break before. Thus, going on a holiday- break perhaps affected positively their mood and/or gave them a sense of achievement that influenced to some extent their general beliefs in their capabilities. Mood in particular can affect people’s judgements of their personal efficacy; sad mood diminishes self-precepts of SE, whereas positive mood boosts

perceived SE (see Bandura, 1986, p. 408). As such, two pre-test measures would have provided a clearer picture concerning this. Nevertheless, the qualitative phase of the study is expected to shed more light into the possibility of this explanation.

4.5.2 Pre- post-holiday job-finding self-efficacy change

The identified statistically-significant change in JFSE after the holiday-break, and effect of GSE on these changes, supports findings from earlier psychology studies. With regard to the former, results confirmed that domain-specific forms of SE (SSE) are more malleable over time than GSE (e.g. Caplan et al., 1989; Schwoerer et al., 2005). With regard to the latter, results confirmed the causal relationship between GSE and SSE (e.g. Eden and Kinnar, 1991; Eden, 2001). In fact, it can be argued that the influence of GSE on JFSE appears to be particularly important, given that small and non-statistically significant increases in participants' GSE levels had a significant effect on JFSE changes. This is akin to the assertion that personality constructs, such as GSE, are important, not so much through main effects, but by moderating the impact of the environment (e.g. negative feedback) on the person's SSE, and the relationships among other variables (e.g. Weiss and Adler, 1984; Eden, 1988; Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006). Moreover, results contrast the wider perception that the chronically unemployed stop believing in their ability to regain employment (see Eden and Aviram, 1993). Although this belief was not particularly strong among long-term unemployed individuals before the holiday-break, it can be argued, that under positive circumstances and events (e.g. holiday-break), it can be actually boosted. On the other hand, another possible explanation of the pre- post-test JFSE change could be also attributed to regression towards the mean, given the relatively low baseline JFSE scores that participants reported (see Bonate, 2000).

4.5.3 Pre- post-holiday job-search behaviour change

Overall, results showed positive changes in participants' JSB after the holiday-break; however, such changes were mixed in terms of statistical significance. Positive but not statistically significant changes were identified with regard to the dichotomous JS, whereas positive and statistically significant changes were identified with regard to JSA. In other words, most participants continued not to look for work after the holiday-break; however

those who had been searching for work after the holiday-break reported increased job-search intensity.

The fact that most participants continued not to look for work after the holiday-break can be mainly explained in terms of specific background characteristics, such as 'restrictions to work' and 'education.' Participants who reported having restrictions to work and lower education were less likely to look for work than participants with no restrictions to work, and with higher educational level. This supports findings from earlier research, according to which these two factors are important determinants of one's JSB. More specifically, it has been found that caring responsibilities, such as childcare, which are usually heavier for women, make job-search problematic as they have a negative impact on the person's motivation and effort to look for work (e.g. Moen, 1979; Jackson and Warr, 1984; Gallie and Vogler, 1994; Bailey, 2006; Dorling, 2010). Similarly, individuals with lower educational qualifications, who have been detached from the labour market for a long period of time (and usually have less social contacts who could enhance their job prospects, and live in areas with fewer job-opportunities), have less prospects to find a job, and as a result they are less motivated to look for work (e.g. Turner, 1995; Wolbers, 2000; Silver et al., 2005; van Dam and Menting, 2012). As such, the fact that the vast majority of participants had restrictions to work and low education, explains their relatively unchanged JS after the holiday-break.

With regard to the role of increased JFSE on participants JS, this was found statistically significant, however, not adequate in boosting statistically significant changes in JS. But irrespectively of statistical significance, this positive change is important when it occurs in a particularly 'difficult' sociodemographic group, comprised of very long-term unemployed people living in deprived areas restricted from job opportunities, factors that diminish the person's chances to find employment, and consequently, his/her JFSE respectively (e.g. Sen, 1997; Wadsworth et al., 1999; van Dam and Menting, 2012). In addition, this result confirms that when the person's belief about his/her capability to find work is boosted, his/her actual JSB is boosted as well. According to earlier findings, increases in SSE are associated with increased odds of looking for work. In existing psychology literature on job search, SSE usually concerns job-search self-efficacy (JSSE) (e.g. Wanberg et al., 1999); however, in

studies where JFSE is used instead, it has also been found to influence the person's JSB (e.g. Epel, Bandura, and Zimbardo, 1999).

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the specific procedures prior to and during the quantitative analysis, and presented the survey's results. Overall, positive changes in participants' SE and JSB were found; however, statistically significant changes were identified only with regard to JFSE and JS. Pre- post-test changes in GSE were significantly related with pre- post-test changes in JFSE, and pre- post-test changes in JFSE were significantly related to participants' post-holiday JSB (JS and JSA). Particular background variables were found to play an important role in the above relationships. These results were then discussed and explained analytically. On the other hand, and despite the explanations given, causality cannot be claimed. Skinner (1965[1953], p. 199), for instance, points out that "Certain variables in the history of the individual and in the current environment are responsible for the behaviour in the test situation [...] the prediction is not from cause to effect but from one effect to another" (Skinner, 1965[1953], p. 199). As such, and due to the fact that, "demonstration of causality is a logical and experimental, rather than statistical" (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007, p. 122), the next chapter will shed more light into this issue.

Chapter 5 Qualitative analysis

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented and discussed the results from the pre- post-holiday survey. This chapter presents the analysis and results of the qualitative phase of the study and it is divided into two parts. The first is an introduction to the analytic method used in order to inform the reader about the process of the data analysis. The second is the main part of the chapter and presents the results of the semi-structured interviews. It discusses the effects of the holiday-break on participants' SE and JSB, the processes through which these effects were manifested, as well as particular restrictions in the lives' of participants that did not allow for positive JSB changes to occur.

5.2 Analysis strategy

The analytic strategy followed a hybrid process of inductive and deductive thematic analysis, which was consistent with the wider pragmatic approach of the study. Hybridisation refers to the pragmatic use of methodological principles and avoidance of a restricting subscription to a specific methodological discourse (Flick, 2006), thus, acknowledging that real world research is never purely inductive or purely deductive (Bernard and Ryan, 2010). As Strauss (1987, p. 12), for instance, argues, even grounded theory, which is often claimed as an "inductive theory", in actuality it is not. The advantage of the hybrid approach to thematic analysis was that it allowed to "draw upon *a priori* issues (those informed by the original research aims and introduced into the interviews via the topic guide), emergent issues raised by the respondents themselves, and analytical themes arising from the recurrence or patterning of particular views and experiences" (Ritchie and Spencer, 2002, p. 313). A similar approach to thematic analysis has been used by Fereday and Muir-Cochrane (2006). The specific analytic framework was adapted from the step-by-step guide to thematic analysis as developed by Braun and Clarke (2006) in their widely cited paper "Using thematic analysis in psychology." Steps 3, 4 and 5 were combined to one step as they revolved around the same process, named "Themes-identification" (Table 5.1).

The analysis was performed manually for two reasons: firstly, the qualitative phase of the study had the character of a small-scale study within a mixed-method project, which made manual coding manageable, and secondly, manual coding offers the analyst the best

possible sense of the data and more control over the analytic process (Saldana, 2009, p. 22). Before proceeding with the analysis the audio recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim (Seale and Silverman, 1997). Although transcription is a preparatory step of the analytic process, it has been often perceived as the very first step for the identification of themes within a data set (e.g. Bernard and Ryan, 2010).

Table 5.1 Step-by-step guide to thematic analysis

Original	Amended
Phase 1: Data Immersion	Phase 1: Data Immersion
Phase 2: Generating initial codes	Phase 2: Generating initial codes
Phase 3: Searching for themes	Phase 3: Themes-identification
Phase 4: Reviewing themes	
Phase 5: Defining and naming themes	
Phase 6: Producing the report	Phase 4: Producing the report

Source: Adapted from Braun, V., and Clarke, V. (2006)

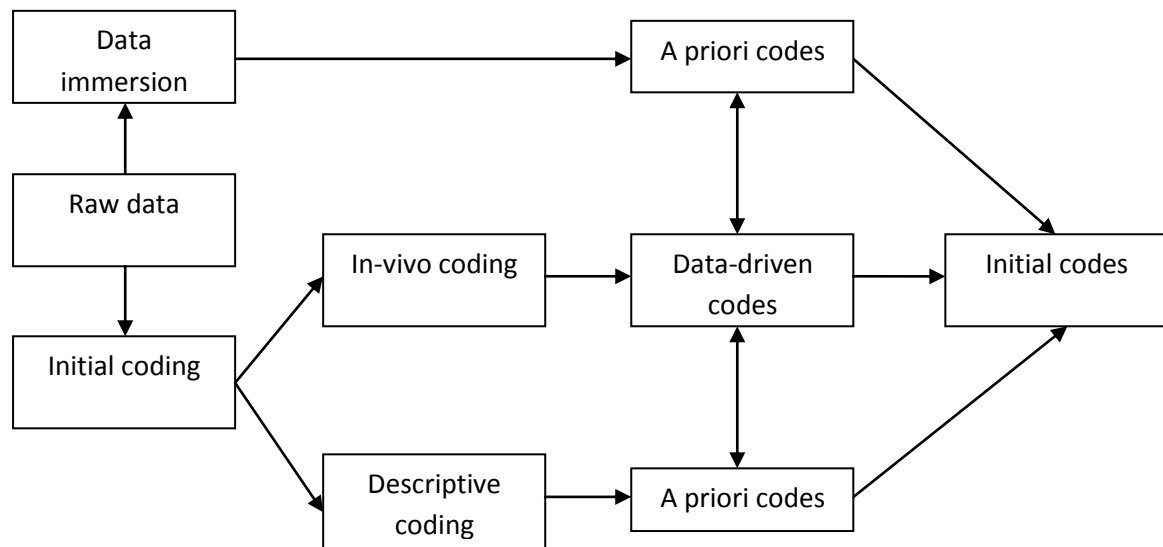
5.2.1 Analytic process

The first step involved careful and repeated listening of data recordings, and reading of all transcripts several times in order to gain an overview of the collected material and to get familiar with the data (Ritchie and Spencer, 2002). This was an intensive and active process, which also included pre-coding, namely, circling, highlighting and colouring important text segments, keeping notes, and shaping the first key ideas about potential meanings and patterns within the data (Braun and Clarke, 2006; Saldana, 2009). This process had a strong focus on the research questions and the related literature (Schmidt, 2004). In addition, these first ideas comprised the basis for the production of the initial codes during the next step of the analytic process.

This analytic stage was a combination of within-case and cross-case analysis. In both types of analysis, the frequency of different word occurrences was counted in order to identify key areas that form the basis of the analysis (Crabtree and Miller, 1999). First, each transcript was coded separately in order to focus on case dynamics and then coding progressed among different cases (Miles and Huberman, 1994). More specifically, cross-case analysis was applied to the first six transcripts, and then codes developed from these transcripts were applied to the next set of seven transcripts. This process resulted in a

constant reviewing and rewriting of these codes in order to be applicable to the raw information of all transcripts (Boyatzis, 1998). Throughout this process there were some instances where codes were split and further refined and others, where codes were spliced together (Crabtree and Miller, 1999).

Figure 5.1 Production of initial codes



With regard to the coding strategy, initial coding employed in-vivo and descriptive coding. This is what Saldana (2009, p. 51) calls “eclectic coding,” an approach that employs two or more coding methods when necessary. First, in-vivo coding was used to give participants’ voice, and keep coding genuine (Strauss, 1987; Patton, 2002), and then descriptive coding was applied to assign basic labels to in-vivo codes. These two coding approaches were not conducted in isolation, but influenced each other. In-vivo coding is mainly inductive, thus more open, and involves the production of preliminary or provisional codes - words or phrases (Strauss, 1987; Saldana, 2009). It is a fundamental part of the analytic process, as it allows for close scrutiny of the transcripts, and initiates the discovery of themes (Strauss, 1987; Bernard and Ryan, 2010). On the other hand, descriptive is mainly deductive, focusing on the research questions and theoretical knowledge. This approach, aimed to capture the explicit content of what participants had said, and then to apply the interpretative lens derived from *a priori* or theoretical codes, thus, keeping a balance between data-derived or *semantic* codes and researcher-derived or *latent* codes (see Braun and Clarke, 2013, pp.

207-210). Moreover, and considering the *a priori* coding during the data immersion phase, initial codes resulted from a hierarchical process, where data-driven coding lies between two theoretical-coding approaches (figure 5.1). This combination is akin to an intermediate approach to coding and enhances the accountability of results (Crabtree and Miller, 1999; Saldana, 2009). Similarly to the codes development, themes were generated deductively and inductively; however, the themes finally produced were, to a large extent, influenced by the relevant literature (Boyatzis, 1998). Different codes were sorted into potential themes, and relevant quotes were attached to these initial themes (Braun and Clarke, 2006). Themes were revised, and checked several times before taking their final form.

Interpretation refers to the attempt to see the analysed data and their meaning in some larger context (Ely et al., 1997, p. 160). During this process data extracts are treated both illustratively and analytically, a combination that reflects the flexibility of thematic analysis (Braun and Clarke, 2006). In the illustrative approach, the analytic narrative provides a description and interpretation of the theme, and inserted quotations are used as examples of the analytic points raised; whereas in the analytical approach, the analytic narrative is closely tied to the content of the extracts presented, and specific interpretative claims are made about these particular extracts, such as in constructionist analytic approaches (Braun and Clarke, 2013, p. 252). While the first approach provided a more descriptive form of analysis, the second was necessary in instances where latent meanings needed to be uncovered (see Boyatzis, 1998; Braun and Clarke, 2006). Furthermore, interpretation did not always emerge from the literature review, but also from the information being analysed (Boyatzis, 1998). This is not to claim that grounded theory was utilised, but a confirmation that human cognition and behaviour are far too complex to be understood through the lens of a single theory (e.g. social cognitive theory). As such, other relevant theories were also used as it happens in theoretical triangulation, aiming to further contribute to the development of knowledge. This is also akin to hybridity, a process that uses “various contextualisations of the data in order to yield different avenues of insight” (Ely et al., 1997, p. 40). Finally, attention was paid on reflexivity which refers to the way of situating or accounting oneself in the research process (Crabtree and Miller, 1999; Frost, 2011). The researcher as instrument statement is available in Appendix 14.

It must be stressed at this point that, similarly to everyday conversation, interviews do not elicit the same amount and quality of information from all people engaging in the interview conversation. This said as it is common in research that utilises qualitative interviews, some participants were more talkative and provided richer information than others (e.g. Hunter-Jones, 2005). The general sense from the interviews was that most participants talked openly, as they often gave information about particularly sensitive issues (even if these had not always been asked directly from the interviewer). In addition, the fact that the discussion around JSB, for instance, often elicited negative answers (e.g. “I am not looking for work”), strengthened further the belief that participants provided honest and not socially desirable answers.

5.3 Interviewees’ profiles

The sample’s characteristics are presented in Table 5.2. Despite the coherence of the sample in terms of unemployment duration, last occupation, and geographical location to some extent, yet the sample comprised a diverse group of people in terms of age, restrictions to work and JSB. This diversity was reflected in the variability of data, which are presented next in this chapter, and can be perceived as an advantage in qualitative research (Wertz et al., 2011).

Table 5.2 Sample’s characteristics

Pseudonym	Gender	Age	City	Unemployment duration	Education	Last occupation	Restrictions to work
Lisa	Female	33	Rotherham	Long-term	Lower	Blue-collar	No
Mike	Male	38	Rotherham	Long-term	Lower	Blue-collar	No
Joanne	Female	31	Rotherham	Long-term	Lower	Blue-collar	Caring
Peter	Male	44	Sheffield	Long-term	Lower	Blue-collar	Health
Sarah	Female	50	Sheffield	Long-term	Lower	Blue-collar	Caring
Simon	Male	26	Sheffield	Long-term	Lower	Blue-collar	Caring
Dave	Male	26	Sheffield	Long-term	Higher	Blue-collar	No
Anne	Female	27	Market Deeping	Long-term	Higher	Blue-collar	Caring
Jenny	Female	41	Tamworth	Long-term	Higher	Blue-collar	Caring
Kate	Female	37	Kidderminster	Long-term	Higher	Blue-collar	Health
Lily	Female	30	London	Long-term	Lower	Blue-collar	Caring
Nick	Male	37	Ipswich	Long-term	Higher	White-collar	Caring
Maria	Female	33	London	Long-term	Higher	White-collar	Caring

5.4 Results

This section presents the results from the semi-structured interviews, and is divided into three main parts. The first is concerned with changes in participants' SE after the holiday-break; the second with changes in their JSB; and the third, with non-effects, and effects on participants' behaviours towards alternative paths to employment (BAPE). All parts focus on the processes through which such changes were manifested. The specific effects of the holiday-break on these changes, effects between different forms of SE, as well as the effects of SE on JSB unfold while examining and discussing analytically these processes. Overall, results showed two important things: first, that the effects of the holiday-break had a middle-term character, as they were identified several months after participants had returned back home; and second, that there were complex relationships between the holiday-break, general (GSE) and specific forms of self-efficacy (SSE), and JSB. With regard to the latter, results went beyond the conceptualisations made at the beginning of this study, as they did not only concern the relationship between GSE and JFSE, and the mediating role of GSE on JFSE and of JFSE on JSB, respectively. More specifically, in addition to positive effects on GSE, the holiday-break was found to have positive effects on different forms of SSE, such as parental- and family-efficacy, and social SE. These effects were developed through successful enactive experiences - mainly related to participants' family and social life - during the holiday-break. In turn, positive effects on one form of SSE often generalised, thus, influencing other forms of SSE, and GSE. With regard to JFSE, this was mainly influenced by social SE. All these different forms of SE were found to have, to a larger or lesser extent, positive effects on participants' JSB. Unemployed parents' JSB was also influenced directly by the holiday-break, as it was often perceived as an incentive towards employment. On the other hand, positive effects of the holiday-break were not universal, and this was particularly evident with regard to participants' JSB. According to some participants' reports, the holiday-break was not found to have any effects on their JSB, due to existing restrictions to work, such as caring responsibilities. But these non-effects with regard to JSB were counterbalanced in a way, as the holiday-break was found to have multiple, indirect (through increased SE) and direct effects on participants' BAPE. Finally, and before proceeding to the presentation and discussion of the study's qualitative findings, the identified themes or patterns among the data, which reflect the processes through

which effects were manifested, are summarised in Table 5.3. This thematic synopsis serves as the chapter's guide for the reader.

Table 5.3 Thematic summary

Effects' background: Changing environmental conditions
Theme: Enabling environment
Positive effects on self-efficacy
Theme: Successful enactive experiences
Subtheme 1: Handling family relations
Subtheme 2: Handling social relations
Subtheme 3: Managing to go on holidays
Positive effects on job-search behaviour
Theme 1: Increased self-efficacy
Theme 2: Holiday as incentive
Positive effects on behaviours towards alternative paths to employment
Theme: Multiple effects
Non-effects
Theme: Restrictions to work

5.4.1 Effects' background: Changing environmental conditions

A clear outcome from the interviews was that the positive effects of the holiday-break, to a large extent, did not occur automatically, but evolved gradually, through different and complex processes. Changing environmental conditions played a fundamental role in these processes, and consequently, in the production of positive effects on participants' SE and JSB, respectively. The different environment triggered positive affective and cognitive changes within individuals, which created the ground upon which these effects were then evolved. More specifically, changing environmental conditions, as a result of the holiday-break, gave participants the chance to relax. Relaxation evolved through two interrelated stages, namely, getting away from the daily environment, and experiencing a new environment. At a first level, the physical displacement of tourists from their normal surroundings, which is the main characteristic of a holiday-break (Ryan, 2002), was for the participants a rare chance to get away from their day-to-day constraints, which were inherent to these surroundings. At a second level, through this physical displacement or the act of travel from one place to another (Tribe, 1997), participants experienced a new environment, which was relaxing, both in terms of the natural setting, and available recreational opportunities for them and their children. In addition, the change of

environment, and its positive impact on participants' affective states, had a positive impact on their general cognitive states. From one hand, changing environment gave participants new evidence about the external world (e.g. there is another, better side of life). From another hand, positive affective states as a result of this change, gave participants new evidence about themselves (e.g. they can actually feel better and happier). In other words, participants received new evidence that things can be different and better than what they used to think, before the holiday-break (e.g. Minnaert, 2007). It must be stressed at this point that positive affective changes did not always precede cognitive changes. Some participants reported instant positive changes in their cognitive states by changing environmental conditions (see §5.4.2.4). Moreover, there were also reports about positive affective and cognitive changes even before the holiday departure. All in all, results confirmed the bidirectional relationship between affective and cognitive states (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984; Zajonc, 1998).

5.4.1.1 Enabling environment

Almost all participants pointed out that the holiday environment was free from the usual constraints of their day-to-day environment, such as worries about finance and neighbourhood safety, and stresses related to personal traumatic circumstances. There was only one report about minor financial concerns during the holiday, but this did not affect the participant's overall positive holiday experience: *"A lot of stuff was very expensive, but other than that, it was still a very family orientated, and had a good programme for the children, so they were busy...they got quite a few things...so yeah we really did enjoy it"* (Lily). But in general, during the interviews, everyday problems were reported through their absence, while participants compared in a way, the holiday with the home environment. Thus, when they state that the most enjoyable aspect of their holiday was that they did not have any 'x' or 'y' worries, this confirms the extensive presence of such worries back home. Examples of such constraints are captured in the following comments from Anne (27), a single mother of two, Lisa (33) and Mike (38), a couple with a little daughter living in a particularly deprived neighbourhood, Joanne (31), who had recently experienced a relationship break up, and Kate (37), who had been suffering stigmatisation due to her ex-alcoholism:

Um...I didn't have to worry about anything cause it was all inclusive...apart from the tupi machines (Anne).

I will let me daughter could go and play around our van and you know she'd be all right with others...now you can't let her out from the front door around here or in back garden cause you wondering...but there it were different, you know, she could play with kids couldn't she? [...]I can't blame the broader area, I'm not blaming that but...it's rough (Lisa).

Is a rough...is a rough neighbourhood down there (Mike).

I'm gone through like um...relationship break up um...so it like really helped me and my family like have a break away from that. Um and a change of scenery you know, from our household at that present moment, just that opportunity to be able to go away [emphasis]. Um...just made it a lot easier for us and it took obviously our minds off the situation (Joanne).

We were not looking over the shoulder every time we walked out [...] That was lovely, just been able to walk anywhere [emphasis] and not, you know...somebody that slightly looks on him or...(Kate).

These constraints are inherent in the lives of low-income populations, and especially unemployed individuals (Fryer, 1986; Warr, 1987, 2007). Income deprivation, for instance, is the main result of unemployment, and financial problems are usually more severe among lone parents, and especially lone mothers (Jackson and Walsh, 1987; Levitas, Head, and Finch, 2006; Gregg, Harkness, and Smith, 2009). Furthermore, living on low or no income, means that the individual chooses to live in less costly and often deprived areas (Marsden, 1982; Bartley, 1994; Cutrona, Wallace, and Wesner, 2006). Such places are usually dangerous and crime-ridden, and, thus, unsafe for the children to play, which has been found to cause additional stress to the parents (Sampson, Morenoff and Gannon-Rowley, 2002; Sedgley, Pritchard, and Morgan, 2012). With regard to personal traumatic circumstances, such stigmatisation, alcoholism, domestic violence, relationship break-ups and bereavement, these, of course, are not exclusive among disadvantaged populations, such as the unemployed; however, there is much evidence showing that there are higher occurrences of such phenomena, under the deprived living conditions in which these populations live (Liem and Liem, 1988; Voydanoff, 1990; Silver, Mulvey, and Swanson, 2002; Shildrick et al., 2012b).

Furthermore, most of the participants had been actually experiencing a combination of these disadvantages, such as deprivation that is often compounded by traumatic experiences. As Jackson and Walsh (1987, p. 207) point out, “the unemployed are poor, with everything that follows from it.” This combination of linked problems is characteristic in countries such as the UK, where disadvantaged populations, including the unemployed live in segregated places (Ghate and Hazel, 2004; Pantazis, 2006; Shildrick et al., 2012b). In addition, and given the constraints mentioned above, it was not surprising that participants frequently reported ill, or signs of ill, psychological health in their daily life, such as increased stress, depressive symptoms and depression (e.g. Jahoda, 1987; Creed and Macintyre, 2001; Ross and Mirowsky, 2001; Mair, Diez Roux, and Galea, 2008; Crump et al., 2011; Shildrick et al., 2012b). The magnitude of the stresses and pressures that participants experienced in their everyday life was reflected on the way they perceived their holiday-break. All of them stated that going on a holiday was a chance to get away from their daily environment, and the problems embedded in this environment. But while escape is among the main motives for travel in general (e.g. Iso-Ahola, 1982[on general tourism]; Minnaert, 2007[on social tourism]), for the study’s participants it took the form of a relief: *“As soon as the train pulled of it was like ‘phewww’ [emphasis] [...] we’re off [emphasis]”* (Kate); *“To get away for that week, away from Sheffield and the stresses of life...was...like a weight have been lifted off my shoulders”* (Dave). Such comments support evidence from earlier social tourism studies upon similar socioeconomic groups, such as low-income families, according to which disadvantaged populations have a particularly urgent need to get away from their daily routine as this is stressful and often traumatic (e.g. Smith and Hughes, 1999; McCabe, 2009).

But the holiday environment was not only in sharp contrast to participants’ habitual environment, in terms of day-to-day stresses, but also in terms of the physical setting and opportunities for different routines and activities, which were relaxing and recreational. The physical setting was peaceful, and in addition, it predisposed participants to replace stressful and often passive daily routines with new ones, more active and recreational. Moreover, available programmes and activities for the children kept them busy and happy, which also added to the parents’ relaxation. All these aspects of the holiday environment had a positive impact on participants’ affective and cognitive states. Nick and Jenny said:

We went swimming um a couple of times, on...on the actual site um...it was sand castles and playing on the beach, which we don't do every day [...]then...you know just...yeah just spend the time with the family was enough...to get away in a different sort of scenery um... that was nice (Nick).

We did go by the sea-side, that was nice, just being able to walk along the beach and getting an ice-cream especially at the end of September, you know, it was...it was nice just to be out there and clear our heads and just completely relax [...]and...I didn't go on facebook or didn't use my phone much...I use to slip my phone in the caravan that was great...because you've got facebook and all these different things everyday and people's opinions...it's great...facebook is the worst things has been invented really (Jenny).

The significant benefits that natural settings and simple activities within these settings (e.g. walking in natural places, and spending time near waterside) have for people's affective states, have been consistently addressed in earlier studies (e.g. Ulrich et al., 1991; Barton and Pretty, 2010). But the opportunity to engage in such activities is particularly beneficial for the unemployed and other disadvantaged populations for two interrelated reasons; firstly, because they do not have often this chance, and secondly, because the routine of unemployment and its negative consequences on psychological health, are usually associated with no activities or passive activities. For instance, although the Internet in general, and social networks such as Facebook in particular, appeal to most of us and have diverse user base, it has been found that people with restricted social relations, less socially skilled and more introverted individuals spend more time online (e.g. Landers and Lounsbury, 2006; Burke, Kraut, and Marlow, 2011; Ryan and Xenos, 2009). But notwithstanding any positive or negative effects of this usage *per se*, for the unemployed and low-income populations, passive types of activities are usually the only available, either due the lack of alternatives, or due to psychological and interpersonal factors, or both. In general the unemployed people's environment is usually characterised by homogeneity of experience, and it does not encourage purposeful activity (Jahoda, 1981; Warr, 1987).

In addition, available programmes for the children, which are usually not an affordable option for unemployed parents, kept them occupied allowing parents to relax and have some quiet time for themselves. But most importantly, and as some participants reported, children with behavioural problems showed improvements in their behaviour as a result of their involvement in such activities, and the holiday environment in general (e.g. Minnaert,

2007). On the other hand, the extent to which children's improved behaviour continued after the holiday-break was not clear, with participants' reports a few months after the holiday-break being rather mixed. Indicative of lasting and non-lasting effects are the following comments from Sarah and Nick, respectively: *"Since we come back, he's more, he's more patient with things in the house...cleaning his own bed, and getting bath"* (Sarah); *"You know, um kids were behaving and whatever, and, you know...since it's been a while, since they had it, you know, things get back to how it was before"* (Nick). But irrespectively of the permanence or temporariness that children's improved behaviour had, such improvements added significantly to participants' relaxation during the holiday:

Kids were able to enjoy themselves [...] Danny joined the circus school and he be able to do things and interact with other kids [...]we were a lot calmer...we...I mean we didn't even hear his voices didn't we? (Peter).

Oh we went to the tiger club most days cause they got a club for the children, and they got involved (Sarah).

John is autistic, finds it very difficult to engage with other children and he did actually joined quite a few activities, didn't he? (Sarah's welfare agent).

They were well-behaved, usually we have trouble with John especially, cause he's the more...you know, hitting out and he doesn't get on with a lots of ...strangers, but he really relaxed, it changed his whole personality, cause he...he was doing something that he enjoyed and he made some friends on the caravan site (Sarah).

Although there is no evidence from this study to link such behavioural problems with parents' unemployment and the deprived environment in which these children are growing up, there is a plethora of evidence from earlier studies, which shows that stressful family circumstances and parental economic distress are associated with behavioural problems and depressive affect among children (e.g. Voydanoff, 1990; Elder et al., 1992). In turn, children's behavioural problems, comprise important stressors for the parents, and they increase the likelihood for conflicts within the family (e.g. Hayes and Nutman, 1981; Schliebner and Peregoy, 1994). In addition, behavioural problems mentioned by some participants, such as autism, are among the most significant stressors for parents (e.g. Bebko, Konstantareas, and Springer, 1987; Hastings and Brown, 2002). Within the context of unemployed parents in particular, such stresses are added to the many others problems

they experience. This said the reduction of such stresses during the holiday-break had a significant contribution in parents' psychological health.

In general, the chance to distant themselves from the stresses of their day-to-day environment and relax, created the circumstances for positive cognitive changes. As Wolpe (1990[1973], p. 154) explains, "Relaxation works by producing emotional calmness," thus, its effects are "diametrically opposed" to those of anxiety. This said, the chance to relax enabled participants to think more clearly away from their problems, and secondly, it allowed them to notice some new external and internal evidence. The external evidence from the environment helped them realise that there is a different side of life, which is better from what they used to know. The internal evidence, which resulted from positive changes in their affective states made them realise that they can actually feel better with themselves than they used to think. Both types of evidence are significant given their deprived habitual environment, and their high stress levels, respectively. With regard to the former, most of the participants had not had the chance to experience a better side of life. While some participants had not been on a holiday-break for years, others had never been on a holiday or away from their home towns before. Similarly, many of them had not had often, if ever, the chance to see themselves relaxed and free from their daily problems. Thus, this holistic change that the holiday-break brought, even if temporary, boosted positive reassessments. Joanne and Kate said:

You know everyday things that you doing, just broke away from that which I think we definitely needed it...cause sometimes you think that that's it...and that's all you gonna be doing and then you know, you get an opportunity like that and it just...it's like a breath of fresh air [emphasis] [...]My mind still feels quite stimulated, and um you know and like...the positive thoughts from...from the future, whereas before that I would...you know, I didn't...I didn't really know where I'm going or what I were doing...I felt, you know, quite, you know, stuck [emphasis] or that's probably because of my few little choices as well in life [...] cause I thought that my life were over when I had children, I thought that's it now, I'm done. So you know it made me have life[...]it made me like realise to...you know to just to...to keep going (Joanne).

The important is that, that you see things differently[...]It did make us think...how different we were [crosstalk]...when it was moving away from everything...and everybody[...]I think it made us realise that we are just a

normal...family...in a better surrounding[...]that is lovely when it is just us, no stresses, no strains, nobody else's problems, no looking over your shoulder[...]It sort of, yeah...it make me realise that most of my stresses and strains...be here (Kate).

This new knowledge contrasted the old knowledge that Joanne and Kate used to have about life and themselves (Freire, 1972a). Before the holiday-break they had static perceptions, which were shaped by their deprived, for several reasons, lifestyle. Changing environmental conditions *per se* and the positive effects of this change, gave Joanne and Kate evidence about a different and more positive side of things, which they had not had experienced before. This evidence challenged their well-established negative worldviews. Of particular significance in these reassessments is the fact that the holiday experience made them realise that this positive side of things is, in fact, reachable to them. In addition, this chance to step back from one's problems is a necessary and significant step before the person moves forward with his/her life. Indicative of the role of the holiday-break as a way to "reset" ones' life are the following excerpts from Anne's welfare agent and from Kate (Anne had suffered domestic violence, while Kate suffered bereavement):

With the situation with...Anne...she um...she've had domestic violence and we supported her to gain a new accommodation in a different area, in this area to find a school for the kids, and to find a new place to live [...] the part of the Family Holiday Association was to give her...some rest really. She hadn't had a holiday for...four years...and in a stressful-stressful situation that she was in, we thought that to give her some time off to be there with kids in order to get back to basics (Anne's WA).

"It gave me time to think cause losing Jane...nobody give me...it was just a small time to...well we had time really" (Kate)

5.4.2 Positive effects on self-efficacy

5.4.2.1 Theme: successful enactive experiences

The discussion so far revolved around the positive effects that the transition from a stressful to a relaxing environment had on participants' affective and cognitive states. These effects in conjunction with the enabling holiday environment helped participants to engage successfully in enactive experiences. By enabling environment it is meant here the environment that provides new information, which enables the person to reappraise it

positively (e.g. safe, not threatening) (see Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Enactive experiences concern domains of participants' lives, such as family and social relations, that had been problematic, thus, diminishing their sense of SE. As data revealed, during the holiday-break participants had the chance to engage again in such life domains, but under more optimal circumstances. This said, under positive affective and cognitive states, and within an enabling environment, participants managed to deal effectively with family and social relations, and got first-hand evidence about their capabilities to exercise control over these life domains. Enactive mastery experiences provide the most authentic and direct evidence that the person is capable to master or control a situation, thus, building a robust belief in his/her SE (Bandura, 1977b, 1986, 1997). Here, these capabilities refer to parental and social SE. Instances of direct positive effects of the holiday on GSE were not made explicit frequently; however, GSE was influenced, to a large extent, by parental and social SE. This supported findings from earlier psychology studies, according to which, specific forms of SE can generalise (e.g. Bandura, Adams, and Beyer, 1977; Sherer et al., 1982; Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001). In addition, JFSE was also influenced by social SE.

5.4.2.2 Subtheme 1: handling family relations

As several participants reported their family relations had been rather problematic before going on a holiday-break. This confirms findings from earlier studies, according to which unemployment and economic distress often affect the family's stability and cohesion (e.g. Jahoda, Lazarsfeld and Zeisel, 2002[1933]; Jackson and Walsh, 1987; Conger et al., 1992). Such dysfunctional family relations also reflect the repeated failures on behalf of the individuals to deal effectively with this life domain, and have adverse effects on their psychological health (e.g. Atkinson, Liem, and Liem, 1986; Voydanoff, 1990), especially when they are single parents (e.g. Elder et al., 1995). But while such problematic family relations appeared to be rather chronic for many families, participants frequently reported an improvement in such relations as a result of the holiday-break. Indicative of these positive changes are the following comments from Jenny and Lily:

Um...just...me and my two daughters...just you know get to know each other again and just relax with each other instead of...being so busy that when we do see each other they are stressed[...]I think it did bond us, it did make us more...as a family instead of us all living separate lives[...]so...and my oldest particularly I

think she is got to know me...that I'm not just mum that mugs [inaudible] all the time I do have fun as well...it did us good (Jenny).

Um the quiet time and...and the time to hear their opinions a bit more...made me...realise that...you know in terms of spending the time with them and getting into...that point with them to understand some of the stuff they are going through, and that is a definite improvement I will say, in terms of listening to them and listening skills, and them understand how to approach me about [...]I've got to find out a few little things got...hadn't really taken seriously as a parent, when they had said, 'oh this is really bothering me' and...but when we were there we were able to get that time to...talk a few things through and it definitely helped me with...I would say a bit more with my parenting skills towards them (Lily).

Improvements in family relations are among the clearest benefits of social tourism and have been found to contribute to family capital (e.g. Minnaert, 2007; Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009). Their importance within the context of this study stems from their positive impact on participants' parental SE and GSE. More specifically, the processes through which family relations were improved during the holiday-break reflect successful enactive experiences, which comprise the most important source of SE information (Bandura 1986, 1997). Through such experiences people get first hand evidence about their capabilities to deal effectively with difficult life circumstances. As Heider (1965[1958], p. 89) explains, this evidence "provides the raw material for the perception of *can*." On the other hand, it must be stressed that the generation of such experiences is not automatic and the extent to which, they become successful or not depends on situational factors. As Jenny and Lily, for instance, mentioned, during the holiday-break both parents and children were more relaxed, free from everyday stresses, and thus, the time they spent together was quality time. In other words, parents and children were ready to come closer to each other, understand each other's problems, and enjoy the moments spent together, which strengthened their relations. It can be argued that the absence of such factors in their day-to-day life did not allow for the production of successful enactive experiences regarding family relations. But notwithstanding the reasons behind the generation of such experiences, improved family relations gave participants the evidence that they are better and more capable parents than they used to think. Moreover, they gave some positive evidence about the functioning of the family unit as a whole. Indicative of these positive

effects on parental- and family efficacy, respectively, are the following comments from Dave, Jenny, and Maria:

It also made me think as well that I'm not...a bad parent...either, you know I...I kept thinking before...that, but my son is...it sort...he has a bit of behaviour problems at the moment... and he did before we went away so I thought 'oh it's me', 'is got to be me.' But when we went away he was as good as gold...and...we were fantastic...so that made me realise that it's not me it's just...it might just be, you know, something in his life...that he...he don't feel, cause carrying him away...so makes you feel like, well that's benefited him because he is a lot more calmer...and he's listening and he's doing as his told and he's not biting or...hitting and he's... he's actually calm in himself...so it must be something in Sheffield and it's not me (Dave).

I do feel more confident to be the parent...if you know what I mean. Yes we have fun together but...I know that I'm capable...capable of you know... capable of filling the day...capable of feeding...do you know what I mean?[...]Just be a better parent really...just having the confidence to be...the parent and not the friend...you know, back home...I have to...I have some sort of roles and regulations going on...but they can approach me, but...I am confident enough to say no or you know...knowing that is not gonna be the end of the world (Jenny).

Well...just that feeling that we can also, we were also be able to go out and have that fun together...it's just...it's just a feeling that I cannot even put in words to be honest (Maria).

As it is evident from these examples participants' parental- and family efficacy were low before the holiday-break, for reasons such as self-blame for one's child's behavioural problems (Dave) or one's failure to meet successfully his/her familial role (Jenny). With regard to children's behavioural problems, these comprise significant stressors for parents (e.g. Bebkö, Konstantareas, and Springer, 1987; Baker et al., 2003), and they have been related to lower parental self-esteem and parental efficacy (e.g. Mash and Johnston, 1983; Giallo et al., 2011). Similarly, the person's failure to meet successfully his/her normatively prescribed familial role, such as to be a good parent and provide his/her children the basic means of subsistence has a negative impact on his/her parental efficacy (Jackson and Walsh, 1987; Voydanoff, 1990). In addition, and given that parental identity is a significant component of an individual's identity, the person's perception of his/her parental role as inadequate has a negative impact on his/her self-worth and self-confidence in general (e.g. Komarovskiy and Philips, 1987[1962]; Hastings and Brown, 2002; Cole et al., 2011). In

contrast, increases in the person's parental efficacy can generalise and have a positive impact on his/her GSE. Dave, for example, who mentioned earlier that he felt more capable as a parent after the holiday-break he also said that he felt more efficacious in general to cope with life stresses and difficulties:

Um the difficult aspects of my life since...I see them since the holiday that the stresses are still there but um I can cope with them better...now I've had the time to go away and calm down and come back um...like the parenting...thing, it's still stressful...I mean Simon is still not behaving the way I'd like him to behave...but I can cope with it better, because I've had that break...of a holiday and I've had a chance to go away with him and I know that he can behave so I know how to deal with it now (Dave).

On the other hand, Dave's increased GSE after the holiday-break is not only attributable to his increased parental-efficacy, but also to other factors related to the holiday-break, such as the chance he had to get away and relax and his son's improved behaviour during the holiday-break. The former confirms Bandura's (1997) assertion that changing environmental conditions can instantly alter one's SE beliefs. The latter refers to the important role that new external evidence can play in the way the person appraises his/her control over stressful situations (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). This particular evidence that his son can behave made Dave feel confident in how to deal with him even when he does not behave, which, in turn, influenced his general confidence with regard to other stressful life events. In addition, a similar relationship may exist between family-efficacy and GSE.

5.4.2.3 Subtheme 2: Handling social relations

Similarly to family relations, the social relations of many participants had been problematic before the holiday-break. As they frequently described they did not have much social life, mainly because they did not feel confident in socialising with other people. Social isolation is among the main consequences of unemployment (e.g. Bakke, 1933; Jahoda, 1981; Warr, 1987; Waters and Moore, 2002), and is also related to the loss of the person's self-confidence, which can result in his/her withdrawal from social relations (e.g. Jahoda, 1982; Glyptis, 1989; Gallie, Gershuny, and Vogler, 1994). During the holiday-break, however, participants appeared to exercise a more sociable behaviour, they talked to people and in some instances they made friends (e.g. Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009). These

successful interactions with other people gave them positive feedback about their social SE.

The following excerpts from Anne and Jenny are illustrative of these positive effects:

It's been since, since I've come back yes definitely, I feel like I can...I'm quite...you know...talk to anyone now [...] I don't know, before I went I'd...I'd...I can talk to people and be around people but I'd rather be the one in the corner, quiet...you know...and because it was just me and the boys and I had to kinda step up and talk to people and...you know[...] Yeah...and talking to people I wouldn't normally talk too as well, you know, like um...males 7feet tall, you know (Anne).

Well before I went away I was feeling a little bit isolated...I was a little bit um...not a recluse...would...just staying at home...pretty much at most of the time [...] I always tend to...keep myself to myself...I've got a few close friends and that's it, but um...I think I found like...at first I thought oh I'm gonna be sitting here and nobody will talk to me...and you know the kids go off and go to the arcades whatever, but...yeah I do feel a bit more included...they say 'oh bring a chair over'[...] Towards the middle of the holiday I did start making friends cause it was all families there...so...they did...they did include me[...] I was a bit more open...well I think I've carried that back home as well thinking that...not everybody is bad really (Jenny).

Such comments clearly show that Anne's and Jenny's successful handling of social relations disconfirmed their disbeliefs about what they feared or did not feel comfortable with, and had a positive impact on their social SE (Bandura, 1982, p. 125). On the other hand, the fact that these social interactions resulted in successful enactive experiences did not occur automatically. Similarly to the circumstances under which family relations were improved, the holiday-break provided these optimal circumstances under which social interactions could be transformed to successful enactive attainments. First of all, participants had already been feeling relaxed as a result of the holiday-break, and secondly, the social environment was friendly and safe. These can be perceived as fundamental preconditions for action, given participants' lack of social confidence. Hesitation for action is characteristic among disadvantaged and oppressed populations who do not act unless they are convinced to do so (see Freire, 1972a). This said, environmental factors, such as the positive social stimuli during the holiday played an important role in influencing Anne and Jenny to exercise different and more sociable behaviours (Skinner, 1965[1953]; Heider, 1965[1958]). As Jenny mentioned people were welcoming and friendly, which made her feel relaxed, and enabled her to be more sociable. Similarly, the safe holiday environment was an important

determinant of Anne's more sociable behaviour, especially when considering her past experience of domestic violence. Domestic violence has been associated with traumatic effects on the victim's well-being, increasing levels of isolation, and anticipatory terror (Browne, 1993; Tolman and Rosen, 2001). Given that "the perception a person has with regard to another person's properties, such as *friendliness* or *aggressiveness* depend to a large extent on the individual's experience", Anne's past experiences had probably affected the way she perceived people in general (see Skinner, 1965[1953], p. 302). Indicative of this is her reference to very tall men, who perhaps she used to see as threatening due to her traumatic experience. But, Anne's and Jenny's direct contact with a new, friendlier, and safer social environment enabled them to change their negative perceptions about other people and social situations (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). As a consequence, they experienced what Heider (1965[1958], p. 180), calls "a balanced or harmonious state, one in which the entities comprising the situation and the feelings about them fit together without stress." Under this state and as the social encounter unfolded Anne and Jenny reappraised their control over the situation and exercised a different behaviour (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

Furthermore, increased social SE was found to be particularly important with regard to its positive effects on other domain-specific forms of SE, such as JFSE. In fact, JFSE was influenced to a large extent by social SE rather than GSE. This reflects the interviews' results discussed so far, according to which the holiday-break influenced mainly specific forms of SE rather than GSE. Moreover, the relationship between social SE and JFSE reflects the fact that the work environment is inherently a social environment, in which an individual with low social SE does not believe that he/she can function. In this respect it can be argued that when the person does not feel confident in his/her capability to deal effectively in social situations, such as to interact and communicate with others, he/she has also doubts about his/her capability to secure employment. In contrast, increased social SE gives the person the evidence that he/she is capable in interacting with other people, a belief that generalises to other social situations, such as the work environment. In addition, vicarious experiences were also found to strengthen the person's JFSE. These multiple effects of increased social SE, and vicarious experiences, are captured in the following comment from Anne:

***What do you think about your ability to find work since the holiday?
(Interviewer)***

Very capable, I am capable yeah[...]before the holiday I was very...you know, I got on with it but I was down in the dump, a bit worry of people and...I think the holiday put me in the thick of it and I dealt with it (Anne).

Is there something more specific about the holiday that made you think more positive about your ability to find work? (Interviewer)

Yeah I think it was just...I don't know just in general just seeing people get on with it...and you know how you watch people working and their chit-chat in and their smiles and then they do something...cause I'm a very busy person, I like to keep busy...I think the more I sit still...the more miserable I seem to feel...and you know you have the abdication...when you see someone doing something 'oh I can do that better...I can do that' you know (Anne).

Vicarious experiences refer to observational learning and comprise another important source of SE information (Bandura, 1986). As Bandura (1997, pp. 87-88) explains, “seeing or visualising people similar to oneself perform successfully typically raises efficacy beliefs in observers that they themselves possess the capabilities to master comparable activities [...] and weakens the impact of direct failure experiences in the past.” On the other hand, the extent to which the person appraises positively or negatively his/her capabilities in relation to the attainments of others, also depends on the psychological state of the person during observation (Bandura, 1986). This said numerous such experiences had been probably available in Anne’s day-to-day environment, before the holiday-break; however, positive appraisals of her capabilities in relation to the attainments of others were unlikely at that time, given that she was depressed. Under this psychological state the amount of uncertainty about the person’s capabilities is higher, which makes SE appraisals particularly sensitive to vicarious information (see Bandura, 1997). But during the holiday-break Anne was in such a psychological state that enabled positive comparisons, such as: “*I can do that better...I can do that.*”

In addition, another domain-specific form of SE upon which increased social SE was found to have positive effects, was drink-refusal SE. Although the evidence of such an effect is rather weak as it concerns only one participant who was ex-alcoholic, it can be perceived as important given the complexity of an issue, such as alcoholism:

The main thing that holiday did for me...is...I'm an ex-alcoholic...it's made me realise that even we've had...all the eyes watching me...that I still didn't need or want to drink, that was the most factor for me, that pleased me actually, that just me on my own with the fear of 'oh I can't do that because of such and such and such', that I didn't, it didn't bother me[...]and when they were all drinking around me it...it...that made me realise that I'm a lot stronger[...]I know that...I could live anywhere and still not need to drink. Obviously in that club, I wouldn't be drinking, but didn't have people like...coming over and checking what I have got...it was lovely. We met some lovely people there, didn't we? And it was so...yeah it was just so relaxing [emphasis]. And it did make me think a bit refreshed up, where nobody actually knows my past and what's happened, and it's just being me as me...you know...not...the [inaudible]ex, you know (Kate).

It must be mentioned that Kate had never been away from her home town before, and she had been long stigmatised due to her ex-alcoholism. As her husband, who was present during the interview, mentioned, they did not have any social relations back home: *“Not really, because...being here we know...we pretty much know everybody...”* On the other hand, during the holiday-break Kate and her husband had the chance to meet new and non-judgemental people and make friends. This positive experience not only enhanced Kate's social SE: *“Just made me realise that I can...I can make friends...that I would be able to do it...”*, but more importantly, that she is capable of staying away from alcohol. Given the complexity of Kate's problem, it is significant that she managed to overcome her fears and to strengthen her drink-refusal SE (Foster, Neighbors, and Young, 2014). It is quite clear from her report that the traumatic experience of been stigmatised, had resulted in a self-consciousness during social situations, which had been particularly stressful for her. According to Mead (1967[1934], p. 225), “Self-consciousness involves the individual's becoming an object to himself by taking the attitudes of other individuals toward himself/herself within an organised setting of social relationships.” Especially in cases where the individual worries about others' feedback of his/her past behaviour, alcohol acts as an inhibitor of self-aware processing, and provides psychological relief (see Hull, 1981; Bandura, 1997). As Skinner (1965[1953], p. 303) further explains, “Under such circumstances the person feels under the control of a particularly restrictive stimulus – he is not only present, he is watching us.” But within a different social environment where people were not “coming over and checking”, and did not know Kate's past, Kate felt free, less self-conscious, and not in need to consume alcohol.

Although this is not to say that a holiday-break can be perceived as a treatment to particularly complicated issues, such as alcoholism, the social environment of the holiday shares similar characteristics with effective programmes that have been devised as such treatments. For instance, a community-oriented programme developed by Hunt and Azrin was based on a supportive social environment, including a social club, which offered enjoyable and recreational weekend activities. The programme was characterised as superior to other treatments, such as Alcoholics Anonymous (see Bandura, 1997). This said, the results of the programme showed important long-term gains in terms of reduced drinking, improved family relations, and increased employment (Hunt and Azrin, 1973; Azrin, 1976). In a similar vein, positive effects on Kate's social and drink refusal SE, had in turn, positive effects on her GSE and JSB (see §5.4.3).

5.4.2.4 Subtheme 3: Going on a holiday-break

Managing to go on a holiday-break was in itself a source of positive SE information. For deprived populations, such as the unemployed, who cannot take their families on a holiday-break due to financial and other constraints, managing to do so is perceived as a really big thing, and is akin to successful enactive attainments. Given that some participants had not been on a holiday-break for years, while others had never been on a holiday before, going on a holiday was perceived as an accomplishment, which, in turn, had a positive impact on their self-concept in general, and GSE in particular. Such impact is captured in the following comment from Maria:

I felt really important, I felt like...I'm...I'm like every...any other person um...because before I was never thought I would afford...I would go to any holiday [...] I feel like everybody else, no I don't feel like there are some other things I cannot do, I feel like um I can also, I was also in a holiday (Maria).

Maria was one of those participants who had never been on a holiday-break before, due to financial reasons. This made her believe that going on a holiday was not something that she was able to do. While she describes how she felt after her holiday, she implies that before going on a holiday she used to feel that she was missing out on an important aspect of contemporary life (at least in the so called "developed" world) that other people were able to experience (see Richards, 1999; Hazel, 2005). This feeling of missing out seems that had

diminished her sense of self-esteem. In contrast, managing to go on a holiday-break gave Maria the evidence that she is like everybody else, and that she is a capable individual in general. This evidence had a positive impact on her wider self-concept, including her self-esteem and GSE. This result supports earlier social tourism studies that have found positive effects of holiday-taking on participants' self-esteem (e.g. Minnaert, 2007; Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009), and simultaneously confirms findings from psychology studies about the close relationship between self-esteem and SE (e.g. Judge, Erez, and Bono, 1998; Judge et al., 2002), in which, self-esteem actually influences SE (e.g. Eden and Aviram, 1993).

5.4.3 Positive effects on job-search behaviour

JSB refers to the pursuit of new employment, which “begins with the identification and commitment to pursuing an employment goal” and continues with the engagement in specific job-search activities (Kanfer, Wanberg, and Kantrowitz, 2001, p. 838). The frequency or intensity with which the person engages in these activities is a central component of JSB (e.g. Blau, 1993, Vuori and Vesalainen, 1999; van Hooft et al., 2004). Overall, results showed positive changes in most participants' JSB after the holiday-break. SE had a multiple impact on these changes, through increased social SE, GSE and JFSE. In fact, results showed that SSE and GSE often interacted in influencing the person's JSB. In addition, the positive impact of the holiday-break on participants' JSB was not restricted to SE effects, but it also concerned direct motivational effects of the holiday-break, and effects through general positive cognitive changes. On the other hand, such positive changes, to a large extent, did not guarantee reemployment. This said, such changes must be considered in the context of the current difficult job-market, the particularly deprived areas where participants live, and the restrictions to work that most of them face.

5.4.3.1 Theme 1: Increased self-efficacy

According to participants' frequent reports, their increased confidence levels after the holiday-break had positive effects on their JSB. Confidence levels concerned both GSE and SSE, such as social SE and JFSE. In some instances, different forms of SE worked in concert in influencing one's JSB, while in others, different forms overlapped, thus, making it particularly difficult to distinguish which form of SE exercised the given influence. On the other hand, this confirms existing evidence about the close relationships between different

forms of SE (e.g. Eden and Kinnar, 1991; Eden, 2001). In addition, positive influences of SE were identified in several stages of JSB, including attitudes towards specific job-search activities, the actual behaviour while executing these activities, and responses after job-search failures. More specifically, increased social SE and GSE were found to be particularly influential with regard to job-search activities that require personal contact, such as job-interviews. Examples of these effects are captured in the following comments from Lily and Jenny:

You know, I usually used to be a little bit anxious about talking to people I don't really know, and um...being away with people who you don't know, and you know, it's just me and the children...I've started to talk to other people that I didn't know about...lot little different things...and general small talking and things like that and um it just made me think that I can communicate very...um a lot better than I think I can, so in terms of interview yeah I guess I won't be as anxious when talking to people I don't know (Lily).

Well, obviously I still applied and still looked around, but I think I may be a little bit more focused on it now...a little bit more confident...maybe a little bit more...applied for just a couple of more weeks than I would have done maybe [...] but being more confident in actually applying...so um I can pick up the phone and phone...for people's and [inaudible] as well [...] I did go for an interview not a long ago...um and I phoned up and asked if they've made their decision and apparently um hadn't got the job...but I asked feedback I asked for it...but before probably I wouldn't have (Jenny).

The job-interview can be a stressful job-search activity for most people, and especially for those who do not feel confident about their social skills, such as many of the study's participants. As such, increases in social SE can play a particularly important role in the way the person perceives such activity (Lily), and consequently, in the way he/she actually responds during the actual job-interview (Jenny). Although Lily, for instance, talks about a hypothetical situation, as she had not been on a job-interview before, this perception is still important given that the way a person perceives a stressful situation is a significant determinant of his/her behaviour while experiencing the actual situation (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Jenny for instance, reported that she was more confident during the actual situation. Furthermore, increased social SE does not only facilitate the person's job-search, but most importantly determines the success of this search. Soft skills, such as communication and interpersonal skills are significant determinants of employability

(McQuaid and Lindsay, 2005). Communication skills in specific are often perceived by employers as the most important criterion of an unemployed person's employability, especially in today's service economy, and if the candidate exhibits such skills they often do not demand more job-related skills and qualifications (Newton et al., 2005). As such, given that the modern work environment itself, and job-interviews as the way to enter it, are focused on social skills, requiring from individuals to be confident and comfortable in their interactions with others, many of the participants would have been rather incompetent from the beginning.

On the other hand, enhanced beliefs in their capabilities to socialise and communicate successfully with other people enhanced their competency. In addition, the identified positive effects confirm that successful enactive experiences within the holiday's social environment that enabled participants to strengthen their social SE generalised to a different social situation, such as the job-interview (Bandura, Adams, and Beyer, 1977). In addition, increased social SE and GSE had a positive impact on Jenny's job-search commitment and intensity. She was more focused during the job-search process, she applied for a longer period of time and she asked for feedback after a job-interview. Asking for feedback after an unsuccessful job-interview is also an indication of the person's persistence. This said, under this particularly difficult situation where the person fails to secure employment, JFSE and GSE were found to play a crucial role. Jenny and Dave said:

Well um sometimes it's hard going...yeah it's just bringing me down so...no I keep going...I'm not gonna give-up [...] Well I failed at my driving test as well last week...so...and...I didn't get any job on the same sort of week so I was pretty down I thought what's the point?...I can't get rid of my test, I can't get a job [...] but I'm thinking it wasn't all that bad, instead of me being a bag of nerves so I could usually go 'oh god, oh god, I can't do my test' [emphasis] I know now...I'm a bit more confident I just go, 'common then just do it again'[...]it's again it was just the experience they went for somebody with more experience...so...I was a bit upset about it I'd say, but I just tried to look at the positive and think well...there must have been a reason why I didn't get that job...probably it wouldn't have suited me or maybe the hours wasn't good anyway and...so then I'm not thinking I couldn't get the job (Jenny).

Um before the holiday I was starting to wine down and think what's the point, you know, you get to that point when you've applied for that many jobs and you think 'well I'm never I'm gonna get a job so what's the point?'[...]But then I had

the holiday, a little break from it and...that were it...the confidence came back and the push came back [...] Yeah...um it was a lot better having that gap...um because the gap helped...because it was a break from doing the daily applying for jobs, CV's...um...so having that break...um short of pushed me a bit harder to look for work, but also it makes me accept, that, yeah there's not a lot of work out there [...]I've been on...2 job interviews...yeah I was satisfied with myself, I think I came across really confident, it was just the fact that, there were so many applicants (Dave).

As it is apparent from these reports, unsuccessful job interviews are particularly frustrating, especially when they reflect repeated failures as it is usually the case with long-term unemployed individuals. Such feelings of frustration can lead to a person's withdrawal from the job-search process. This is a critical point in the job-search process as the person is likely to think that he/she cannot succeed. One's belief that he/she cannot is akin to the learning helplessness theory, according to which, the person thinks that his/her behaviour and outcomes are unrelated (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale, 1978). This belief is often accompanied by passivity and loss of motivation as the person finds it pointless to continue his/her effort. Indicative of this is what Dave says about the way he used to think in the past about similar situations. Nevertheless, Jenny and Dave did not give up and they continued to look for work. It is important that despite their unsuccessful job-interviews, they did not doubt about their capability to find a job (JFSE), but in contrast, they attributed this failure to external factors. This explanation of failure is particularly significant as it prevents the person from explaining this negative outcome with internal causes, which causes greater loss in self-esteem (Graham and Weiner, 2004[1996]). This new self-aiding thinking helped Jenny and Dave to overcome quickly the initial frustration from the rejection, and kept them motivated in their job-search effort. Moreover, and as Dave said, the holiday was a break from the stressful application process, which boosted him to intensify his job-search upon his return back home. Given that job searching is a full-time job, and the stressful character of this process especially after one's repeated failures to secure employment, the unemployed person has the urgent need to recharge his/her batteries first, before engaging again in this process. In others words, the holiday-break can play for the unemployed the same important role that plays for employed people, serving as a way to recreate the individual so he/she can maintain his/her productivity, thus, restituting him/her to the society (Cohen, 1979b; Jafari, 1987).

It must be stressed at this point that initiating effort and retaining motivation is even more significant when someone considers the wider context of barriers that unemployed people face, and the fact that looking for work is not an isolated process in one's life. Jenny, for instance, managed to stay motivated in her job-search effort while facing significant financial problems. In fact, she kept trying to pass her driving test in order to enhance her possibilities to find a job outside her small town. In addition, she was considering moving to another area with better job prospects: *"so...it...it's just if I had more cash obviously, that's a barrier as well but...I keep saying to the girls it will be beneficial...so that being out and get a job maybe in further afield cause our town is so small...so either that or I'm gonna move."* Widening the geographic parameters of job-search activity increases the likelihood of finding a job (Shildrick et al., 2012b).

In addition, positive effects on JSB were also manifested through a combination of factors, including several forms of SE and vicarious experiences. This result confirms that SE, despite its central role in human motivation, is one among other factors that influence one's initiation of effort, thus, it is not the sole determinant of action (Bandura, 1997). Indicative of such multiple effects is the case of Kate. Through observation or a vicarious experience during the holiday she realised that she wants to find a particular job. The motivational effects of this experience in conjunction with her increased job-finding and general confidence boosted her job searching effort, which led to a part-time job. Moreover, increased general and social confidence helped her as well in her functioning in the new and demanding work environment. Kate and her husband said:

First thing I said we were on the sea front, I've...I've always wanted to have my own chip-shop [...] but looking on those on the sea front, oh I always wanted to have one of them, and now I've got that little part-time, it's only a couple of hours, but I'm working at the chippy for a couple of hours...can't do any more than that because it affects your benefits don't it?...and they can't give me 15 hours cause it's a bit of a...umm (Kate).

[...]When you first got there it was a bit sort of daunting for you...(Kate's husband).

Very, to start with yeah (Kate)

To start with, but it was something you wanted, and then so... the holiday in a way sort of did help like...with the...the confidence as well...the confidence for it to find work, the enthusiasm (Kate's husband).

For me it was just getting back...out there...back in the community basically [...]Meeting all those different people and...made me...a kind of like I'm in narrows, don't go anywhere, or I don't see anyone (Kate).

But realising that there are good people out there who are not gonna judge you for...who you've been and what you've done so the holiday sort of gave her the confidence to...go and get something...made her think that (Kate's husband).

And even in my own area...I mean I know most of the people that come to the chip, people, they are all still...fine, they are all still the same (Kate).

She was always worried what people thinking of...(Kate's husband).

What people are thinking about me, are they talking behind my back? (Kate).

Such positive changes cognitive and behavioural, irrespectively of whether the person succeeds in his/her job-search effort or not, are significant given the low confidence levels of many participants before the holiday-break, and the traumatic circumstances that some of them had experienced in the past. Considering this context, Kate's experience of social undermining due to her ex-alcoholism, was a significant barrier to reemployment. Social undermining refers to "disruptive and stressful social relationships, in which the individual is the target of actions that directly undermine and diminish the sense of his/her self-worth" and has been found to have a negative impact on the person's efforts to seek and a find a job (Vinokur et al., 2000, p. 36). It is apparent that under such circumstances the individual needs to exercise much more effort than an ordinary job seeker, something that Kate actually did. With regard to the positive effects of observation, it can be argued that such effects could also occur in Kate's everyday environment, where there are many similar shops; however, before the holiday-break Kate did not seem to be in such a psychological state that could allow for motivational effects. Finally, Kate's reference to the benefit system reflects the rapport established between the interviewer and the participants, and the honesty with which the latter talked about particularly sensitive issues.

5.4.3.2 Theme 2: Holiday-break as incentive

A rather unexpected yet clear pattern among the interview data was participants' perception of the holiday-break as an incentive towards paid employment. It can be said that this result confirms the fundamental role of incentives in human motivation (e.g. Lewin, 1935; Atkinson, 1957). More specifically, half of the respondents stressed that they viewed

paid employment as the way through which they could have again this opportunity to take their families on a holiday-break. The importance of holiday-taking in low-income groups' attitudes towards employment has been mentioned in a recent non-tourism study conducted by Shildrick et al. (2012b); however, no links have been identified between this perception and increased JSB. Evidence of such links was frequently reported both by respondents who had found a paid job after the holiday-break and by those who continued to search for work. Maria and Dave said:

Can you please tell me how do you explain that, how did the holiday affect your motivation to try finding a job? (Interviewer)

Well it just motivated me... that maybe if I can find work, I will be able to take my family on holidays...and then maybe we could do more of those kind of things like going on holiday (Maria).

Since the holiday...um...well life has been... good and um...and um...yeah I force(d) myself to find work and see if maybe a next time I will take some time out on holiday again you know yeah...(Maria).

Can you please tell me how did you feel going on a job-interview since you came back? (Interviewer)

Um...um ha it was a bit hard but...um...really I would say I was preparing myself even more before I go cause I was really determined that I want this job...yeah...so maybe that would be the difference (Maria).

Have you thought of looking for job since you came back from the holiday? (Interviewer)

Yes um I'm really determined to find work now (Dave)

And how can you explain that? (Interviewer)

Um it's just the fact that it made me more job-focused, as I've said before...because I want more chances to get away, and the more money I have the better I can...like book a week away once a year (Dave).

Maria found work after the holiday-break, while Dave was still looking; however, both of them were more determined to find a job since they returned from their holiday-break. Maria's increased determination resulted in a more effective job searching, and a better preparation with regard to specific job-search activities, such as attending a job-interview, which enabled her to secure employment. Dave on the other hand, continued to search for work despite his unsuccessful efforts. His determination shows that increased motivation initiates more intensive effort even under stressful and frustrating circumstances, such as repeated failures to find a job. Furthermore, it is important to note that the motivational

role of the holiday as incentive to find paid employment had also a positive impact on participants who were not active job seekers, due to several constraints:

I'm not in a position right now but...definitely encouraged me to think about you know, the fact that...it would be a bonus to be able to work and provide a very good holiday for them...and...also for us to get that time along again where it's just us (Lily).

Um I see a future, positivity um and I've said just...I just want, you know I want it to be a thing that we gonna do...like, you know every year I think you know it's a nice thing to do...go have a break, take your family there...and you know, and whatever problem you're having or even...you know I just think it's a really good thing [...] yeah it's definitely...give me motivation, and thinking in the future, you know, going back to work [...] Because obviously you know in life you have to work to have you know nice things, to have holiday and things like that (Joanne).

In general, it could be argued that motivation to find a job so one can afford to go on a holiday again, has a wider meaning as the holiday represents access to a better life. Especially in today's materialistic societies, employment as a means to afford some of the life's luxuries, including holidays, is perhaps among the most important motivating forces for a large proportion of the population. This is akin to Skinner's (1965[1953]) theory of reinforcement, according to which, "an individual is induced to work through reinforcement with money or goods" (p. 384). But while for many the annual holiday is one among the many attractive attributes of employment, for low-income and disadvantaged groups is perhaps the only one or one among very few such attributes. This is due to the fact that the most important of the latent or vitamin functions of employment (see Jahoda, 1981, 1982; Warr, 1987, 2007) rather do not apply to the vast majority of jobs available to low-income and/or long-term unemployed populations. Many of the low-paid and temporary-types of jobs may afford neither these functions as they are often de-humanising, nor a sufficient income to lift workers out of poverty (Jahoda, 1982; Ezzy, 2001; Levitas, 2006). In addition, such jobs may cause further problems (e.g. cost of childcare). Thus, the attractiveness (or positive valence) of such jobs is in sharp contrast to the usually rewarding character of white-collar jobs. In this respect, the choice of employment often depicts an avoidance-avoidance conflict, which means that the person has to make a choice between two negatively valenced alternatives, namely, unemployment, and low-paid employment which is often low-satisfying and temporary (Lewin, 1935; Graham and Weiner, 2004[1996]).

These circumstances may explain why employment is not always seen as an end in itself, but as a means to another end, such as a rewarding family holiday. Under these conditions, personal efficacy and even strong skills may not be sufficient determinants of active JSB, and a strong incentive can be particularly important. According to Bandura (1986, p. 395), “persons may possess the constituent skills and a strong sense of efficacy that they can execute them well, but they still choose not to perform the activities because they have no incentives to do so.” In contrast, the increased desire of an individual to obtain employment is one of the antecedents of the level of one’s JSB (Kanfer et al., 2001). With regard to the non job seekers, such as Joanne and Lily, it cannot be certain, of course, whether the motivational role of the holiday-break will have positive effects on their actual JSB in the future. Nevertheless, results among non job seekers, showed positive behavioural changes, which concerned initiation of effort with regard to alternative paths to employment, thus, they can give an indication of positive JSB changes in the future. These results were not exclusively attributable to the perception of the holiday-break as incentive, but to a combination of positive effects, which co-influenced participants’ behaviour, and are discussed analytically in the next section of this chapter.

5.4.4 Positive effects on behaviours towards alternative paths to employment

The holiday-break did not have positive effects on all participants’ JSB. Some participants could not engage directly in active job searching, due to several constraints to employment, including caring responsibilities and other personal barriers, such as depression, and lack of previous work experience. This confirms that the extent to which an individual engages in employment activities is “a complex interplay that apart from motives and goals, personal, emotional, and social tendencies, also involves unique personal and situational conditions” (Kanfer et al., 2001). On the other hand, half of the non-seekers followed alternative paths to employment after the holiday-break, such as studying and volunteering. Lily and Anne said:

Um little things that I’ve looked into like volunteering...I really do enjoy children’s company and...I’m looking into at the moment see if I can volunteer to do and work with children for few hours to help the future for me in terms of when I do...I’m gonna be studying in September...and it’s make me think that at least if I was advised that if I do a bit of voluntary work when I do decide to look for work

I will be in a better position...because I will have a little bit of experience and um...very motivating in terms of thinking about...having these things for the children in the future (Lily).

Yeah, I've now got personal advisor in the jobcentre and uh we're going through um new courses, obviously to find out which one suit me and what else I can do and help me funding if they can and...he came up with another one...cause I'm a paint decorator I love painting...and all sorts and he came over an idea...of um on odd days when I've got an afternoon spare...if I can ring up companies and offer my services as a volunteer...if they need you know, big companies need a hand with just painting and things like that...obviously if I'm...if I'm crap I will go back but cause it's free a lot of companies will...jump at it and then you might, you know going from there to find a bit more (Anne).

Alternative paths to employment are significant as from one hand they can be seen as preparatory steps towards employment, and from another hand they reflect the person's motivation towards future employment. For example, given that instant employment was not an option for Lily, she chose alternatives that could eventually enhance her job prospects. This is what Lewin (1935, p. 181) calls substitution, which refers to "the actions arising in situations in which one cannot reach a certain goal", and therefore replaces this goal with another. On the other hand, here, this replacement is temporary and a step towards the person's goal. As Lewin (1935, p. 185) further explains, "The direct dynamic contact of the substitute action with the original task is very important for the substitute value." On the other hand, these changes did not happen automatically, but were the result of multiple positive effects of the holiday-break, which were developed gradually. Indicative of these positive effects are the following comments from Anne and Lily:

I used to have days where...I'd...you know...thinking 'why do I get up in the morning?' and things like that you know (Anne).

Do you deal with things better now? (Anne's welfare agent)

Yeah, a lot better...I don't know I think it [the holiday-break] gave me...like...what you've said, a rest point...definitely...but just...the tedious day to day things seem more...more worth it...if you know what I mean [...] Now I'm quite happy to get up in the morning and, you know, match the boys around [...] I feel like um...I don't know, I feel like a fire now...I feel like...wherever it takes me years, a decade you know...I'm gonna keep striving...you know, I've got many of years...I've got plenty of years (Anne).

Um I've...I've been on medi...I was on medication for...nearly a year...before...I went on holiday with the children and um...after I came back it wasn't that long

after I came off the medication, and I think that just the peace and quiet and...them understanding...my point of view about things, cause they had time to talk to me too...and so...their behaviour has definitely improved and...my patience definitely improved since (Lily).

Anne and Lily suffered from depressive symptoms and depression before the holiday-break. Such mental health issues are characterised by hopelessness, self-neglect, passive and often apathetic behaviour. As a result, it is rather unlikely that a person under these circumstances is in the position to look for and find work (Shildrick et al., 2012b). First, changes within the individual and a series of small steps are necessary in order for the person to stand up on his/her feet and to overcome these personal barriers. It is rather unrealistic to expect from long-term unemployed individuals who experience multiple disadvantages to be in a position to apply for job vacancies without first trying to work on the basics. Through these steps the person realises his/her desire and capability to live a more fulfilling life, and sees employment as an integral part of this new life. This said, the holiday-break had an important contribution in participants' psychological functioning, which is an essential step before the person's active engagement in job searching (see Bandura, 1986, p. 393). There lied the significant role of the holiday-break, which helped some participants "to get back to the basics" as Anne's welfare agent stressed.

For Anne, the holiday-break was a rest-point that boosted her confidence and optimism and made her realise a more positive side of things. It is evident from her report that increased optimism boosted her motivation for action and further positive cognitive changes. More specifically, she found meaning in getting up in the morning and she decided to give priority to herself and her needs. These changes are significant given that the experience of traumatic circumstances and depression are associated with pessimism and the neglect of one's self (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). Anne realised her need for self-growth and her aspirations, which led to general behavioural changes, such as starting setting goals, making plans, and working toward these plans. In addition, having some quite time for herself during the holiday, and the chance to assess day-to-day problems from a distance, helped her realise problematic aspects of her life, which she improved after the holiday. For Lily, the relaxing holiday-experience and the improvement in her family relations helped her to come off medication. Overcoming depression or depressive symptoms is a precondition

before any other cognitive changes evolve within the individual. This is captured in the following comments from Anne and Lily:

It always seemed to be that I was living to...suit other people or look after other people or...you know [...] I say I got things done that needed to be done for...my children...but things for me and that I wanted I didn't really think about at all...it just...it wasn't really there [...] now I wanna...I feel like if I put myself first then I'll be...then I'll have a better life [...] I think I found a bit of me when we were on holiday [...] I don't know, I've started to set more targets obviously since coming back the first thing I thought was the next one, the next holiday ha...um I was yeah...I'm setting a lot more goals of being doing um driving theory, um applying for courses and...things...I just wanna...get back out there now [...] I want to move out, being to a house and start sorting out the family pair and a car you know...knuckle down and get things done now (Anne).

Um just having the time when I was away to look at...things and looking at everything a little bit more clear from being broken away from the normal get up and go of every day, and...I can see that work is a possibility...definitely is a possibility [...] When I was there I was thinking about my future in terms of...what I can offer to the children....how how much better I can do for them and myself...and thinking about what...way can I go? What kind of hours do I have to work with? How can I improve time with them as well? [...] Which was the closest college? Which one was offering me the hours that I could...can do with the children and...wouldn't involve having someone to watch them? and...I really got time to have a look through [...] And during that time I realised that most of my key problems were time management and I've...I've made improvements in that already...and I can see that, that is a part of what was having me to feel overwhelmed and not looking at...the...terms of working things as positively as I could have (Lily).

In addition, observation had a positive impact on Lily career aspirations:

Yeah when we were on holiday and they had these...one of the sessions for arts and craft with the children and I...I didn't see it in the programme but we had come near to the building...when they do it and it was all glass and open and...then I thought...what they were doing with these small children it made me really think about it a lot in terms of working with children...they were doing umm painting with their feet and hands and...I just looked in and actually think I would enjoy doing that...with children and...so yeah (Lily).

Lily's realisation after attending a programme for children during the holiday-break shows the importance of vicarious experiences in shaping career aspirations. Within the context of this study, vicarious experiences have been discussed with regard to SE; however, their role

is much wider affecting human cognition in general. Given their positive effects either on JFSE or on showing directions to specific career paths, results showed that in both cases, such experiences can be particularly relevant to employment. This said, such experiences could be incorporated into more organised forms of social tourism for unemployed people, where participants would have the chance to learn about professions and trades in the host communities.

5.4.5 Non-effects

So far the discussion of results revolved around positive effects of the holiday break on participants' JSB and alternative paths to employment, respectively. On the other hand, half of the non job-seekers did not report any positive effects. These participants made explicit that they faced important barriers to employment, such as caring responsibilities:

Yeah I've got...ability to find but...I am a single dad with three children so...at the minute it's a bit difficult...two are in school and...I've got a little girl that she hasn't started yet...but as soon as she does...I don't know, I'll probably I will find a job (Simon).

Well, I'm classed as a full-time carer, cause with both boys I'm in special needs...because they used to send me for the...is it the 6 months review at the Job-Centre? Well since I've had the boys...well they call me to have a word, but they say at the moment they can't force me into work [...] Um I mean if I haven't got the boys, I'd probably looked for work, and yeah cause I think everybody should (Sarah).

Um...I still don't know if I can um because I'm my wife's carer um...I...I don't know whether I'm allowed to it yet, cause um I had to quit my job to...otherwise the social services would have taken all my kids away...and they haven't told me whether I've the right to go back to work yet [...] Yeah I think um when my Mrs is well enough, and you know, and she comes off disability carer's allowance and all that and then I will have to go out to work and, you know, but...cause...cause my wife is still poorly and she is on medications from the doctor and stuff I still need to be around um help out, but yeah I can walk in to a job tomorrow (Nick).

There is a plethora of evidence that caring responsibilities limit labour market participation (e.g. Moen, 1979; Dorling, 2010; Shildrick et al., 2012b). Although women's attitudes to work have been traditionally affected more by their caring responsibilities (e.g. Jackson and Warr, 1984; Gallie and Vogler, 1994; Bailey, 2006), the study's results show that such

responsibilities affect men as well. Notwithstanding any gender differences, childcare in particular is a significant barrier to employment due to its high cost (OECD, 2007). The UK has been among the countries with the most expensive childcare both in Europe and worldwide, a phenomenon that mainly affects low-income families (they spend 20% of their income) and lone parents (they spend 16% of their income) (Plantenga and Remery, 2009; The Guardian, 2012). In addition, available childcare services do not seem to facilitate much the combination of paid work with care responsibilities. Despite the provision of subsidies from the government, such as tax-credits for low-income employed families, parents still bear most of the cost of childcare (75%), which is an amount that many of them, and especially lone parents are unable to afford, given the low paid and part-time jobs available in the labour market (OECD, 2007; Plantenga and Remery, 2009; Shildrick et al., 2012b). As such, despite the importance of affordable childcare services as a means to enhance the reconciliation of work and family life, its current costs remains particularly high.

Given the restrictions that caring responsibilities impose upon individuals, who would otherwise search for work, childcare assistance from other family members (e.g. informal sharing of childcare) could be a partial solution (Shildrick et al., 2012b). Of course, this assistance presupposes the availability of the right person within the family who can undertake this responsibility. This is perhaps, one of the reasons why other participants did not mention informal sharing of childcare as an option. All of them had small children, with the exception of Sarah who had an adult daughter with ill-health. But in addition, this assistance depends on the willingness of this person to help. With regard to the latter, good family relations are particularly important. Jenny had such restrictions to work due to her caring responsibilities as a single mother; however, she mentioned that her eldest daughter was willing to help with the childcare of her youngest daughter:

My eldest daughter said she will help me out ...if I'll get a job that needs...you know, that's (laughs) that's um a big lead forward isn't it? So...quite shocked (laughs)...I don't think she'll do it for five days a week, but she might do it for once or something (Jenny).

Jenny, and her daughter, for instance, did not have a close relationship before the holiday-break. In fact, their relationship was rather tensed, and her daughter did not feel as a part of

the family unit. Under these circumstances, it can be argued that it would be rather unlikely for Jenny's daughter to offer helping her with childcare. On the other hand the holiday-break had a positive impact on their relationship and strengthened her daughter's sense of belongingness in the family:

Yes there is definitely improvement especially in my eldest daughter where she feels... more...as a family because she didn't live with me for a few years you see...um as she came back to live in the family unit with me and my other daughter...so she has always find herself maybe a little bit out, but now she is feeling more as part of the family so...even Christmas when we're thinking oh we're going to spend a lot of time with each other...you know that kind be quite stressful...but it didn't turn out that way so...I think we are both more positive at the time that we've spent (Jenny).

5.5 Conclusion

This chapter presented and discussed the results of the semi-structured interviews. Results showed that the holiday-break had positive effects on participants' SE and JSB. It offered participants an enabling environment, where positive psychological changes (affective, cognitive, motivational and behavioural changes) developed. With regard to SE, effects concerned, to a large extent, positive changes in domain-specific forms of SE (SSE), such as parental-efficacy and social SE, as well as JFSE. Effects on GSE were also reported, but they were mainly resulted by increases in different forms of SSE. Overall, such increases had, in turn, positive effects on participant's JSB. In addition, the holiday-break had direct motivational effects on many participants' JSB, as it was perceived as an incentive towards employment. Positive effects either direct or through increased SE were also identified on participants' behaviour with regard to alternative paths to employment, such as volunteering. On the other hand, such positive changes were not universal among participants. Results confirmed earlier findings from unemployment studies, according to which, restrictions to work, such as caring responsibilities, comprise a significant barrier to employment for unemployed parents.

Chapter 6 Conclusions

6.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the study's conclusions. It first reiterates the research questions as these were set out in Chapter 2, and then discusses the integrated quantitative and qualitative results in relation to the research questions. The answers to each research question consist of three sections: the first presents a brief synopsis of the quantitative results, the second summarises the respective qualitative results, while the third mixes the findings from both data sets and discusses them as a whole. The chapter continues with the research contributions of the study, its implications for policy, and some necessary remarks about the timely issues of public expenditure, unemployment, and welfare in the UK, which are essential in the future debate on social tourism in the country. The chapter finishes with a discussion on the limitations of the study, and recommendations for further research.

6.2 Reiteration of research questions

The study addressed the following research questions, sub-questions and hypotheses:

Q1. To what extent does the holiday-break affect participants' SE?

SQ1. To what extent does the holiday-break affect participants' GSE?

Hypothesis 1: Participants' GSE will increase after the holiday-break.

Q2. What is the relationship between GSE and SSE?

SQ2. To what extent do changes in participants' GSE affect their JFSE?

Hypothesis 2: Changes in participants' GSE will affect positively changes in their JFSE.

Q3. To what extent changes in participants' SE affect their JSB?

SQ3. To what extent do changes in participants' JFSE affect their JSB?

Hypothesis 3: Changes in participants' JFSE will affect positively their JSB.

Q4: To what extent do background characteristics affect changes in participants' a) GSE, b) JFSE, and c) JSB?

Hypothesis 5a: i) Younger participants, and ii) those with higher educational level, are more likely to show an increase in their GSE.

Hypothesis 5b: i) Participants with no restrictions to work, ii) males, iii) the middle aged in the labour force, iv) the short-term unemployed, v) those with higher educational level, and vi) those with white-collar background are more likely to show an increase in their JFSE.

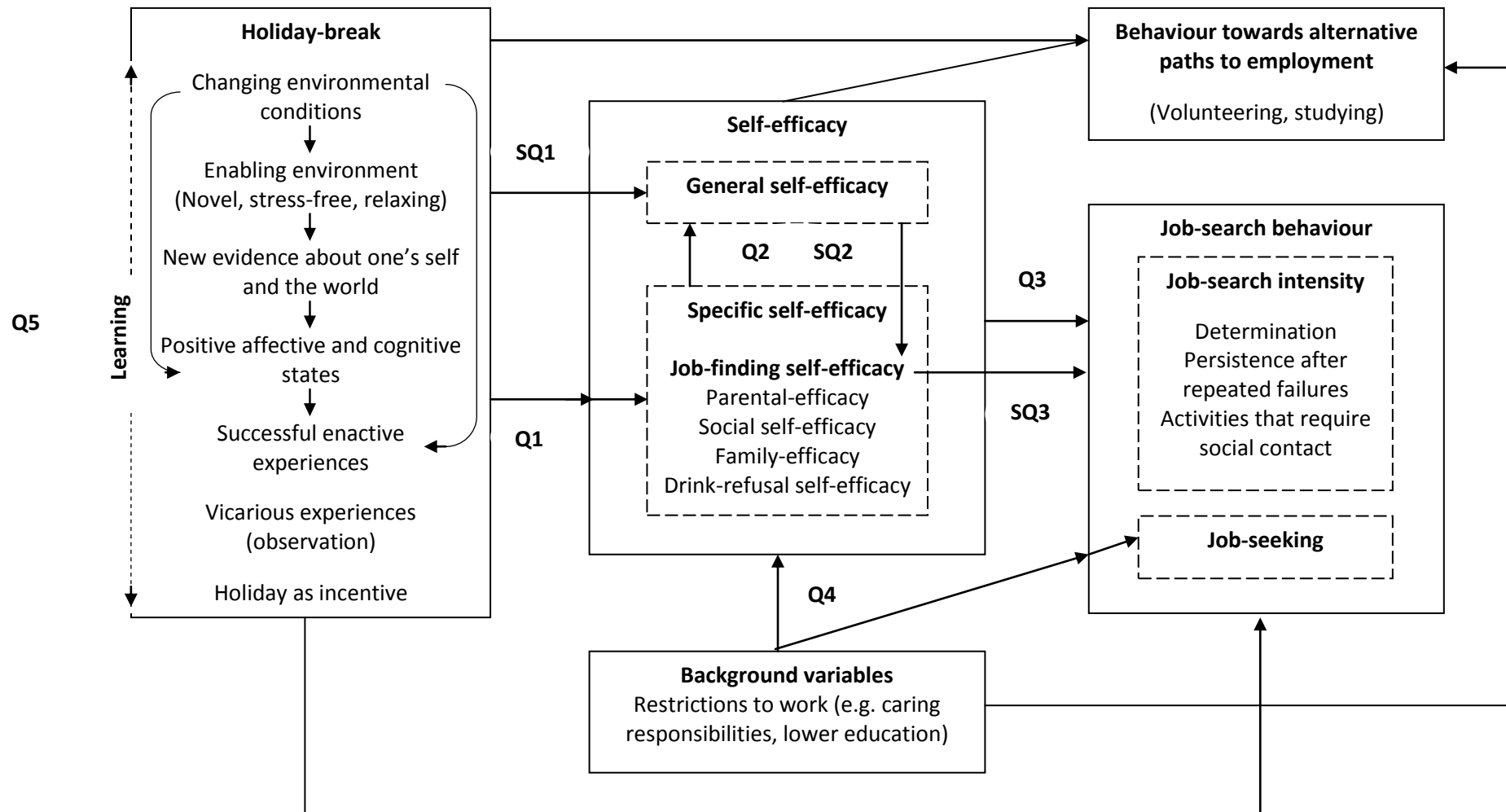
Hypothesis 5c: i) Participants with no restrictions to work, ii) males, iii) the middle aged in the labour force, iv) the short-term unemployed, v) those with higher educational level, and vi) those with white-collar background are more likely to show an increase in their JSB.

Q5. How are the effects in participants' SE and JSB manifested?

6.2.1 Revised conceptual framework

These research questions shaped the study's conceptual framework as this was introduced in the beginning of the study (see Chapter 2). After answering these questions the conceptual framework was revised, as some new relationships and concepts were identified, and it took its final form, which is presented in figure 6.1. The new framework includes the direct effects of the holiday-break on participants' JSB, and it also introduces a new concept, namely, 'behaviours towards alternative paths to employment' (BAPE). This revised framework includes the direct effects of the holiday-break on participants' BAPE; the effects of SE on participants' BAPE; and the effects of sociodemographic characteristics on participants' BAPE. Moreover, this final version of the framework includes the processes, through which, the various positive effects of the holiday-break were manifested, and aspects of job-search intensity, which were identified as particularly important within the study's context. Research hypotheses are not depicted in the figure, due to space limitations; however, they are embedded in the respective research questions, and sub-questions. For instance, H1 is included in SQ1, H2 in SQ2 and so forth.

Figure 6.1 Revised conceptual framework



6.3 Effects of the holiday-break on self-efficacy

6.3.1 Quantitative results

In the quantitative phase of the study, self-efficacy (SE) was conceptualised and measured as general self-efficacy (GSE), and job-finding self-efficacy (JFSE), respectively. Results from the pre- post-holiday survey showed increases in both forms of SE after the holiday-break, however, while the increase in GSE was not statistically significant, the increase in JFSE reached statistical significance. More specifically, in Chapter 4 pre- post-holiday changes in participants' GSE [$\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$] were examined using the New General Self-efficacy (NGSE) scale, which is one of the three most widely used GSE scales, and which in comparisons with the other two measures, has been found to be superior, in many respects. The paired-samples t-test showed a moderate and non-statistically significant increase in post-holiday GSE. With regard to JFSE, pre- post holiday changes [$\Delta(\text{JFSE T2} - \text{JFSE T1})$] were examined using the single-item measure "I can find paid work if I want to", which has been used in previous studies focusing on SE for employment or reemployment SE. It was acknowledged that single-item measures of SE may have lower test-retest reliability than multiple item measures, but they can have high convergent validity, and higher predictive validity. The paired-samples t-test showed a statistically significant increase in post-holiday JFSE ($p = .005$) with a large effect size (Eta squared = .13). These results do not prove that positive changes in participants' GSE and JFSE were due to the holiday-break; however, the results from the survey's open-ended questions strengthened the assumption that the holiday-break caused, to a larger or lesser extent, these positive changes. Almost half of the respondents (49%) reported that the holiday-break had a positive impact on several aspects of their self-concept, such as general-confidence, parental-confidence, self-worth, and self-image. Given that SE is an integral part of one's wider self-concept, and that it shares conceptual similarities with self-confidence, it can be argued that SE, either in its general or specific forms, was also boosted by the holiday-break.

6.3.2 Qualitative results

In addition to the identified effects of the holiday-break on participants' GSE and JFSE, qualitative results, also allowed for effects on other forms of SE to emerge. This said, the qualitative analysis provided evidence that the holiday-break had positive effects on GSE, JFSE, parental- and family-efficacy, social SE, and, in one case, even on drink-refusal SE.

Maria, for instance, stressed that she felt more capable in general as a result of the holiday-break: *"I felt really important, I felt like...any other person um...because before I was never thought I would afford...I would go to any holiday [...] I feel like everybody else, no I don't feel like there are some other things I cannot do, I feel like um I can also, I was also in a holiday"* (GSE). In a similar vein, since coming back for her holiday, Jenny, started thinking more positively, and she did not attribute unsuccessful job-interviews to her ability to find a job: *"...I just tried to look at the positive and think well...there must have been a reason why I didn't get that job...probably it wouldn't have suited me or maybe the hours wasn't good anyway and...so then I'm not thinking I couldn't get the job"* (JFSE). With regard to the holiday's effects on participants' social SE and parental-efficacy, indicative are the following comments from Kate, and Jenny, respectively: *"Just made me realise that I can make friends..."* (Social SE); *"I do feel more confident to be the parent [...] I know that I'm capable of filling the day...capable of feeding..."* (Parental-efficacy). Such effects were to a large extent, indirect: the holiday-break had boosted one form of SE, which, in turn, had positive effects in another form of SE. These relationships are discussed analytically in the next section of this chapter (see §6.4). In addition, qualitative analysis provided evidence that the idea of going on a holiday-break had also positive, indirect effects on participants' GSE, before actually going on holiday. The vast majority of interviewees reported that they perceived the holiday-break as a major life event and as a unique opportunity to get away from their deprived and pressurised day-to-day environments. For this reason, they expected it with great anticipation, and they perceived it as a form of relief. Peter and Kate, for example, said: *"You look forward to something...it does give you that goal to aim for other than think...same day in day out"* (Peter); *As soon as the train pulled of it was like 'phewwww' [emphasis] [...] we're off [emphasis]* (Kate). Such perceptions about their holiday-break enhanced participants' mood, which, in turn, could have boosted their GSE.

6.3.3 Integrated results

Overall, and with regard to the first overarching research question, both quantitative and qualitative findings showed that the holiday-break had positive effects on participants' SE. Results from the surveys showed positive changes in participants' GSE and JFSE after the holiday-break, and also increases in several aspects of their self-concept (open-ended questions), which all together gave an indication that these effects were actually due to the

holiday-break. Qualitative results from the semi-structured interviews revealed positive effects of the holiday-break on several different forms of participants' SE, namely, parental- and family-efficacy, social SE, and JFSE and GSE, while confirming the central role of the holiday-break in the emergence of such effects. On the other hand, and as both data sets showed, the magnitude (not with the narrow quantitative meaning) of these effects varied. This said, and with regard to the first sub-question, which concerns exclusively GSE, quantitative and qualitative results, showed that any increases were neither statistically significant nor frequently and consistently reported to form a strong pattern among the data, respectively. This finding is consistent with what is already known about personality traits, such as GSE, which reflect the accumulation of lifetime experiences, and as such, they are more stable over time (see James, 1907; Jerusalem and Mittag, 1995; Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001).

On the other hand, this result is contrary to the large increase in GSE, at least in terms of statistical significance, that has been reported by some earlier studies, such as Eden's and Aviram's (1993), and Schwoerer et al.'s (2005). However, these studies differ from the current study, in many respects: First, both studies used Sherer et al.'s (1982) General Self-Efficacy Scale, thus, proper comparisons cannot be made; second, Sherer et al.'s scale has been found to have lower construct validity than the NGSE scale which was used in the current study (see Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001; Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006). As such, and given that its items were less consistently related to GSE than the NGSE scales' items, results from these studies must be seen with some cautiousness; third, both studies used specifically designed training to boost GSE. In Eden's and Aviram's study, for instance, unemployed individuals attended a two and a half - weeks training workshop; and fourth, their samples were different to a larger or lesser extent, from this study's sample. Schwoerer et al. conducted their study among employed people, and Eden and Aviram among short-term (for up to 18 weeks) unemployed individuals. Moreover, in the latter study important sociodemographic variables, such as age, which, perhaps, could have been affected the study's results, were not available. In contrast, the 'intervention' of the current study had the form of a short holiday-break between three and seven nights (for 70.2% of participants this was between three and four nights), and it was not designed to boost participants' GSE. In addition, participants were in their vast majority over 30 years old

(65%), long-term unemployed (75.4%), and had been experiencing many compounding disadvantages. As such, and considering the characteristics of this study, it was less likely for any statistically-significant changes to occur. On the other hand, and considering the same characteristics again, it can be argued that even the small increases in unemployed parents GSE are important.

Moreover, and as already mentioned in Chapter 4, another possible explanation for the non-statistically significant increase in participants' GSE after the holiday-break can be attributed to the relatively high baseline GSE levels. As Gist and Mitchell (1992, pp. 198-199), for instance, argue, the degree of change in SE is, among other factors, influenced by the initial level of SE. In fact, baseline GSE was found to be unusually high for unemployed individuals, which means that the margins for any statistically significant increases in GSE after the holiday-break were particularly narrow (see Bonate, 2000). After testing for any effects of low and high baseline GSE on pre- post-holiday GSE change [$\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$], using an independent-samples t-test, a statistically significant difference in scores for respondents reporting low pre-test GSE and respondents reporting high pre-test GSE ($p = .002$) was found. More importantly, the magnitude of the mean difference was large, showing that 17% of the variance in [$\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$] was explained by differences in baseline levels of GSE. More specifically, participants with low baseline GSE reported much larger GSE changes after the holiday-break than participants with high baseline GSE. Given this result, it was assumed that, perhaps, baseline GSE had been boosted by the holiday-break, which was particularly close to the pre-holiday measure. In accordance to this, qualitative results showed that the relatively high, for unemployed individuals, baseline GSE, was, indeed, due to the forthcoming holiday-break, which had affected positively participants' mood, and was perceived an accomplishment, thus, boosting their GSE (see Bandura, 1977b, 1986). As such, and in the case of the current study, the fact that the high baseline GSE measure rather minimised the possibility for statistically significant changes at the post-test, does not undermine the effects of the holiday-break on participants' GSE.

Notwithstanding the positive effects that the holiday-break had on participants' GSE, results clearly showed larger effects on specific forms of SE (SSE). This finding is consistent with the vast majority of SE research, and the works of Bandura, in particular, which have provided

strong evidence about the malleability of SSE (e.g. Bandura, 1982; Eden and Kinnar, 1991). First of all, and with regard to unemployed parents' JFSE, quantitative results showed a statistically significant increase after the holiday-break ($p = .005$). Of course, this result alone cannot prove anything about the actual role, of the holiday-break in this positive change. On the other hand, results from the semi-structured interviews provided some strong evidence that the holiday-break had indirect effects on participants' JFSE, not so much through increases in their GSE as it was initially expected, but through increases in their social SE. The relationship between different forms of SE is addressed through the second research question, and, thus, it is further discussed later in this chapter (see §6.4). What must be stressed at this point is that qualitative results showed important effects of the holiday-break on other forms of SSE. This said, and apart from the identified effects on JFSE and social SE, the holiday-break had positive effects on parental- and family-efficacy, and even on drink-refusal SE. Although there are no earlier tourism studies exploring the effects of holiday-taking on tourists' SE, the positive effects on family- and parental efficacy, and social SE, have conceptual links with previously identified effects of social tourism on family and social capital, respectively (e.g. Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009).

6.4 Relationship between general and specific self-efficacy

6.4.1 Quantitative results

In the quantitative phase of the study specific self-efficacy (SSE) was addressed exclusively through job-finding self-efficacy (JFSE) (Research sub-question 2). As already mentioned earlier in this chapter, there was a statistically significant increase in JFSE after the holiday-break ($p = .005$) with a large effect size (Eta squared = .13). In order to test for any effects of pre- post-holiday GSE change [$\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$] on pre- post-holiday JFSE change [$\Delta(\text{JFSE T2} - \text{JFSE T1})$], pre- post-holiday GSE was entered into a regression model, together with two sociodemographic variables, namely, gender and restrictions to work, which had been found to affect (to a larger or lesser extent) JFSE. Results showed a statistically significant and positive association ($\beta = .25$; $p = .048$) between pre- post-holiday GSE change and pre- post-holiday JFSE change. In contrast, the background variables were not found to have a statistically significant association with pre- post-holiday JFSE change (see §6.6.1). This finding can be perceived as important, considering that small increases in GSE had a statistically significant and positive association with JFSE after the holiday-break. On the

other hand, the regression model, including the background variables, explained only 13% of the variance in pre- post-holiday JFSE change, thus, leaving several other unknown factors, which could have been possibly affected JFSE, unexplained.

6.4.2 Qualitative results

First of all, and in relation to the second research sub-question, qualitative findings shed more light into the relationship between GSE and JFSE. Although there was some evidence that participants' increased GSE, as a result of the holiday-break, had positive effects on their post-holiday JFSE this was not made explicit enough to form a strong pattern among the data. In fact, JFSE was found to be largely influenced by other factors, such as increased social SE. Individuals who reported higher levels of social SE, as a result of the holiday-break, felt that they possess what is needed to find a job. For instance, when Anne was asked what she thinks about her ability to find work, she said: *"Very capable, I am capable yeah[...]before the holiday I was very...you know, I got on with it but I was down in the dump, a bit worry of people and...I think the holiday put me in the thick of it and I dealt with it"* (JFSE). Moreover, vicarious experiences (direct observation) during the holiday-break were also found to have some positive, indirect, influence on JFSE. At the second part of her previous answer, Anne reported: *"...just seeing people get on with it...and you know how you watch people working and their chit-chat in and their smiles and then they do something [...] and you know you have the abdication...when you see someone doing something 'oh I can do that better...I can do that' you know"*. Of course, feeling capable to do well a particular job, does not necessarily mean that the person also feels capable to get that job. For instance, external factors, such as few available job vacancies and high unemployment rates, can diminish his/her sense of JFSE. On the other hand, one's belief in his/her capability to secure a job also depends on his belief about his/her capability to execute this job.

Secondly, findings clearly showed the existence of a causal relationship between GSE and SSE, in which, however, the direction was mainly from SSE to GSE. More specifically, different forms of SSE were found to have important effects on participants' GSE. This said, increased parental- and family-efficacy, and social SE, were all found to boost, to a larger or lesser extent, participant's GSE. Indicative of this, is the following excerpt, where the effect

of parental efficacy on GSE is made explicit: *"...stresses are still there but um I can cope with them better...now I've had the time to go away and calm down and come back um...like the parenting...thing, it's still stressful...I mean Simon is still not behaving the way I'd like him to behave...but I can cope with it better..."* (Dave). Of course, it must be stressed at this point that complex psychological phenomena, such as SE, are not influenced by a single factor. Dave's GSE, for instance, was not influenced exclusively from his increased parental efficacy, but from a combination of factors, which, to a larger or lesser extent, were found to be related with the positive effects of the holiday-break in general (e.g. the chance he had to get away and relax, and his son's improved behaviour during the holiday-break).

6.4.3 Integrated results

With regard to the second overarching question, findings from both datasets showed that there is a positive relationship between GSE and SSE. To a large extent, this relationship concerned GSE and different forms of SSE, such as parental- and family-efficacy, and social SE. Moreover, the direction of this relationship was found to be from SSE to GSE, and not the other way round. This result is consistent with earlier findings, according to which SSE, that is, SE related to a specific domain, can generalise to other domains (e.g. Sherer et al., 1982; Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001). With regard to the second sub-question, which concerned exclusively the relationship between GSE and JFSE, while quantitative results showed a statistically significant and positive association between pre- post-holiday GSE change and pre- post-holiday JFSE ($p = .048$), qualitative results did not support any strong relationship between these two variables, but showed that participants' JFSE was mainly influenced by their increased social SE. As discussed in Chapter 5, the relationship between social SE and JFSE reflects the fact that employment is inherently a social process, in which soft skills (e.g. communicating with others effectively) are necessary determinants of both securing a job and functioning in the work environment (McQuaid and Lindsay, 2005; Newton et al., 2005). In addition, there was some evidence among the qualitative data that vicarious experiences (observation) also exercised some influence on JFSE (e.g. Bandura, 1977b, 1995). It can be argued that, from a first glance, quantitative and qualitative results may seem contradictory; but they are not, considering that the regression model, including two sociodemographic variables, explained only a small proportion of the variance (13%) in pre- post-holiday JFSE change. As such, it was clear that participants' JFSE increase after the

holiday-break was, to a large extent, the result of some other unknown factors. This said, the qualitative data revealed two of these factors. But what is important in relation to social tourism is that it actually had indirect effects on participants' JFSE, not so much through GSE as it was initially hypothesised, but through social SE, and observation, which is one of the main sources of SE information. On the other hand, it is still possible that GSE had some unidentifiable effects on SSE. Personality constructs, such as GSE, have been found to be important, not so much through main effects (see Weiss and Adler, 1984), but by moderating the impact of the environment (e.g. negative feedback) on the person's SSE (e.g. Eden, 1988; Eden, 2001; Scherbaum, Cohen-Charash, and Kern, 2006). This said, participants, such as Maria, for example, who reported feeling more efficacious in general as a result of the holiday-break (*"I don't feel like there are some other things I cannot do, I feel like um I can also"*), could have been feeling more efficacious as parents or as job-seekers.

6.5 Effects of self-efficacy on job-search behaviour

6.5.1 Quantitative results

The quantitative phase of the study addressed exclusively effects of JFSE on JSB (Research sub-question 3). Quantitative results showed that JFSE had a positive association with both components of job-search behaviour (JSB), namely, job-seeking (JS) and job-search intensity (JSA). With regard to the former, results from the Logistic Regression model, which was used to test for any effects of JFSE on JS, showed a statistically significant ($p = .08$) and positive coefficient for changes in JFSE over time, indicating that increasing JFSE was associated with increased odds of looking for work (JS) after the holiday-break. On the other hand, JS was not influenced exclusively by JFSE. First of all, the two strongest predictors of post-holiday JS were restrictions to work and education, and second, the Logistic regression model, explained between 31% and 42% of the variance in JS after the holiday-break, thus, allowing a large proportion of this variance unexplained and attributable to other factors. With regard to the job-search intensity (JSA) component of JSB, Kendall's tau correlation showed a small-medium, statistically significant correlation between pre- post-test JFSE change and JSA ($p = .009$), with high levels of JFSE associated with higher levels of job-search intensity. On the other hand, the sociodemographic variables education and restrictions to work were also found to play a role in influencing JSA. It must be mentioned at this point, that irrespectively of which factors influenced JSB, the majority of unemployed parents who did

not look for work before the holiday-break continued not to search for work after the holiday-break. According to the McNemar's test, there was a non-statistically significant change in the proportion of participants who were looking for work after the holiday-break. On the other hand, and despite this non-statistically significant change in the JS component of JSB, there was an increase of 8.8% in the proportion of job-seekers after the holiday-break (from 31.6% before the holiday-break to 40.4% after the holiday). But more importantly, there was a statistically significant increase in the job-search intensity (JSA) of those who were looking for work ($p = .015$).

6.5.2 Qualitative results

Qualitative analysis revealed multiple effects of SE on JSB. More specifically, increases in different forms of SE, such as, GSE, JFSE, and social SE had positive effects on unemployed parents' JSB. As discussed in Chapter 5, in many instances, different forms of SE worked in concert in influencing one's JSB, while in others, different forms overlapped, thus, making it particularly difficult to distinguish which form of SE exercised the given influence. Moreover, the effects of SE on JSB concerned several different stages of the job-search process, such as attitudes towards specific job search activities, the actual behaviour while executing these activities, and responses after job search failures. Increased social SE and GSE, for instance, were found to be particularly influential with regard to job search intensity, persistence, and job search activities that require personal contact: *"I think I may be a little bit more focused on it now...a little bit more confident...maybe a little bit more...applied for just a couple of more weeks than I would have done maybe [...] but being more confident in actually applying...so um I can pick up the phone and phone [...] I did go for an interview not a long ago...um and I phoned up and asked if they've made their decision and apparently um hadn't got the job...but I asked feedback I asked for it...but before probably I wouldn't have* (Jenny). In a similar vein, increased JFSE played an important role in successful job searching: *"...the holiday in a way sort of did help like...with the...the confidence as well...the confidence for it to find work, the enthusiasm"* (Kate's husband). Such positive effects, however, concerned only the active job-seekers. This said, several participants reported that they were not in a position to search for work, mainly due to caring responsibilities.

6.5.3 Integrated results

Overall, both datasets provided evidence that there is a strong association between SE and JSB. Quantitative results showed that increasing JFSE was associated with increased odds of looking for work (JS), and higher levels of job-search intensity (JSA) after the holiday-break. On the other hand, JFSE was not the strongest predictor of JSB. In contrast, restrictions to work and education were found to be the two strongest predictors of post-holiday JS, and also to have strong influence upon participants' JSA. Moreover, and with regard to the JS component of JSB in particular, the Logistic regression model left a large proportion of the post-holiday JS variance unexplained and attributable to other factors. The qualitative analysis, gave important insights into the quantitative results. Firstly, they strengthened the evidence that JFSE had positive effects on JSB. As such, both data sets confirmed findings from earlier studies on JSB, according to which, JFSE is an important determinant of one's persistence and determination in the job search process (e.g. Epel, Bandura, and Zimbardo, 1999; Wanberg et al., 2005); secondly, qualitative findings revealed that other forms of SE such as, GSE, and social SE had strong positive effects on JSB. But whereas findings with regard to JFSE and GSE support earlier studies (e.g. Eden and Aviram, 1993; Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999), the role of social SE in influencing JSB is rather new. In addition, and as it is discussed later in this chapter (see §6.7), qualitative results also showed that the holiday-break had direct motivational effects on unemployed parents' JSB. As such, it can be argued that these additional factors are among those unknown factors that the Logistic regression model could not explain.

In general, it is important to note that irrespectively of the effects of SE or other factors on participants' JSB, persistence in the job-search process, and especially for long-term unemployed people, is significant given that repeated failures to secure employment discourage job-seekers and decrease their job-search activity (e.g. Borgen and Amundson, 1987; Warr, 2007; Krueger and Mueller, 2011). In a similar vein, increased job-search intensity regarding particular job-search activities is also of utmost importance. This said, quantitative results showed that participants intensified their job-search efforts with regard to activities, such as contacting employers directly ($p = .009$), and asking family and friends about job opportunities ($p = .014$). The former activity was also supported from the qualitative results, which also showed increased feedback requests. These job-search

methods have been found to have high effectiveness, although this depends, to a large extent, on the person's networks both formal and informal (e.g. Newton et al., 2005; Caliendo, Schmidl, and Uhlenborff, 2011; Cingano and Rosolia, 2012), which long-term unemployed individuals are less likely to have. Moreover, a particularly important finding from both datasets was that a small proportion of the participants found a job after the holiday break. Results from the open-ended questions at the end of the post-holiday survey, showed that 5.3% of the survey's participants went back to paid employment after the holiday-break and that a small proportion were looking for volunteering work. Similar results were reported in the semi-structured interviews. On the other hand, and notwithstanding these positive findings, most of the unemployed parents who did not look for work before the holiday-break continued not to search for work after they returned back home, due to restrictions to work, such as caring responsibilities.

6.6 Effects of sociodemographic characteristics on self-efficacy and job-search behaviour

6.6.1 Effects on self-efficacy

6.6.1.1 Quantitative results

Effects of sociodemographic variables on pre- post-holiday GSE [$\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$] were tested using independent-samples t-tests, yielding non-statistically significant differences, thus, no effects. However, there were signs that age, perhaps, played a role in $\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$, given that the $\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$ was much higher among younger (< 29yrs) than among older participants (> 29yrs), that the non-statistically significant difference in $\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$ was relatively marginal, and that the sample size was small. Effects of sociodemographic variables on [$\Delta(\text{JFSE T2} - \text{JFSE T1})$] were tested using independent-samples t-tests. A statistically significant difference was found only with regard to restrictions to work ($p = .028$). This shows that any positive effects of the holiday-break on participants' JFSE were greater among those who did not experience any restrictions to work, than those who had restrictions, such as caring responsibilities. In addition, attention was paid on the role of gender as the non-statistically significant difference in the scores for females and males was marginal, a result that could be also attributed to the small sample size. On the other hand, when entered into a regression model, together with [$\Delta(\text{GSE T2} - \text{GSE T1})$], these variables were not found to have a statistically significant association with [Δ

(JFSE T2 - JFSE T1)]. But again this result was marginal, and perhaps attributable to the sample's size.

6.6.1.2 Qualitative results

The qualitative analysis did not provide any evidence that age actually affected GSE changes. The vast majority of participants who explicitly stated increases in their GSE levels as a result of the holiday-break were over 29 years old. This can be attributed to the fact that three out of four interviewees belonged to this age group. In addition, younger participants also reported increases in their GSE after the holiday-break. On the other hand, the particularly small sample of the qualitative study does not allow for any proper conclusions, and any possible explanation must be seen with cautiousness. Similarly, there was no evidence that any of the sociodemographic variables played a role in participants' JFSE change.

6.6.1.3 Integrated results

In general, neither the quantitative nor the qualitative data set provided any strong evidence about important effects of sociodemographic characteristics on SE. However, some attention must be paid on age, restrictions to work, and gender. Although the qualitative results did not reveal any effects of these variables on SE, and the quantitative results showed non-statistically significant differences, the latter were marginal and, perhaps, attributable to the small sample size. With regard to the role of age on GSE, for instance, the non-statistically significant increase in pre- post holiday GSE, in conjunction with the trait-like character of GSE could be perceived as a sign about the effects of age on GSE's malleability over time. Personality traits in general, and GSE in particular, are relatively stable over time (e.g. Jerusalem and Mittag, 1995; Chen, Gully, and Eden, 2001; Judge and Bono, 2001). As a result, and considering that traits develop in younger age and that the majority of participants (64.9%) were in their 30's, it was rather unlikely for any statistically significant changes to occur. With regard to the role of restrictions to work and gender on JFSE, results did not support findings from earlier studies. This implies two main things: first, that the belief in one's capability to find work may be unrelated to his/her restrictions to work, such as caring responsibilities, and to his/her gender, which especially in the case of women is directly linked to caring responsibilities; and second, that the

marginal character of this result, in conjunction with the small sample size, may need further exploration.

6.6.2 Effects on job-search behaviour

6.6.2.1 Quantitative results

After testing for any effects of sociodemographic variables on JSB, only two variables were found to play an important role in participants' JSB. These variables were restrictions to work and education, and were found to have statistically significant associations with both components of post-holiday JSB, namely, JS and JSA. With regard to JS, background variables were tested through two stages: initially using chi-square tests of independence (with Yates Continuity Correction), which showed statistically significant associations between post-holiday JS and education ($p = .016$), and between post-holiday JS and restrictions to work ($p = .036$); and then using Logistic Regression, which showed that both variables were strong predictors of post-holiday JS. With regard to education, there was a statistically significant ($p = .002$) and positive coefficient for people with higher education and JS, indicating that higher educational level is associated with increased odds of looking for job. With regard to restrictions to work, there was a statistically significant ($p = .010$) and negative coefficient for people with restrictions to work, indicating that restrictions (caring responsibilities and ill-health) are associated with reduced odds of looking for work. As such, and considering that more than two-thirds of the participants' (75.4%) had lower educational attainments, and that in total 77.2% of the sample reported restrictions to work, it could be argued that the non-statistically significant increase in JS after the holiday-break is, to a large extent, explained by the effects of these two variables. In addition, the role of education and restrictions to work in JSB was further supported after testing for any effects of sociodemographic variables on JSA.

This said the Mann-Whitney U tests revealed statistically significant differences for education [lower ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 43$), higher ($Md = 10.5$, $n = 14$), $p = .01$], and restrictions to work [no ($Md = 15.0$, $n = 13$), yes ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 44$), $p = .004$]. Participants with higher education recorded a higher median score in JSA than participants with lower education, and similarly, participants with no restrictions to work recorded higher median score than participants with restrictions. On the other hand, and despite the non-statistically significant

differences with regard to the other background variables, attention must be paid on gender and especially on last occupation, due to the large identified differences in the median JSA scores among different groups. Males and participants previously occupied in white-collar jobs recorded higher median scores than females, and blue-collar workers, respectively [Gender: females ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 41$), males ($Md = 8.5$, $n = 16$), $p = .14$, n.s.; last occupation [blue-collar ($Md = 5.0$, $n = 52$), white-collar ($Md = 12.0$, $n = 5$), $p = .18$, n.s.]. Again, the non-statistically significant differences could be partly attributed to the sample size. Finally, results from the survey's open-ended questions strengthened the evidence that restrictions to work had an important negative effect on unemployed parents' JSB. From those who reported that the holiday-break had not affected their motivation to search for work (33%), those who further explained their answer said that this was mainly due to caring responsibilities, and in a few instances, due to health issues.

6.6.2.2 Qualitative results

A clear pattern that emerged from the qualitative analysis was that restrictions to work had a strong negative effect on participants' JSB. This result was also supported from the answers obtained from the survey's open-ended questions. More specifically, caring responsibilities was stated as a major barrier to employment, and thus, to one's JSB. Indicative of this are the following comments from Nick and Simon: *"I'm my wife's carer [...] my wife is still poorly and she is on medications from the doctor and stuff I still need to be around um help out"* (Nick); *"I am a single dad with three children so...at the minute it's a bit difficult...two are in school and...I've got a little girl that she hasn't started yet"* (Simon). These comments concern the JS component of the person's JSB, which means that participants did not look for work due to their caring commitments. But such responsibilities were also found to be a barrier for those participants who were active job-seekers: *"It is a problem yeah with my youngest...my oldest no she's independent now she's nearly eighteen but there is still a problem of how to get a job that fits in...with the age you know, I can't leave her on her own"* (Jenny). With regard to education, qualitative analysis provided some indication (rather implicit) that it also affected JSB in a negative way. Participants with lower education, and irrespectively of any caring responsibilities, were not in a position to look for work immediately, but they rather chose to follow alternative paths to employment, such as education and volunteering: *"I've now got personal advisor in the jobcentre and uh we're*

going through um new courses, obviously to find out which one suit me and what else I can do” (Anne). Of course, the barrier of lower education appeared to co-influence the person’s choices with regard to JSB and alternative paths to employment, together with the lack of work experience due to long-term unemployment: “If I do a bit of voluntary work when I do decide to look for work I will be in a better position...because I will have a little bit of experience” (Lily).

6.6.2.3 Integrated results

Overall, the two data sets supported each other in showing that restrictions to work, and caring responsibilities in particular, comprised a major barrier to employment, and, as such to participants’ JSB. These results confirm findings from earlier studies, according to which caring responsibilities limit labour market participation (e.g. Moen, 1979; Shildrick et al., 2012b). Moreover, these results showed that caring responsibilities do not only affect attitudes to work among women, as it is widely evident in the existing literature (e.g. Jackson and Warr, 1984; Bailey, 2006), but men as well. With regard to the role of education and long-term unemployment on the person’s JSB, results supported findings from earlier studies, showing that education level affects JSB and especially job-search intensity (JSA) (e.g. Wanberg, Kanfer, and Rotundo, 1999; Vansteenkiste et al., 2004), and that as the length of unemployment extends, individuals lose skills that employers find attractive, and simultaneously they need to make adjustments due to the rapid changes in working life (Vesalainen and Vuori, 1999; Eriksson, 2006).

6.7 Understanding how effects on self-efficacy and job-search behaviour were manifested

This question was mainly answered through the semi-structured interviews. However, the open-ended questions at the end of the survey also provided some useful insight, especially with regard to the holiday’s effects on JSB. Overall, the qualitative analysis revealed that the positive effects of the holiday-break on unemployed parents’ SE and JSB were manifested through different, but often interrelated, processes. Moreover, such processes were, to a large extent, gradual, meaning that specific effects first occurred as a result of the holiday-break, upon which, other effects were then developed. In brief, effects were manifested at four stages or levels. At a first level, the holiday-break offered participants the chance to experience an enabling environment, which played a crucial role in the generation of

positive SE and JSB changes. At a second level, it provided participants opportunities for successful enactive experiences, mainly in domains of their lives that had been problematic, such as family and social relations. What is important to note is that these experiences occurred under more optimal circumstances than in participants' daily life. Moreover, in some instances, managing to go on a holiday-break was found to be in itself a successful enactive experience. These successful enactive experiences comprised sources of SE information, and in fact, boosted participants SE. In addition, increases in one form of SE, often boosted other forms of SE. At a third level, either indirectly, through increased SE, or directly by acting as incentive towards employment, the holiday-break was found to have positive effects on participants' JSB. And at a fourth level, it had also direct (e.g. vicarious experiences) and indirect effects on participants' behaviours towards alternative paths to employment (BAPE). On the other hand, and when effects on JSB were not manifested, this was due to restrictions to work, and mainly caring responsibilities.

The strongest pattern that emerged among the data was that the holiday environment was for the participants an enabling environment, in many respects. First of all, changing environmental conditions, as a result of the holiday-break, gave them the chance to get away from the particularly stressful, and often traumatic, circumstances of their daily lives, such as financial worries: *"I didn't have to worry about anything cause it was all inclusive"* (Anne); worries related to living in a rough neighbourhood: *"We were not looking over the shoulder every time we walked out"* (Kate), *"I will let me daughter could go and play around our van and you know she'd be all right"* (Lisa); and personal traumatic circumstances, such as a relationship break-up: *I'm gone through like um...relationship break-up [...] just made it a lot easier for us and it took obviously our minds off the situation* (Joanne), and domestic violence: *"With the situation with...Anne...she um...she've had domestic violence [...] and in a stressful-stressful situation that she was in, we thought that to give her some time off to be there with kids in order to get back to basics* (Anne's WA). Secondly, participants found themselves in a new environment, which was relaxing, both in terms of the physical setting and available recreational activities: *"We went swimming um a couple of times [...] and playing on the beach, which we don't do every day [...] then...you know just...yeah just spend the time with the family was enough...to get away in a different sort of scenery um... that was nice"* (Nick). The different environment and the available activities for kids played an

important role in parents' relaxation as they had positive effects on their children's' behaviour, and especially on children with special needs: *"Kids were able to enjoy themselves [...] Danny joined the circus school and he be able to do things and interact with other kids [...] we were a lot calmer...we...I mean we didn't even hear his voices didn't we?"* (Peter); *"They were well-behaved, usually we have trouble with John especially, cause he's the more...you know, hitting out and he doesn't get on with a lots of...strangers, but he really relaxed, it changed his whole personality, cause he...he was doing something that he enjoyed and he made some friends on the caravan site"* (Sarah). It is rather apparent from these reports that the positive changes that the holiday-break brought into participants' lives had positive effects on their affective states.

In addition, these changes created the ground for positive cognitive changes by offering participants some new evidence about themselves (internal evidence), the world and others (external evidence). With regard to the former, their own affective states were more positive during the holiday-break, and, thus, in sharp contrast to their usual affective states back home. They were more relaxed, they were feeling happier, and in other words they experienced a different side of themselves. With regard to the latter, the new, stress-free, and relaxing environment and their children's improved behaviour, for instance, were also in sharp contrast to their everyday environment, and their children's usual behaviour, respectively. This new, first hand evidence, challenged their well-established negative perceptions about themselves and the world and made them realise that things can be different and better. Indicative of these realisations are the following comments from Kate and Joanne, respectively: *"The important is that, that you see things differently [...] I think it made us realise that we are just a normal...family...in a better surrounding"* (Kate); *"Sometimes you think that that's it...and that's all you gonna be doing and then you know, you get an opportunity like that and it just...it's like a breath of fresh air"* (Joanne). But more importantly, these positive cognitive and affective changes, together with the enabling holiday-environment, played a central role in boosting participant's SE, as they exercised positive influences on their family and social relations.

What clearly and consistently emerged from the data was that successful enactive experiences in relation to participants' family and social life comprised the main sources of

positive SE changes. More specifically, during the holiday-break participants had the chance to engage in family and social relations differently, compared to their everyday life. Indicative of this is the fact that, although most of them reported that such life domains had been particularly problematic before the holiday-break, they had the chance to handle them better during the holiday-break, and they got convincing feedback about their capabilities to overcome difficult circumstances (Bandura, 1986, 1997). These positive changes were still present several months since they returned back home. With regard to family relations, this positive change is captured in the following comment from Jenny: *"I think it did bond us, it did make us more...as a family instead of us all living separate lives."* With regard to social relations, Anne, for instance, said: *"It's been since, since I've come back yes definitely, I feel like I can...I'm quite...you know...talk to anyone now [...]I don't know, before I went I'd...I'd...I can talk to people and be around people but I'd rather be the one in the corner, quiet...you know."* These improvements boosted different forms of participants' SE, such as parental- and family-efficacy, and social SE, by giving them some first-hand evidence about their capabilities to handle problematic domains of their lives: *"It also made me think as well that I'm not...a bad parent"* (Dave); *"We can also, we were also be able to go out and have that fun together"* (Maria); *"Just made me realise that I can...I can make friends"* (Kate). On the other hand, these positive SE changes did not occur automatically, but through gradual, to a large extent, processes.

Obviously, a plethora of enactive experiences related to one's family and social life, are available in his/her daily environment. But as participants frequently reported, such experiences were largely unsuccessful during their everyday lives. As qualitative results showed, what transformed these experiences into successful enactive attainments during the holiday-break was that, first, participants' engaged in such experiences under more positive affective and cognitive states: *"We did go by the sea-side, that was nice, just being able to walk along the beach [...] It was nice just to be out there and clear our heads and just completely relax"* (Jenny); and, second, that the external conditions to the participants, such as the opportunity for quality time with one's children (family relations), and meeting friendly people in a safe environment (social relations) were more optimal. Indicative of the former is the following comment from Lily: *"I've got to find out a few little things got...hadn't really taken seriously as a parent, when they had said, 'oh this is really bothering*

me' and...but when we were there we were able to get that time to...talk a few things through", while indicative of the latter is Jenny's comment: "I did start making friends cause it was all families there...so...they did...they did include me [...] I was a bit more open...well I think I've carried that back home as well thinking that...not everybody is bad really" (Jenny). As such, it can be argued that under different conditions, perhaps, positive SE changes might not have been possible.

It is important to note at this point that the holiday-break provided a supportive environment where relaxation occurred in conjunction with graduate exposure to aversive events (e.g. a social situation for a person who feels anxious in such situations). The creation of these optimal conditions during is akin to widely used clinical-based treatments, where behavioural responses, such as enactive mastery experiences, are often altered through the manipulation of environmental conditions. Therapists structure environments so that they are enabling for individuals to perform successfully, despite their incapacities (see Bandura, 1977b, p. 196). In systematic desensitisation approach, for instance, inhibiting anxiety is reduced through relaxation, and then the person is exposed to hierarchically ranked anxiety-arousing stimulus, which progressively lose its ability to evoke anxiety (see Wolpe, 1990[1973], pp. 150-161). In a similar vein, the holiday-break offered participants an enabling environment, through which and within which, they felt relaxed and safe enough to exercise different behaviours. Jenny, for instance, met some friendly and welcoming people during the holiday-break who made her feel more relaxed, which, in turn, allowed her to exercise a more sociable behaviour. In other words, the characteristics of the environment minimised any discomfort that Jenny might have had before engaging in a particular social situation. As Wolpe (1990[1973]), further explains, "not only are the effects of relaxation opposite in kind to those of anxiety but, if counterposed to anxiety-evoking stimuli, they diminish the anxiety responses that these stimuli evoke" (p. 154). This is very important given that a person who is socially isolated, for instance, would have probably chosen to avoid a social situation that was threatening (e.g. unfriendly people). Perhaps the novelty of the situation (e.g. holiday-break) also contributed to participants' more extroverted social behaviours. Although most situations are not completely novel, usually such situations have not been previously connected with harm, and as a result it is less likely

to be perceived as threatening and more likely to boost active participation instead of avoidance (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984).

Given that research question 5 overlaps with the other research questions, due its complementary character, other processes through which the holiday-break affected participants' SE have already been discussed earlier in this chapter and in relation to the other research questions. For a brief reminder, positive SE changes also resulted directly from the holiday-break, as managing to go on a holiday-break was found to be in itself a successful enactive experience (see §6.3.2), and indirectly from positive effects between different forms of SE (see §6.4.2). Similarly, the effects of increased SE on participants' JSB have also been discussed earlier in this chapter (see §6.5.2). In addition, research question 5 allowed for some unexpected data patterns to emerge. These concerned direct effects of the holiday-break on participants' JSB, as well as, on their perceptions towards reemployment, and on their behaviours towards alternative paths to employment. Effects on the latter are of particular importance as they concerned those unemployed parents who could not search for work due to restrictions (e.g. caring responsibilities), and, as such, they could possibly affect their actual JSB in the future.

More specifically, the holiday-break was found to have positive direct effects on unemployed parents' JSB. This was an unexpected, but clear patten among the data, as half of the interviewees reported that they perceived paid employment as the means to take their families on a holiday-break more frequently in the future: *"Well it just motivated me... that maybe if I can find work, I will be able to take my family on holidays...and then maybe we could do more of those kind of things like going on holiday"* (Maria). Such perceptions had clear positive effects on participants' motivation to search for work, and on their determination and intensity during the job-search process. Dave, for instance, said: *"I'm really determined to find work now [...] it's just the fact that it made me more job-focused, as I've said before...because I want more chances to get away, and the more money I have the better I can...like book a week away once a year"* (Dave). Similar was the attitude of some respondents towards specific job-search activities, such as a job interview: *"I was preparing myself even more before I go cause I was really determined that I want this job"* (Maria). These reports also support the results from the surveys' open-ended question,

according to which, 32% of respondents said that the holiday-break had a positive impact on their job-search motivation, and that the main explanation for this impact was that they perceived the holiday-break as an incentive to secure paid employment.

Overall, it can be argued that these findings confirm the central role of incentives in human motivation in general (see Lewin, 1935), and in human motivation towards employment, in particular (see Skinner, 1965[1953]), as well as the unique meaning that low-income groups attach to holiday-taking (e.g. McCabe, 2009). Moreover, these results shed light into the relationship between holiday-taking and low-income groups' attitudes towards employment, by showing that the former can act as an incentive towards the latter, and, thus, as a booster of JSB, which is the necessary step to secure employment. Of equal importance is the fact that results showed that the strong motivational effect of the holiday-break benefited different groups of individuals, in terms of their JSB. For instance, it benefited Maria who managed to secure employment after the holiday-break, and Dave whose job-search efforts had been unsuccessful. Finally, this motivational effect was identified even among non-active job-seekers, such as Lily: *"I'm not in a position right now but...definitely encouraged me to think about you know, the fact that...it would be a bonus to be able to work and provide a very good holiday for them [children]" (Lily).*

Another important finding, relevant to the non-active job-seekers concerns the positive effects of the holiday-break in their behaviour towards alternative paths to employment, such as studying and volunteering (see §6.6.2.2). Similarly to the manifestation of effects on participants' SE, these effects did not occur automatically, but resulted gradually, through positive affective and cognitive changes within individuals, and the enabling holiday environment. Anne, for instance, who started looking for studying options after the holiday-break said: *"I used to have days where...I'd...you know...thinking 'why do I get up in the morning?' and things like that you know [...] I don't know I think it [the holiday-break] gave me... like...what you've said, a rest point...definitely...but just...the tedious day to day things seem more...more worth it."* It is made explicit in this report that overcoming depression was a necessary first step for Anne before starting setting goals in her life: *"I think I found a bit of me when we were on holiday [...] I'm setting a lot more goals of being doing um driving theory, um applying for courses and...things...I just wanna...get back out there now"*

(Anne). Moreover, positive effects of the holiday-break were also identified with regard to career aspirations: *“When we were on holiday and they had these...one of the sessions for arts and craft with the children [...] it made me really think about it a lot in terms of working with children...they were doing umm painting with their feet and hands and...I just looked in and actually think I would enjoy doing that”* (Lily). On one hand, this effect confirms the central role of vicarious experiences (observation) in human cognition, motivation, and perhaps, behaviour (Bandura, 1986). On the other hand, this effect must not be viewed isolated from the positive affective and cognitive states of participants during the holiday-break. As similar vicarious experience during Lily’s stressful and deprived everyday life, is rather unlikely that would have had the same positive effects in her career aspirations.

6.7.1 The role enabling environments in learning

It is evident from the above discussion that the holiday-break combined several characteristics of enabling environments, which acted as the necessary preconditions for positive cognitive and behavioural changes among participants. In addition, the holiday environment was not an imposed environment, thus, allowing individuals for more exercise of control (see Bandura, 2012). More specifically, the holiday-break offered participants a learning environment, and simultaneously facilitated their experiences (mainly enactive, but also vicarious) within this environment in order to be effective, in terms of boosting cognitive and behavioural changes.

First of all, through the holiday-break unemployed parents had the chance to experience a novel situation, which is among the main characteristics of learning environments (Jarvis, 2006). In such a situation, the person receives new information or evidence about things, which “contradicts the old stock of [his/her] knowledge” (James, 1907, p. 59). Notwithstanding the degree of influence of the environment on the individual, as the environment changes, changes are induced in the person’s experiences and behaviour due to the different environmental feedback he/she receives (Woodworth, 1958; Proshansky, 1976). This said, and as mentioned earlier in this chapter, changing environmental conditions gave participants new evidence about the external world, according to which there is a better side of life from what they used to know. In addition, seeing themselves feeling better in this new environment gave them new evidence with regard to themselves.

As Jarvis (2006) further explains, in everyday life we usually “act in the same way as we have previously done, because the world has not changed from what it was like the last time we performed a similar act [...] It is only when we enter novel situations that we become aware of the significance of our environment [...] In novel situations throughout life, we have new sensations, so that we can rarely take the world for granted; we enter a state of ‘disjuncture’³⁵ and implicitly we raise questions” (pp. 19-64). According to Freire (1972b, p. 9), “this is the beginning of an authentic act of knowing.” In fact, well known benefits of the tourism experience, such as widening horizons, and re-evaluation of the world and the self, for instance, are, to a large extent, attributable to the learning environment that holiday-taking offers (e.g. Crompton, 1979; Krippendorf 1987; Urry, 2002[1990]; Kler, 2009). But more importantly, and as results showed, the holiday environment facilitated participants’ learning experiences, through the provision of optimal conditions.

Although entering novel situations is a basic component of learning, a novel situation *per se* is not always an adequate prerequisite for learning. Human behaviour is subject to external influences (e.g. a novel environment), but people are not simply reactors to such influences (see Bandura, 1977a; Lazarus and Folkman, 1984). In order for the person to utilise a novel situation, in terms of learning, he/she must be in psychological state that allows him/her to do so. This has long been addressed by Lewin (1936, p. 12), who stressed that “every psychological event depends upon the state of the person and at the same time on the environment.” This said, long-term (to their vast majority) unemployed parents who are stressed and worried about how to make ends meet and a series of other problems, are rather unlikely to be in a position to engage effectively in a learning situation. This matter is akin to individuals’ hierarchy of needs (see Maslow, 1987[1954]), and has been found particularly relevant to low-income families (e.g. Minnaert, 2007). More specifically, under circumstances where the person has not met basic needs (e.g. food, bills, safety) “all his/her capacities are put into the service of the satisfaction of such needs, and the organisation of these capacities is almost entirely determined by the one purpose of satisfying these needs” (Maslow, 1987[1954], p. 16). As a result, the person’s deprivation affects his/her behaviour (Skinner, 1965[1953]). Indicative of this is that the poor spend much more cognitive

³⁵ Jarvis (2006) calls the way we act in everyday life “presumption,” which is usually a non-learning situation. In contrast, the way we act in novel situations is “disjuncture.”

resources for the day-to-day survival than the better-off, which affects significantly their personal growth considering their cognitive resources left (e.g. Cole et al., 2011; Stiglitz, 2013). Under these circumstances “other needs may become non-existent or be pushed into the background” (Maslow, 1987[1954], p. 16). In contrast, during the holiday-break participants did not have to worry about basic needs, as these needs had been met (even temporarily). They were free from the stresses of their everyday life, more relaxed, and thus, more likely to take full advantage of the experiences that the holiday offered them (e.g. family and social activities) and to be benefited from them. In other words, the holiday-break created some optimal conditions, which are essential for learning (see Bandura, 1997).

Such optimal conditions were not only concerned with the distance from ones’ day-to-day problems that holidays usually offer, but also with opportunities for relaxation and recreation within the new environment. Such conditions resemble several strategies from clinical practice, which are adopted to produce positive changes in people’s affective states. For example, distraction from stressful cues and images is among the intervention strategies used to reduce aversive mental states and emotional arousal (e.g. Rosenthal, 1993). Relaxation methods in the form of guided imagery, where the therapist asks the person to imagine peaceful scenes, is another strategy adopted in clinical practice to neutralise aversive emotional arousal (e.g. Wolpe, 1990[1973]; Bandura, 1977b; Rosenthal, 1993). Despite their usefulness, these strategies have an important disadvantage; they occur in artificial settings, where the person may not be able to imagine scenes realistically or to relax (Wolpe, 1990[1973]). In contrast, distraction and relaxation can be more effective within the context of a holiday-break given that it occurs in a natural setting. As participants frequently mentioned, the natural setting *per se* was relaxing and contributed to positive influences in their affective and cognitive states (e.g. Ulrich et al., 1991). Simple activities, such as walking by the seaside and participating in water-based activities that mentioned by participants have been found to influence psychological responses, such as mood and self-esteem (Canter, 1977; Barton and Pretty, 2010). In addition, being relaxed and in a good mood affects cognitive processes, as it enhances thinking (Lazarus and Folkman, 1984, Jarvis, 2006). This was in sharp contrast to participants’ usual way of thinking, which was influenced by their day-to-day experiences of negative emotions. In general, relaxation is

particularly important given that a novel situation, such as a holiday-break, could be also threatening. In earlier social tourism studies, for instance, there are reports showing that going on a holiday-break can be a source of stress and/or anxiety for some individuals (e.g. Smith and Hughes, 1999; Minnaert, 2012).

6.8 Research contributions

This study reflects an original contribution to knowledge in many respects, theoretical, methodological, and practical. First of all, it makes a number of contributions to the tourism and social tourism-specific research upon the benefits of tourism participation. The psychological benefits that tourism participation holds for tourists have long been addressed in psychology and sociology tourism studies (e.g. Iso-Ahola, 1982; Urry, 2002[1990]). Similarly, social tourism studies on disadvantaged populations, such as low-income families, have provided evidence about important effects of holiday-taking on constructs of positive psychology, such as self-esteem (e.g. Minnaert, 2007) and SWB (e.g. McCabe and Johnson, 2013). On the other hand, and although these findings have strengthened the assumption that such individual benefits may, in turn, hold social and economic benefits, they have not provided enough evidence to support these linkages (see All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social Tourism, 2011). This study addressed this gap, by exploring the effects of holiday-taking, through social tourism initiatives, on unemployed parents' SE and JSB, respectively. It is the first research of its kind to consider SE and JSB within a tourism context, and to explore any linkages between holiday-taking and these two concepts. In addition to studying social tourism from different theoretical perspectives, it utilises a different methodological approach, that is, a mixed-methods research. This combination has resulted in an innovative and creative research attempt that differentiates this study from earlier ones, and maps a new territory in social tourism research (Frankel, 1999).

In relation to earlier findings, both from the general and social tourism-specific literatures, this study's results first showed that social tourism has positive effects on participants' SE, thus, on another major construct of positive psychology (see Maddux, 2002). Moreover, and considering what we already know from earlier studies about the positive effects of social tourism on self-esteem, this finding shows that social tourism has effects on the core self-

evaluation construct, a broad, higher order trait that comprises of the four main personality traits, namely, self-efficacy, self-esteem, emotional stability, and locus of control (see Judge and Bono, 2001). As such, it can be argued that this result alone is important for two interrelated reasons: on the one hand it widens the existing evidence base about social tourism's psychological benefits, and on the other hand it provides new evidence about the value of social tourism in terms of individual benefits for disadvantaged populations, such as unemployed parents. Secondly, and most importantly, this study's results offer the first "tangible" evidence about linkages between the individual psychological benefits that emanate from social tourism participation, and actual social and economic benefits, by showing positive indirect and direct effects of the holiday-break on participants' JSB. In addition, results showed positive effects among participants who were not active job-seekers due to restrictions to work, such as caring responsibilities. These effects are also important as they concerned their perceptions towards reemployment and their behaviours towards alternative paths to employment, thus, cognitions that can determine one's future JSB.

With regard to the specific processes, through which, these positive effects were manifested, results, to a large extent, were similar to that reported in earlier tourism and social tourism studies. As it was expected, effects on different psychological constructs cannot but emerge from the same or similar sources. Escaping the daily environment and its stresses, having the chance to relax in a new setting, to enjoy recreational activities with one's family, and improvements in family and social relations, for instance, that have been found to be the sources of positive effects on other psychological constructs, were also the main sources of positive effects on SE (see Cohen, 1979b; Graburn, 1989; Ryan, 2002 [on general tourism] and Smith and Hughes, 1999; McCabe, 2009; Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009 [on social tourism]). But the main contributions of the current research in relation to these holiday aspects concern three other important things: first, what was just mentioned before, namely, the positive effects that these aspects were found to have in participants' JSB; second, the positive effects that these aspects were found to have in their perceptions towards reemployment, and in their BAPE (in those cases where restrictions to work did not allow for the exercise of an instant JSB); and third, the delineation of the complex interrelationships between these aspects, and their specific roles, which helped to

understand better how do positive affective, cognitive, and behavioural changes among social tourists, actually occur.

In accordance to the latter, and by delineating the complex interrelationships between these aspects of the holiday-break, it was found that the enabling holiday environment was the catalyst for positive cognitive and behavioural changes among unemployed parents. So far, social tourism research has explained the learning that underlies such changes, mainly through Kolb's and Fry's (1975) experiential learning model, and also through Lave's and Wenger's (1991) situated learning theory (e.g. Minnaert, 2012). These theories have provided important insights with regard to the experiential learning that, indeed, can occur during a holiday-break. On the other hand, the learning experiences that a holiday-break provides are not sufficient preconditions for disadvantaged populations to change their well-established negative beliefs and behaviours. And this is not only because learning requires reflection, generalisation, and testing as Kolb and Fry (1975) propose, which certainly does, but because it also requires individuals to feel relaxed and safe enough in order to engage in, and take full advantage of, the learning experiences when these actually occur, and after the end of such experiences, during the initial stages of reflection. Actually, and as results showed, human behaviour changes through multiple interactions with interpersonal factors (e.g. affective and cognitive events) and environmental conditions, which co-influence one another. This is consistent with Bandura's (1997) social cognitive theory (formerly social learning theory), and more specifically with his transactional view of the self and society ("triadic reciprocal causation"). It is also consistent with early theorising on human behaviour (Lewin, 1936), and with major learning theories (e.g. social learning theory of personality), and pedagogical philosophy (see Rotter, 1954; Rotter, Chance, and Phares, 1972; Freire, 1972a).

In these multiple interactions and co-influences, cognitive processing (e.g. reflection) of people's experiences, for instance, is necessary (Bandura, 1977b, 1986); however, several different factors, including personal, social, situational, and temporal ones, affect how these experiences are interpreted (Bandura, 1986). Among such factors, influences of the person and the environment are not of equal strength, but they vary, and their relative importance is different under different circumstances (e.g. Lewin, 1936; Bandura, 1997). This said in the

case of disadvantaged populations, such as this study's participants, the environment's influence is stronger. As results showed, the role of the environment in creating optimal conditions was essential for the participants, whose daily environments were deprived, thus, not giving them any sense of control, which is necessary for the exercise of new behaviours. In such deprived or imposed environments the person is less influential in the exercise of his/her behaviour than he/she is in an enabling environment (see Bandura, 2012). Considering the study's findings, it is argued that within the context of social tourism, the application of the major social learning theories, such as Bandura's (1986, 1997) social cognitive theory, can be particularly useful in helping us to better understand, how or under which conditions can disadvantaged populations learn or better unlearn what they already know about themselves and the world from previous negative life experiences, and how they can change their behaviours accordingly.

In addition, this study makes an important methodological contribution to the general and social tourism-specific research, which has largely a mono-method and/or cross-sectional orientation. Of course this limitation does not only concern tourism research, but rather social science research in general, and it is mainly due to the substantial time that is required to collect and analyse quantitative and qualitative data, a process that is rather incompatible with academia's focus on the quantity of publications. This study addressed this limitation by utilising a mixed-method semi-longitudinal research design, and thus, by providing a more complete picture with regard to the positive effects that social tourism holds for disadvantaged populations something that could not be achieved with a single-method study. This said, existing social tourism studies have faced the limitations imposed by employing a qualitative or a quantitative research design. The former does not allow for any generalisations, while the latter does not allow for any causal conclusions. In contrast, this study's design allowed for generalisations of findings (even if limited due to the relatively small sample size), offered grounded (in the sense that they are not based on assumptions but on the qualitative empirical data) explanations of the quantitative results, and simultaneously causal conclusions. The strengths of mixed-method research in addressing these limitations of single-methods studies, together with the semi-longitudinal character of the study and the long time in the field (from April 2011 to February 2012), on one hand added to the legitimacy and credibility of the results, and on the other hand,

showed that the identified effects of the holiday-break on participants' SE and JSB were not restricted to the time period of the holiday, but they had a middle-term character. Indeed, earlier social tourism studies that have been also utilised semi-longitudinal research designs, have found middle-term effects of holiday-taking on other psychological constructs (e.g. Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009; McCabe and Johnson, 2013); however, the results from these studies, despite their importance, are affected by the limitations discussed above, which are integral to mono-method research approaches. A similar methodological contribution is made to the SE and JSB research, which are heavily relied on quantitative approaches.

In terms of theoretical contributions to these research areas, this study also adds to the knowledge of both SE and JSB, in many respects. With regard to the former, the study provided empirical support to Bandura's (1977b, 1997, 2006) SE theory by showing: that successful enactive experiences play a central role in SE change; that changing environmental conditions *per se* is another source of SE information, and change; that changes in SE usually result from a complex interplay between different sources of SE information (e.g. changing environment, positive affective states, and enactive attainments); that the conceptualisation of SE as domain-specific construct (SSE) rather than as a generalised trait (GSE), has more explanatory and predictive value; and that SSE in one domain (e.g. social SE) can generalise into other domains (e.g. JFSE) influencing different areas of behaviour (e.g. JSB). With regard to the latter, this study's results clearly supported the relationship between SE and JSB, and the central role of SE in boosting one's JSB. On the other hand, the empirical support of this research with regard to SE and JSB change, is extracted from a real life or natural context (holiday-break), and not from an artificial setting where specifically designed interventions are implemented to boost participants' SE and JSB, respectively. This is a particularly important novelty, given that psychology research on SE and JSB has been conducted exclusively in artificial settings. In this respect, it can be argued that any positive changes on participants' SE and JSB, which emerge in a real life situation, although they are less likely to produce impressive changes in terms of statistical significance, are more likely to be applicable to participants' everyday life, and thus, to produce changes of practical significance.

In a similar vein, psychology scholars studying unemployed individuals' SE and JSB have never considered holiday-taking as a potentially effective intervention, in terms of boosting their SE and JSB, respectively. With regard to SE in particular, this study offers empirical support to the seminal work by Glyptis (1989), who argued that leisure activities share aspects or functions of employment, and thus, can have important psychological benefits for unemployed people. Due to these functions, employment comprises an important source of one's SE (Hayes and Nutman, 1981; Goldsmith, Veum, and Darity, 1996). It must be stressed at this point, that for ordinary (in terms of their employment status) tourists, functions, such as time structure, are present in their daily life and not in their holidays. On the other hand, for unemployed populations, leisure activities, such as tourism, may be the only source of these functions. Obviously, this is not to say that holiday-taking, can replace important employment functions, which are absent in the lives of unemployed individuals. However, by providing some of these functions, temporarily, it can have positive effects on their SE. With regard to JSB, it was made explicit throughout this study that a break from the routine of applying for work, and from the psychological pressure that repeated failures to secure employment impose upon individuals, is of outmost importance for the person's persistence in the job-search process. Given that disadvantaged populations do not have the opportunity to have any break from such constraints, it is less likely to show a motivated, and thus, persistent JSB in the long-term. As such, a holiday-break, through social tourism initiatives, it can be the only means for these populations to restart in general, and in relation to applying for jobs, in particular.

In addition, this study offers new insights into the unemployment research on JSB, which has been mainly focused on job-search self-efficacy (JSSE) as the major determinant of JSB, by introducing some other determinants of JSB, namely, social SE, JFSE, and incentives towards employment. First of all, these factors have important motivational effects on one's JSB. More specifically, social SE and JFSE were found to have positive effects on unemployed individuals' JSB, in general, as well as on specific job-search activities. Social SE in particular, is an important determinant of JSB, given the social isolation of unemployed individuals, and the low social confidence that it causes, and the social element that important job-search activities (e.g. job-interviews, contacting employers directly), and employment have. As such, an individual who feels efficacious in social contexts is more motivated to exercise

these activities than someone who has low levels of social SE. In this line, someone who believes that he is capable of finding a job is more motivated to search for job, than someone who has low JFSE. Moreover, increased motivation has, in turn, positive effects on the persons' job-search persistence after repeated failures to find a job. It must be stressed at this point that the latter is not a new finding; however, this study strengthened the rather limited evidence base about the central role of JFSE, especially in long-term unemployed people's JSB, which is heavily affected by their repeated failures to secure employment.

Furthermore, the role of incentives towards employment, especially for populations with multiple disadvantages, such as unemployed (long-term unemployed in their vast majority) parents, adds to the existing knowledge about their JSB. For such populations, employment concerns, to a large extent, low-paid and often temporary and de-humanising jobs (e.g. Jahoda, 1982; Levitas, 2006), while simultaneously it imposes important financial costs, such as commuting, and especially childcare costs (OECD, 2007; Plantenga and Remery, 2009; The Guardian, 2012). It could be argued that under these circumstances it is rather unlikely for employment to be attractive enough and to motivate people to get a job (see Lewin, 1935; Graham and Weiner, 2004[1996]), irrespectively of their skills, and their belief in their capability to find a job (see Bandura, 1986). In fact, under such circumstances, employment as a means to another end, which is perceived on behalf of the person as particularly important (e.g. a rewarding family holiday), can boost his/her motivation to search for work. Moreover, this perception that was reported by many participants must be seen in relation to their increased parental- and family-efficacy, as a result of the holiday-break. Managing to take their children on a holiday and seeing them happier, made them feel that they can fulfil their parental role, and that they are better parents. As such, and in order to continue meeting this parental role, which is to provide for their children, they felt more motivated to search for work.

This study also gives another direction to unemployment studies on reemployment, which are exclusively focused on JSB. This direction, points to those unemployed individuals who, for several reasons (e.g. restrictions to work, lack of qualifications, loss of skills due to long-term unemployment), are not in a position to search for and find work in the present, their perceptions about employment, and their BAPE (e.g. volunteering), which have been

overlooked in psychology studies on reemployment. Such perceptions and behaviours are particularly important as they can shape their future JSB, and help them to return to employment (see Kanfer et al., 2001).

6.9 Implications for policy

This study has also important implications for policy-makers. First, and foremost, it responds to the need for further evidence about social tourism's socioeconomic potential and informs the debate on social tourism in the UK (see All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social Tourism, 2011), by providing some "tangible" evidence about the relationship between the individual psychological benefits that social tourism holds for unemployed people, such as increased SE and motivation, and socioeconomic benefits, such as increased JSB. These findings stress the central role of positive mental health in boosting the person's JSB, and, thus, in increasing his/her chances to return to employment, and suggest that social tourism could be incorporated into existing "active" labour programmes in the UK. This said, it has long been argued that "active" labour market policies should incorporate programmes, which revolve around positive mental health and well-being (Warr and Payne, 1983). In addition, research on "active" labour market policies has provided strong evidence about the effectiveness, in terms of increased reemployment, of those programmes which include psychological support (e.g. Proudfoot et al., 1997; Vinokur and Schul, 1997; Wahlbeck and McDaid, 2012). In the UK, however, "active" labour market programmes have largely focused on increased job-search assistance and training, while overlooking job-seekers positive mental health (see Dolton and O'Neil, 2002; Kluve, 2010). As such, social tourism could be embedded into existing unemployment schemes, helping them to increase their effectiveness.

In doing so, it is suggested that social tourism for unemployed individuals should incorporate elements that are relevant to employment. As this study showed, random observation (vicarious experiences) of local people performing a job had positive effects on some participants' JFSE, and career aspirations. Such effects were not mentioned frequently, something that can be attributed to the fact that the holiday-break was not organised in a way to offer vicarious experiences related to employment. Nevertheless, it is advisable that social tourism programmes for unemployed people are organised in a way

that vicarious experiences directly linked to employment are available. For instance, organised forms of social tourism, where participants will have the chance to experience the way of life and work in the countryside, and to get in touch with specific professions and career paths (e.g. agriculture, small family businesses) could potentially shape their career aspirations and enhance their motivation to find a job. These experiences could even affect decentralisation, in the sense that someone might realise that he/she wants to change life-style and relocate to the countryside. In addition, short seminars about such professions could follow the direct observation, and strengthen this job-related element of the holiday-break. This organised element does not mean that the holiday experience will lose its fundamental character, which is rather unplanned and spontaneous. It can take the form of a daily trip or a half-day event during a five-day holiday, for instance.

In line with these suggestions, social tourism can be viewed as a unique tool to tackle unemployment, as it is concerned both with the supply and demand side of the labour market. More specifically, the policy implications of this study concern the supply side of the labour market, while existing evidence from the practice of social tourism in other European countries, according to which, social tourism is directly and indirectly related to the generation of job vacancies in host communities and can help to combat seasonality (European Commission, 2010b; Soumeli, 2010), concern the demand side of the labour market. In fact, effective “active” labour market programmes concern both the supply and the demand side of the labour market. As such, and given that perceptions about social tourism and its promotion in the UK have been mainly revolved around a philanthropic activity (and as such, the potential inclusion of social tourism in the policy agenda would probably reflect another welfare benefit), this complete picture of social tourism gives a different direction to policy-makers, charities that promote social tourism through the provision of holiday-breaks, and tourism professionals.

6.9.1 Issues of public expenditure on social tourism and public perceptions about social tourism

The extent to which public expenditure on social tourism as a part of “active” labour market policies is feasible or not must be discussed while considering two interrelated factors, namely, financial resources available, and existing “active” labour market policies. With

regard to financial resources *per se*, there are some margins for small increases in public expenditure given that the share of the GDP spent on labour market measures has been relatively low (e.g. Martin and Grubb, 2001; Kluve, 2010). In addition, the creation of public-private partnerships in the provision and implementation of social tourism could be another approach. Such partnerships have seen a rapid increase in several sectors and are more suitable to neoliberal regimes (see Bishop, 2011). With regard to existing “active” labour market policies, these do not leave much, if any, space available for new initiatives. There are numerous such policies that have been implemented through a plethora of “welfare to work” agencies and programmes. However, their effectiveness in providing the unemployed the support they need to get back to work is rather questionable, given that existing assessments have used operational measures with severe limitations (see National Audit Office [NAO], 2013), and that there is an increasing evidence reporting bad practices (e.g. The Guardian, 2011; Shildrick et al., 2012b). Moreover, the activities of “welfare to work” agencies are predominantly one-sided, focusing on the supply side of the labour market (e.g. improving people’s employability) rather than the characteristics of the current labour market, such as the lack of available work (Shildrick et al., 2012b, p. 62). Nevertheless, a large share of the public expenditure is spent on this highly fragmented sector (Kluve, 2010).

In addition, construing social tourism as an “active” labour market policy and not as a “passive” is a complex issue as the term “social” *per se* and the promotion of the concept so far mainly as an activity that only benefits disadvantaged populations, have led to an understanding of social tourism as pure philanthropy. The problem of the definition has been already acknowledged, however, a different term and, consequently, a new direction in further promoting social tourism are still unclear (All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social Tourism, 2011, p. 28). This said, it is argued here that the current image of social tourism and its promotion as a philanthropic activity restrict the concept from achieving its full potential for two reasons. Firstly, such an image cannot have any luck in the current era of individualism, in a harsh economic climate, and in countries that follow neoliberal policies. Public spending on social tourism in the UK has always been *a priori* problematic; fifteen years ago due to the harsh economic climate at the time, and today due to the harsher economic climate (see Smith and Hughes, 1999; All-Party Parliamentary Group on Social

Tourism, 2011). Secondly, such an image excludes the two other important attributes of social tourism discussed earlier in this chapter, which concern the supply and demand side of social tourism. As such, it is argued here that the positioning of social tourism in the current policy agenda should be in accordance with these characteristics, and thus, any debate on public expenditure on social tourism should take place within this context. This does not mean that the social nature of the concept is rejected, but that its promotion needs to go beyond this nature, by fully integrating the economic aspect of the concept, and to adapt to the demands and notions of the era we currently live. Social tourism is not only about the “social” but the “economic” as well, and these two aspects together (socioeconomic) encompass its full potential. Actually, social tourism as a whole reflects a holistic form of development, and it needs to be promoted accordingly.

This development is simultaneously individual, social, and economic, but more importantly it is sustainable. Unlike the creation of jobs in other services sectors or manufacturing, for instance, which are often vulnerable to globalisation, jobs created within and around social tourism will be “globalisation resistant” as they will be based on small businesses, which will offer services that cannot be relocated abroad in the search of cheap labour (see Warr, 1987). Thus, if properly planned and implemented, social tourism can contribute to the macroeconomic development of neglected areas. This said, jobs generated will not be the usual temporary jobs in which many unemployed end up, before returning to unemployment again, but jobs of permanent nature. As such, social tourism has the potential to combat current and to prevent from future social exclusion of individuals and areas (DSS, 1999, Payne, 2006). This, of course, depends on government’s willingness and commitment to invest in social tourism, and influence the demand for, and the initial supply of social tourism services.

6.9.2 Some necessary remarks

It is acknowledged that the inclusion of social tourism for unemployed individuals in the current policy agenda is not a simple matter, but a complex one, which raises several questions and concerns, such as: the extent to which people who do not earn their living deserve to go on holidays?; the additional burden to the taxpayers; the margins of public expenditure in the current economic climate; and the extent to which any such expenditure

is pure philanthropy or an investment with the potential to return socioeconomic benefits. Moreover, and given the rather negative connotations that anything which revolves around the term “social” has, in conjunction with the neoliberal directions of governments in the western world, including the UK, which oppose extensive public intervention and expenditure, the above concerns need first to be addressed and clarified in order to provide the context for the debate on social tourism, and its potential inclusion in the policy agenda.

There is no doubt that the exclusion of unemployed individuals from leisure and tourism activities stems from the close relationship between paid work and such activities. Leisure and holiday-taking, as a form of leisure, have been defined as time free from work: “Leisure is the time during which, we are not actively engaged in making a living” (Lundberg, Komarovskiy, and McInerney, 1934, p. 3), and similarly tourism is a time for rest and recuperation from work (Krippendorf 1987; Urry, 2002[1990]). This said leisure and tourism activities, presuppose their opposite, which is employment (Clarke and Critcher, 1985; Glyptis, 1989). In fact, modern tourism and social tourism, respectively, are historically related to paid work. Modern tourism emerged from policies, which allowed workers to gain annual paid holidays, and represents the recognition of the human right to rest and leisure (UNWTO, 1980). Similarly, social tourism, from Thomas Cook’s initiatives to current schemes around Europe, mainly provides low-income groups, such as employed working class populations or pensioners, the opportunity to go on holidays. Thomas Cook, the father of modern mass tourism, used steam trains to take the urban poor (new working class) to the country side, expositions and rallies (see Graburn and Jafari, 1991). Similarly today, discounted holidays for trade unions’ members and their families are offered in several countries, such as France, Portugal, Poland, Hungary (European Economic and Social Committee [EESC], 2006), and more recently Greece (Greek Travel Pages [GTP], 2012; Greek National Tourism Organisation [GNTTO], 2013).

On the other hand, in the case of unemployed individuals, the provision of holidays, through public expenditure, creates ethical issues with regard to “whether people who do not earn their living deserve to go on holidays?” As discussed earlier in the literature chapter, the government’s and public’s concern about tax payers’ money is the main reason for the exclusion of social tourism from the UK social policy agenda (see All-Party Parliamentary

Group on Social Tourism, 2011). While in some societies, ethical views upon such issues place an *a priori* moral duty on the stronger strata to support the weaker, in others the support of the weaker strata is not an *a priori* ethical responsibility (see Minnaert et al., 2006). In Scandinavian countries, for example, holiday travel is treated like any other human right whose social loss should be compensated by the welfare state (Haukeland, 1990). Denmark allows its unemployed up to a three-week vacation in the first year after job loss at the end of which they are classified as newly unemployed (Machin and Manning, 1999, p. 2). But in most countries, including the UK, the relatively little special consideration of the plight of those who are unable to afford a holiday, has confirmed that the public does not recognise the right to such populations to go on holidays (see Hughes, 1991). Such concerns are even more serious in the case of unemployed individuals, given the absence of what Glyptis (1989, p. xii) calls “the work-leisure equation”, the public opinion about the unemployed, and the harsh economic climate. These interrelated concerns are widespread in the British society and the degree of their rationality needs some further discussion.

First of all, and irrespectively of any evidence about the potential of social tourism to benefit unemployed individuals, their families, society, and the host economies, the well-established government and public opinion about the unemployed needs a serious reevaluation. As Shildrick et al. (2012b, p. 223) for instance, point out, “exposing the myth of *the welfare scrounger* is the first step towards better-informed debate and policy.” Especially in countries with strong protestant work ethic, such as the USA (see Fine and Weis, 1998) and the UK (see Jones, 2011), able-bodied adults who do not work have been long considered as misfits or an underclass³⁶ (see Bakke, 1933; Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985; Graburn, 1989; Gallie and Marsh, 1994). Such views stem from the explanation of unemployment as a lack of effort and laziness on behalf of the individuals to look for work,

³⁶ On the other hand, when unemployment hits many people from all walks of life the public opinion may become more sympathetic towards the unemployed (see Hayes and Nutman, 1981; Kelvin and Jarrett, 1985; Feather, 1990). In South European economies, such as Greece and Spain, for instance, where the current euro-zone crisis has resulted in massive unemployment rates of nearly 30%, the public opinion about the unemployed is different and revolves around the original explanations of unemployment as a phenomenon, dating back to the period of the Great Depression and even earlier, according to which, the vast majority of unemployed people are workmen subject to the normal and abnormal fluctuations of the industry (see Rice, 1923; Bakke, 1933). But even when the public acknowledges the lack of demand for labour, this is not always translated to widespread sympathy for the unemployed (e.g. Cole et al., 2011 on UK data).

rather than as a result of particular economic and market conditions (Orwell, 2001[1937]; Feather, 1990). Indicative of the prevalence of such notions in the British society is one of the examples used in the Oxford English dictionary (2013) under the word “welfare”: “They would rather work than live in welfare.” Marsden (1982), for example, calls this paradoxical explanation as “*public schizophrenia*, the tendency to deny that there is a problem of unemployment and to blame and denigrate the workless” (p. 213).

But among the many different explanations on the causes of unemployment, this specific one does not appear to be a key factor (e.g. Krugman, 1994; Krueger and Mueller, 2011), given that the level of benefits is not high enough to stimulate demand for leisure (see Mortensen, 1977; Marsden, 1982). In fact, benefit rates in the UK are inadequate to prevent poverty and social exclusion, especially among lone parents (e.g. Levitas, Head, and Finch, 2006). In addition, and given that psychological health is also influenced by employment commitment, the greater ill-psychological health among the unemployed can be partly attributed to their higher employment commitment (e.g. Jackson and Warr, 1984; Warr and Jackson, 1985; Warr, 2007). Freire (1972b, p. 27), for instance, argues that “marginalised populations do not decide to move out to the periphery of the society.” The majority of them reliant on social security, they do so unwillingly, simply because they do not have other choices (Dorling, 2010). In addition, central to this reliance is, to a large extent, the inadequacy and/or ineffectiveness of several “active” labour-market policies that have been implemented the last three decades. However, these realities have been rather ignored from those we shape the public opinion.

The mass media have been long feeding this image of the unemployed as an underclass in conjunction with the belief that taxpayers’ money are primarily spent on welfare benefits, and that such benefits damage rather than help the economy. This said, some important facts either have not received much attention or have been completely “omitted” from the “catchy” headlines. A first such “omission” concerns the basic information that should have been available to everyone, about how much of the taxpayer’s money are spent on the welfare of the unemployed and how much on other purposes, which until recently was rather hidden; for example, from the taxes an individual with median gross annual earnings of £26,500 (ONS, 2013c) pays, the public expenditure for the socially excluded and the

unemployed is £1.43 and £0.52 per day, respectively, whereas for running the government and defence, for instance, is £4.02 and 2.09, respectively (The Guardian, 2013). This information would allow the public to compare the level of expenditure per purpose, and to assess the significance and necessity of each purpose. Based on these figures, someone could still argue, for instance, that the public expenditure on the unemployed is very high, and someone else that when the main “enemy” of the country is poverty, unemployment, social exclusion, and their chronic consequences for the society and the economy, much more are spent on the top-level government and the military.

A second “omission” concerns the fundamental role of welfare benefits *per se*, especially in rich and unequal societies, and in turbulent economic periods. This said, such benefits do not only help those in need, but simultaneously act as automatic stabilisers for the economy. Such policies increase the propensity to consume (Keynes, 1997[1936]), thus they are means to keep the market alive and in relative equilibrium. In contrast, without income redistribution, through welfare benefits for instance, total demand in the economy would be less than what the economy is capable to supply, given that higher income individuals spend less of their income and save up more, whereas low-income individuals save zero and spend all of their income, causing further unemployment (see Keynes, 1997[1936]; Dynan, Skinner, and Zeldes, 2004; Stiglitz, 2013). This is what currently happens in Greece, where the absence of cash in the market, due to the inadequate social protection together with wage and pension cuts, has led thousands of small businesses to close (see Reuters, 2012; OECD, 2013). In addition to controlling for further increases in unemployment, benefits do not affect inflation, as unemployment compensation is low, thus, it cannot cause excessive demand. In other words, automatic stabilisers are an important part of macroeconomic policy and help mitigate economic crises (e.g. Keiser, 1956; Eilbott, 1966; Taylor, 1993; Stiglitz, 2009; Debrun and Kapoor, 2010; Dolls, Fuest, and Peichl, 2012). As such, welfare benefits are essential both for the individual in need and the economy. But in particularly unequal societies (e.g. UK, USA) public expenditure on social welfare is not viewed as intrinsic to socioeconomic stability and development, but simply as a burden to the tax payer’s pocket (see Stiglitz, 2013). Such views that favour inequalities are well maintained as they are widespread among people in power, and are propagated through the means they control (Toynbee, 2003; Levitas, Head, and Finch, 2006; Dorling, 2010). However,

challenging these views is the necessary first step for policies and developments, such as social tourism, which aim to benefit, not only those at the centre of society, but also those at its margins.

6.10 Limitations and directions for future research

Inquiry is a continuous and evolving process, thus, it cannot be, but incomplete, after the completion of a single study. This reflects the limitations that are inherent to every study (Feyerabend, 2010[1975]). With regard to this research limitations can be identified in aspects of methodology, the conceptualisation of the key constructs within the context of tourism, and the chosen sample. On the other hand, these limitations could offer directions for future research. First of all, and despite the choice of a mixed-method research design as a way to deepen understanding of the phenomena under study, to reduce the weaknesses of a pure quantitative or qualitative study, and to combine their strengths, this choice affected the sample's size. The collection of data at three different points in time, required more willingness, effort, and time on behalf of the participants, than usually require single-method studies. As a consequence, the sample size in conjunction with the ordinal character of the JSA scale, had implications for the survey's analysis, as they did not allow for the use of more advanced statistical techniques. This said, studies with larger samples are definitely needed. In addition, this design imposed several difficulties on the researcher due the independent and self-funded character of the study, which affected the way it was finally implemented. Utilising such a design requires more time and financial resources than mono-method designs. As a result, when one of these resources or both are limited, as in this study, it is not possible to take full advantage of the design's strengths. In other words, a mixed-method design would be more appropriate in a funded and/or team project.

The same applies to the choice of the quantitative design *per se* as the use of repeated-measures is expensive, challenging, and time consuming (Wanberg et al., 2005). Moreover, the absence of a control group in pre- post-test designs has limitations (e.g. history, maturation), which make it difficult to interpret results (Cook and Campbell, 1979; Spector, 1981). Although such threats to internal validity also exist in nonrandomised control group pre- post-test designs (Dimitrov and Rumrill, 2003), the use of a control group with similar sociodemographic characteristics with the experimental group, would have strengthened

the experimental design (Blundell and Costa Dias, 2000; Robson, 2002). On the other hand, and as the qualitative results showed, pre-test GSE was positively affected by the forthcoming holiday-break. For this reason, in studies where the intervention concerns an important for the participants event, such as a holiday-break, a time-series design with two pre-tests (the first been conducted several months before the holiday-break) could have provided a more representative and accurate picture of participants' true pre-test GSE, and consequently of pre- post-test changes in their GSE. In a similar vein, both surveys and interviews have their own limitations. On the other hand, and as Fielding and Fielding (1986, p. 31) contend, "Any information-gathering device is both privileged and constrained by its own particular structure and location; the qualities that enable one kind of information to be collected close off others." Thus, it could be also argued, that limitations concern both the chosen approaches and the alternative ones that could have been chosen instead. The same applies to the chosen analytic methods as "every way of seeing is also a way of not seeing" (Silverman, 2003, p. 348). With regard to the use of GSE and JFSE gain scores, for instance, an alternative option would have been to use Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA), with the pre-test scores as a covariate; however, such an approach has also its own limitations (Dimitrov and Rumrill, 2003).

With regard to the key constructs, SE and JSB, results showed that perhaps different conceptualisations would have been more appropriate within the context of holiday-taking. Although changes in GSE were found both from quantitative and qualitative data, such changes were non-statistically significant and not particularly frequent, respectively. On the other hand, results showed that the holiday-break had a greater impact on different forms of SSE, such as social SE. Moreover, and in relation to JSB, social SE was more influential than other forms of SE. As such, the conceptualisation of SE mainly as social SE (domain-specific) would have been probably more appropriate with the study's context. In line with this primary focus on social SE, JSB could have been measured only in relation to those specific job-search activities that involve social contact. On the other hand, and as mentioned earlier in this chapter, the appropriateness of GSE within the context of holiday-taking should be first tested with a time-series design.

Finally, the specific background characteristics of the sample, namely, long-term unemployed, living in particularly deprived areas, mostly females, middle-aged, with low qualifications, and caring responsibilities, comprise a “difficult” sociodemographic group. These characteristics comprise major obstacles for behavioural changes, both in general and in relation to job search in particular. This said, future studies can be conducted using different subsamples of the unemployed population, such as short-term unemployed, younger populations, non-parents, people with higher qualifications, as well as samples from different countries where the unemployed are less marginalised and less segregated in deprived areas than in Great Britain. For example, similar studies among the young and well-educated population that comprises a large proportion of the unemployed in South European countries, such as Greece, would be desirable. In addition, using different subsamples may result in an easier access to the target population and higher participation rates. In any case, further studies that exploring the effects of social tourism on participants JSB are needed. Finally, and given that holiday-taking reflects an environmental change upon which any positive effects develop, it is suggested that future studies will utilise theoretical perspectives that take into serious consideration the role of environment in shaping people’s cognitive and behavioural changes.

Appendix 1 - Documents attached to the pre-holiday survey

Information letter to the welfare agents



Dear Mr/Mrs/Miss...,

My name is Kostas Kakoudakis and I am contacting you through the Family Holiday Association. I am a doctoral student at the University of Nottingham and I am conducting a study on social tourism with the kind support of the Family Holiday Association. My research investigates whether holiday breaks have any effect on the beliefs of individuals about their capabilities, and on their job-search behaviour respectively. The findings of this research aim to promote social tourism in the UK policy agenda, and to benefit unemployed family members.

To achieve this, I really need your help. I will need access to family members in order to conduct surveys and face-to-face interviews. Questionnaires will have to be answered within 1 month prior to the family's holidays, and within 2 months after. Interviews will be conducted between 3-6 months after holidays. I would like to assure you about the study's strict ethical procedures as guided by the University of Nottingham and the Family Holiday Association. The research process will depend on what is more convenient for you and the family members:

1. Questionnaires can be completed by post or online.
2. Interviews will be conducted face to face in a place agreed with the family and you.

I would be grateful if you will be willing to help this study. I am aware of your busy schedule and I would like to reassure you that the study will not be time-consuming. I have attached a questionnaire for your information, an invitation letter for the family members, and an informed consent form. I will contact you by telephone the next week or so to discuss further details of the project. Thank you very much for your help and time.

Yours sincerely,

Kostas Kakoudakis

Telephone: 07...

E-mail:...@nottingham.ac.uk

Room: B22 South Building,

Nottingham University Business School,

Jubilee Campus, Nottingham,

NG8 1BB

Information letter to families



Dear parent,

My name is Kostas Kakoudakis and I am conducting a study into the impact of holidays on the way you see your capabilities and on your job-search behaviour. I understand that you will be going on a holiday funded by the Family Holiday Association shortly.

I would be really grateful if you could help me by giving a few minutes of your time and completing two short surveys:

1. within one month before the holiday a pre-holiday survey
2. within two months after the holiday a post-holiday survey

Before doing so please read carefully and sign the attached Informed Consent Form and keep a copy for your own reference.

You can complete the written survey (attached) or an online survey instead. If you prefer to complete the written survey, please use the Freepost envelope.

Please note that some families may also be asked to take part in a face-to-face interview later.

Please return the signed Consent Form and completed survey in the Freepost Envelope.

Thank you very much for your help and time. I wish you a wonderful holiday!



Yours faithfully,

Kostas Kakoudakis

Informed Consent Form

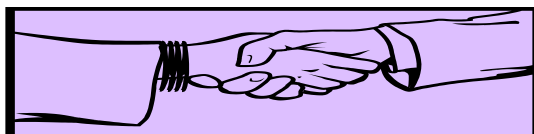
This research is about the effects of holidays on the way you see your capabilities and on your job-search behaviour. It is conducted by Kostas Kakoudakis, doctoral student at Nottingham University, with the kind support of the Family Holiday Association.

I understand that:

- ☐ I do not have to answer any questions that I do not want to.
- ☐ I can withdraw from the research at any time.
- ☐ My identity will be protected.
- ☐ Any information about me is confidential and will only be shared between people involved in this study.
- ☐ All records will be destroyed at the end of the study.

I agree that:

- ☐ The research has been explained to me.
- ☐ I have read and understood the information the referring agent has given me.
- ☐ My questions have been answered.
- ☐ The researcher can contact me if needed.



Name:

Date:

Signature:

Reference number:

Appendix 2 - Pre-holiday questionnaire



Job-seeking Survey

My name is Kostas Kakoudakis and I am conducting a study on behalf of Nottingham University and the Family Holiday Association into the impact of holidays on job-seeking. Please could you help me by completing this questionnaire before you go on holiday and complete another one after you come back?

Reference Number:



1 What are the first 3 digits of your postcode? (e.g. NG7).....

2 In which age group are you? (please tick ☒)

18-23	24-29	30-36	37+
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



3 Are you male or female? (please ☒)

Male	Female
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



4 Are you looking for paid work? (please ☒)

Yes	No
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

5 Is your availability for work affected by any of the following reasons?

No	Yes, caring responsibilities	Yes, restricted by location	Yes, study	Yes, health	Yes, other, please specify
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

6 How long have you been unemployed?

Years	Months	Weeks
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



7 If you were in paid work before, what was your job?

.....

8 What is your highest educational level?

Primary School	Secondary School	Higher education	Other, please specify



9. Beliefs about your capabilities

Please tell us how you feel about the following statements by ticking  box only in each row.

I can do well in some activities (e.g. sports).

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I will be able to achieve a goal that I have set.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can do well in some household tasks (e.g. cooking, cleaning).

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



When facing a difficult task, I am certain that I can do it.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can achieve outcomes that are important to me.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can help my friends when they need my help.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can succeed at most things to which I set my mind to.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can be there for my family.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can perform effectively on many different tasks.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can find paid work if I want to.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



When things are tough, I can perform quite well.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



10 Have you been searching for a paid job during the past month?

Yes	No


Yes, please go to question 11

No, please specify and go to question 14

.....



11. Searching for job

Please tell us about your job-seeking activity during the last month by  1 box in each row only

Have you been looking for a paid job in the job centre?



no not at all	1 or 2 times	every week	every day

Have you been looking for a paid job in the newspapers or on internet?

no not at all	1 or 2 times	every week	every day



Have you contacted employers directly (e.g. door to door, by telephone)?



no not at all	1 or 2 times	every week	every day

Have you been asking family, friends and/or neighbours for paid job opportunities?

no not at all	1 or 2 times	every week	every day



Have you been looking for a job in a different sector than before?



no not at all	1 or 2 times	every week	every day

14 Thank you very much for your help. Is there anything else you would like to add?

.....

Thank you! Please submit this form to your welfare agent to enter our prize draw for a free short break in 2012. The winner will be notified via their welfare agent by 31 March 2012.

Appendix 3 - Documents attached to the post-holiday questionnaire

Thank you letter to the welfare agents



Dear Mr/Mrs/Miss...,

I would like to thank you for your help in asking family... (Reference Number:) to participate in the pre-holiday survey on behalf of the Family Holiday Association and the University of Nottingham. Knowing that the family has returned/will return soon from holiday I am seeking your help again in asking the family to participate in the post-holiday survey of this research.

Completion of the survey will only take 5-10 minutes. Could you please ask the family whether they prefer to complete the survey over the phone (I can call the family directly), or by post, or online?

I would like to remind you that participants will enter our prize draw for a free short break in 2012 (terms and conditions apply). The post-holiday survey is extremely important in order to understand more about the potential benefits of holiday breaks and your help is invaluable to our research.

Thank you once more for your help and time in assisting the family to complete the first survey.

Yours sincerely,

Kostas Kakoudakis

Telephone: 07...

E-mail:...@nottingham.ac.uk

Room: B22 South Building,

Nottingham University Business School,

Jubilee Campus, Nottingham,

NG8 1BB

Thank you letter to the families



Dear parent,

I would like to thank you for participating in the pre-holiday survey on behalf of the Family Holiday Association and the University of Nottingham. Knowing that you have returned from your holiday I need your help again in completing the post-holiday survey of this study.

I would like to remind you that you will enter our prize draw for a free short break in 2012 (terms and conditions apply).

Completion of the survey will only take 5-10 minutes.

You can complete the written survey (attached) or you can participate over the phone. Alternatively you can complete an online survey. If you prefer to complete the written survey, please use the Freepost envelope. If you prefer to complete the survey over the phone, please let your welfare agent know, and I will call you at a date and time convenient for you.

The post-holiday survey is extremely important in order to understand more about the potential benefits of holiday breaks and your help is invaluable to this research.

Thank you once more for your help and time!

Yours faithfully,

Kostas Kakoudakis


Appendix 4 - Post-holiday questionnaire



Job-seeking Survey (post-holiday)

Thank you very much for completing the first part of this survey before going on holiday. Your participation is really appreciated and it is invaluable to our research. Please could you help me by completing the second part of the questionnaire, after you come back from your holiday? This is extremely important in order to measure any benefits of holiday breaks.

Reference Number:

1 Are you male or female? (please ,

Male	Female
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



2. Beliefs about your capabilities

Please tell us how you feel about the following statements by ticking  box only in each row.

I can do well in some activities (e.g. sports).

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



I will be able to achieve a goal that I have set.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



I can do well in some household tasks (e.g. cooking, cleaning).

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>



When facing a difficult task, I am certain that I can do it.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can achieve outcomes that are important to me.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can help my friends when they need my help.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can succeed at most things to which I set my mind to.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can be there for my family.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can perform effectively on many different tasks.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



I can find paid work if I want to.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



When things are tough, I can perform quite well.

strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree



3 Have you been searching for a paid job during the past month?

Yes	No


Yes, please go to question 4

No, please specify and go to question 8

.....



4. Searching for job

Please tell us about your job-seeking activity during the last month by  1 box in each row only

Have you been looking for a paid job in the job centre?



no not at all	1 or 2 times	every week	every day

Have you been looking for a paid job in the newspapers or on internet?

no not at all	1 or 2 times	every week	every day



Have you contacted employers directly (e.g. door to door, by telephone)?



no not at all	1 or 2 times	every week	every day

Have you been asking family, friends and/or neighbours for paid job opportunities?

no not at all	1 or 2 times	every week	every day



Have you been looking for a job in a different sector than before?



no not at all	1 or 2 times	every week	every day

7 Has the holiday affected your motivation to search for paid work?.....

If yes, how?.....
.....
.....



8 Did the holiday affect the way you see yourself as a person?.....

If yes, in what ways?.....
.....
.....

9 Thank you very much for your help. Is there anything else you would like to add?

.....

Thank you! Please submit this form to your welfare agent, or return it directly to the Family Holiday Association in the Freepost Envelope, to enter our prize draw for a free short break in 2012. The winner will be notified via their welfare agent by 31 March 2012.

Appendix 5 - Examination of order effects in the New General Self-Efficacy Scale

As stated earlier in the Methodology chapter some additional items were included in the New General Self-Efficacy Scale (NGSE) scale with the purpose to reduce any discomfort in answering too personal and 'intrusive' questions. They were easy questions expected to get high scores. However, these embedded items could have had implications based on the wider assumptions of the order effects in survey research. Due to the fact that, survey's questions are not isolated, but are always part of a larger sequence of questions, common method biases may potentially influence a study's results (see Schuman and Presser, 1996; Podsakoff, 2003). Among different sources of bias (e.g. social desirability, item ambiguity), the possibility that preceding questions may influence answers given to subsequent questions, is an issue widely addressed in survey research (see Krosnick and Alwin, 1987; Schwarz and Hippler, 1995). This is a potential threat both in mail and telephone surveys. In addition, mail surveys may face the threat of subsequent questions influencing the answers already provided to preceding questions. As Schwarz and Hippler explain (1995, p. 94), "although the questions in self-administered questionnaires are presented in a predetermined order, respondents may read ahead, go back and forth between related questions, or may change previous answers."

Within the context of this study, both threats could potentially exist due to the mixed survey-modes employed. For this reason, first, any implications of preceding questions, which in this case were mainly the embedded questions, were examined. Results are presented in Table A1 and they do not distinguish the survey-mode. The mean scores of all NGSE items, apart from item 1, which showed a significant trend in the reverse direction, were lower than those of their preceding embedded items. The fact that respondents scored relatively low to the first 'easy' embedded item could be attributed to the fact that the activities given as an example, perhaps they were not activities of interest for the respondents. Then, paired samples t-tests were used in order to check whether the above differences were significant. Again, with the exception of the first pair of items, the NGSE scores were significantly lower compared to the scores of their preceding embedded items (see Table A1).

Table A1. Assessment of preceding items' effects (all questionnaires)

Items as presented in the questionnaire	T1	t-tests	T2	t-tests
I can do well in some activities (e.g. sports)	3.56		3.68	
1. I will be able to achieve a goal that I have set	4.07	Higher*	4.05	Higher*
I can do well in some household tasks (e.g. cooking)	4.12		4.44	
2. When facing a difficult task I'm certain that I can do it	3.63	Lower**	3.91	Lower**
3. I can achieve outcomes that are important to me	4.16	Higher**	4.21	Higher**
I can help my friends when they need my help	4.37		4.37	
4. I can succeed at most things to which I set my mind to	4.16	Lower*	4.18	Lower*
5. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges	4.02	Lower*	4.02	Lower
I can be there for my family	4.46		4.72	
6. I can perform effectively on many different tasks	3.96	Lower**	4.04	Lower**
7. Compared to other people I can do most tasks well	3.84	Lower	3.75	Lower**
I can find paid work if I want to	3.04	Lower**	3.49	Lower*
8. When things are tough I can perform quite well	3.53	Higher*	3.82	Higher

Note: Numbered are the NGSE scale's items. In bold is the JFSE single-item.

*p < .05; **p < .001

As such, and regardless of survey mode, the higher scores of the preceding embedded items did not boost, at least significantly, the following NGSE items. Items 3, 5 and 7 of the NGSE scale did not follow embedded items, but other NGSE scale's items. With the exception of item 3 which had higher mean score than its preceding item, the other two had lower scores when compared to their preceding items, both in T1 and T2. The significantly higher score of item 3 compared to item 2 could be attributed to the difficulty of the question, as item 3 is about an outcome that is of importance to the individuals, whereas item 2 concerns an unspecified and general difficult task. In addition, item 8 is higher both in T1 and T2 compared to its preceding JFSE item. This is quite reasonable, irrespectively of the possibility of any order effects, as job finding question is objectively more difficult, within the context of long-term unemployed people, and thus, less likely to be scored higher. JFSE in turn, seems that it has not been affected by its preceding question, from which it was significantly lower both in T1 and T2. As far as the effect of the subsequent questions is concerned, the same process was followed, but only for the self-administered mail questionnaires. Results did not reveal any important effects of subsequent items on the previous items (see Table A2).

Table A2. Assessment of subsequent items' effects (mail questionnaires only)

Items as presented in the questionnaire		T1	t-tests	T2	t-tests
	I can do well in some activities (e.g. sports)	3.34		3.83	
1.	I will be able to achieve a goal that I have set	3.93	Lower	4.03	Lower**
	I can do well in some household tasks (e.g. cooking)	4.14		4.49	
2.	When facing a difficult task I'm certain that I can do it	3.52	Lower*	3.89	Lower*
3.	I can achieve outcomes that are important to me	4.17	Lower*	4.26	Lower*
	I can help my friends when they need my help	4.52		4.49	
4.	I can succeed at most things to which I set my mind to	4.24	Higher	4.29	Higher*
5.	I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges	4.14	Lower	4.06	Lower**
	I can be there for my family	4.48		4.77	
6.	I can perform effectively on many different tasks	3.90	Higher	4.29	Higher*
7.	Compared to other people I can do most tasks well	3.83	Higher*	3.97	Higher*
	I can find paid work if I want to	3.10	Lower	3.71	Lower
8.	When things are tough I can perform quite well	3.55		3.91	

Note: Numbered are the NGSE scale's items. In bold is the JFSE single-item.

*p < .05; **p < .001

On the other hand, it must be mentioned that the two separate assessments reported above are not independent of one another, and that order effects could also be the result of more complex relationships between items (e.g. the effect of the first item in all the other items or in specific only items), which depend to a large extent on individual differences among participants. In addition, and with regard to the self-administered surveys in particular, the questionnaire's format may attenuate the impact of question order (see Schwarz and Hippler, 1995). In general, it should be acknowledged that "there is no end to problems when one looks carefully at questionnaire items" (Schuman and Presser, 1996, p. 13). Finally, an alternative, and perhaps more effective way to test for any effects of the embedded items on the NGSE scale's items, would have been to launch two different surveys, one only with the NGSE scale's items, and one with all the items together, and then make comparisons. However, this option was not feasible.

Appendix 6 - Examination of multi-mode effects

The use of a multi-mode survey strategy raises questions with regard to the comparability of data across modes, as the mode of administration can affect the way people respond (de Vaus, 2002; Fowler, 2009). For this reason it was necessary to test whether data obtained from different survey modes were comparables, and could be pooled together (Fowler, 2009). Independent-samples t-tests were used to compare self-efficacy scores (GSE and JFSE) for different survey modes, before (T1) and after (T2) the holiday-break, chi-square tests for independence (with Yates continuity Correction) to compare JS scores, and Mann-Whitney U tests to compare JSA scores. Online and mail questionnaires share similar characteristics (de Vaus, 2002), and due to the fact that there were only two online responses in total, this survey mode was grouped together with mail questionnaires, under the label 'mail.' At T1, mail and telephone responses were almost equal, 29 and 28, respectively, whereas at T2, there was an increase in mail, and a decrease in telephone responses, resulting in 35 and 22 completed questionnaires, respectively. Results showed no significant differences in all variables' T1 scores and different survey modes. At T2, there was a non significant difference in GSE scores; however, there were significant differences in JFSE, JS (at the $p < .10$ level), and JSA (at the $p < .05$ level), for mail-online and telephone surveys (see table A3).

Table A3. Pre- post-holiday assessment of multi-mode survey effects

	T1 Assessment		T2 Assessment			
GSE						
Mail	3.91 (.58)	$p = .89$, n.s.	4.10 (.68)	$p = .24$, n.s.		
Telephone	3.93 (.66)		3.86 (.75)			
JFSE						
Mail	3.10 (1.20)	$p = .65$, n.s.	3.71 (1.01)	$p = .06$, $eta\ sq. = .06$		
Telephone	2.96 (1.01)		3.14 (1.12)			
JS						
Mail	$p = .84$, n.s.		$p = .06$, $phi = .28$			
No					33.3%	29.8%
Yes					17.6%	31.6%
Telephone						
No					35.1%	29.8%
Yes					14.0%	8.8%
JSA						
Mail	29.72	$p = .68$, n.s.	32.67	$p = .018$, $r = .31$		
Telephone	28.25		23.16			

Notes: for the continuous variables, mean and standard deviation are given; for the categorical variable, the proportion of subjects in different categories is given; for the ordinal variable the mean ranks are given.

On the other hand, and despite these statistically significant differences, the respective effect sizes were medium. In other words, the proportion of variance in the dependent variables that was associated with the different survey modes was not large enough to prohibit from pooling the data (Anderson, 1961; Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). In addition, higher scores were reported in mail and not in telephone questionnaires. Given that the threat of social desirability is usually greater with more personalised methods (de Vaus, 2002, p. 130), such as telephone surveys, it was assumed that the higher scores in mail questionnaires were not due to social desirability. Finally, the tests at T1 that clearly showed no effects of different survey mode on the variables strengthened the belief that the obtained scores had not been affected by social desirability. For these reasons data collected with different survey modes were pooled together for quantitative analysis.

Appendix 7 - Examination of non-response bias

Using information only from those who choose to respond can introduce error, leading to invalid survey results (Miller and Smith, 1983; Dillman, 1991; Stevens, 2009). There is a consensus among a plethora of scholars that if, after appropriate follow up procedures have been carried out, the achieved response rate is not satisfactory (less than 70%, with some arguing about even 85% or 90% response rates) the researcher needs to describe how respondents may differ from non-respondents (Linder et al., 2001). Findings are only representative of the population if those people who did not respond to the questionnaire do not differ in significant ways from those who did respond (Kanuk and Berenson, 1975). In order to examine this issue, early responses were compared with late responses. This is one frequently used way to handle non-response bias, based on the assumption that people who respond later are more typical of non-respondents than those who respond sooner (Kanuk and Berenson, 1975; Armstrong and Overton, 1977; Miller and Smith, 1983). This way of checking for non-response bias is also applicable both to mail and telephone surveys (see Siemiatycki, and Campbell, 1984).

Testing for any early-late response differences concerned only the post-holiday survey (T2). This was due to three reasons: firstly, the pre-holiday (T1) time interval was too short to make proper distinctions and to identify early and late responses; secondly, the vast majority of responses at T1 were received just before going on holiday, thus, making any such testing rather pointless; and thirdly, any changes in the variables of interest were expected to be revealed in T2, so the post-holiday was the crucial time-point for any bias check. Before testing for any differences, participants who responded up to two weeks after the holiday break (Average = 11 days) were grouped as early respondents and those who responded later than two weeks and up to two months (Average = 40 days) were grouped as late respondents. It must be mentioned at this point that, in general, there is no consistent or standardised operational definition of an “early” or “late” respondent (see Linder et al., 2001). Nevertheless, the choice of two weeks reflects the shortest time interval that has been used in the existing literature (e.g. Vuori et al., 2002; Vuori et al., 2005; Vuori and Vinokur, 2005), with the exception of a post-test conducted immediately after an intervention (e.g. Eden and Aviram, 1993).

In order to check for any effects of early-late responses in post-holiday (T2) self-efficacy and job-search behaviour, different tests were used depending on each variable's level of measurement. Independent-samples t-tests were used for the assessment of GSE and JFSE, a chi-square test (Continuity Correction) was used for the assessment of the dichotomous JS, and a Mann-Whitney U test for the ordinal JSA. Results revealed non-statistically significant differences in the variables for early and late responses (see Table A4).

Table A4. Post-holiday early-late response assessment

T2 Assessment		
GSE		
Early	4.03 (.83)	$p = .86$ n.s.
Late	4.00 (.68)	
JFSE		
Early	3.64 (1.28)	$p = .56$ n.s.
Late	3.44 (1.10)	
JS		
Early		$p = .92$ n.s., $\phi = .05$
No	15.8 %	
Yes	8.8 %	
Late		
No	43.9 %	
Yes	31.6 %	
JSA		
Early	29.79	$p = .82$ n.s.
Late	28.74	

Notes: N= 14 (Early), N = 43 (Late); for the continuous variables, mean and standard deviation are given; for the categorical variable, the proportion of subjects in different categories is given; for the ordinal variable the mean ranks are given.

Moreover, the available demographic characteristics of the non-respondents, gender, age and region, were compared with the respondents' characteristics, revealing very small differences (see Table A5). Overall, these results led to the conclusion that non-response error was rather unlikely to have caused any bias to the study's results. With regard to other ways of handling non-response bias, such as comparing respondents to a small random sample of non-respondents this was not a feasible option. Such an approach required contacting again some of the non-respondents and asking them again to complete the surveys. But given that after several indirect and direct attempts those individuals had expressed clearly that they did not want to participate in the study, there was not any rationale in following this approach. Moreover, insisting in getting responses from people

who do not want to provide responses would have been against the ethical considerations of the study, and could have only caused additional fatigue to those individuals.

Table A5. Demographic differences between respondents and non-respondents

Variables	Respondents	Non-respondents
Gender		
Male	28.1%	33.0%
Female	71.9%	67.0%
Age		
18-29	35.0%	39.7%
30-36	40.4%	37.0%
37+	24.6%	23.3%
Region		
North	49.1%	41.9%
Central	33.4%	36.5%
South	17.5%	21.6%

Notes: North includes Scotland, North East & West, and Yorkshire and the Humber; Central includes Wales, Midlands (East & West), and East of England; South includes South East & West and London.

Appendix 8 - Representativeness of the sample

From a first glance at the national statistics, it seems that the study's sample is different to the country's unemployed population over 16 years of age. On the other hand, it must be stressed that "A sample may represent the population with respect to one characteristic or variable and may not represent the population with respect to other variables [...] A representative sample is a sample which, for a specified set of variables resembles the population from which it is drawn" (see Stephan and McCarthy, 1958, pp. 31-32). The following comparisons show that the study's sample can be perceived as relatively representative to the country's unemployed population in several respects.

According to the Office for National Statistics (ONS) (2012a), unemployment rates are higher among males (9.2%) than among females (7.6%). According to these figures, 57.7% of the unemployed are males and 42.3% females, thus, there is a sharp difference with the study's sample (28.1% were men and 71.9% women). On the other hand, it must be stressed that while the national figures concern the UK, the study focuses only on Great Britain. The inclusion of Northern Ireland in the national statistics widens the gap between males and females, given the almost double unemployment rate for males (9.6% for males and 5.5% for females) (ONS, 2012c). Similarly, a closer look at the national data shows that in several respects, any differences between males and females are much slighter. This said, within the specific age groups upon which the study focuses, the difference in the proportion of unemployed men and women, becomes much smaller. The majority of the participants were between 24-36 years of age, and 24.6% were over 37 years of age. Within the similar 25-34 age group that is used in the national statistics, unemployment rates are almost equal between men (8.6%) and women (8%), and in those aged between 35-49, the rates are slightly higher for women (men 5.3% and women 5.6%) (ONS, 2012a). In addition, the most recent rise in unemployment appears to hit women more. More specifically, two thirds of the recent rise in unemployment has hit women, with 22,400 women out of work and only 5,200 men (ONS, 2012a). Similarly, the latest figures also show a significant rise of long-term unemployed women (ONS, 2012a). Thus, the fact that the majority of the participants were long-term unemployed, could also explain the prevalence of women in the final sample.

With regard to the length of unemployment, there seems to be an over-representation of long-term unemployed (unemployed for more than 12 months) in this study (75.4%) compared to the UK unemployed population. According to the national statistics, 32.9% of all the unemployed aged between 16-64 years are long-term unemployed (ONS, 2012a). Considering that the majority of the participants were women, this could be explained from the significant rise of long-term unemployed women, a rise of 30,000 over the last year (ONS, 2012a). But more importantly, within the particular age group 18-49, in which the majority of participants fall into, the long-term unemployment rate is 64.3% (ONS, 2012a), a figure that is relatively close to the respective figure from the study's sample. In addition, it must be reiterated that three missing values (7% of the long-term unemployed) were treated as long-term unemployed (see §4.3). If, for any reason, these cases were not long-term unemployed, the figure of the study's sample is 68.4%, thus, much closer to the ONS's figure.

On the other hand, any differences could be also attributed to the distribution of participants in specific regions, such as Yorkshire and the Humber, West Midlands and North England, where general unemployment and, consequently, long-term unemployment rates are traditionally higher than the national average. In the period November 2011-January 2012, for instance, the unemployment rate in the above regions, among all aged 16 and over, ranged from 9.1% in West Midlands to 10.8% in North East, whereas the national average was 8.4% (ONS, 2012a). In addition, some of these regions, such as North West and Yorkshire and The Humber, have seen a significant rise in unemployment rates recently. Similar are the figures of claimants of Jobseeker's Allowance in the above regions. Recent figures show that a significant proportion of persons among all ages, who claim jobseeker's allowance reside in regions, such as Yorkshire and The Humber (5.0%), West Midlands (5.1%), and North East (5.6%) (nomis official labour market statistics, 2012a, 2012b, 2012e). Furthermore, in areas where high unemployment rates are reported, there are usually high rates of long-term unemployment, and jobseeker's allowance claims for over 12 months. In West Midlands, for instance, 23.2% of persons who claim Jobseeker's Allowance are long-term claimants. In Yorkshire and the Humber, long-term claimants are 20.6%, in North East 20.2%, and in North West 19.6%. Going deeper into figures from specific sub-regions (e.g. towns and neighbourhoods) within the above regions, where most of the study's

participants reside, we can see that unemployment and jobseeker's allowance rates, respectively, are much higher than the regional statistics indicate (see nomis official labour market statistics, 2012a, 2012b, 2012d, 2012e). According to the last data available, the unemployment rate in Manor, Sheffield, for example, was 15.9% in 2001, whereas Jobseeker's Allowance claimants were 10.1% in February 2012, with 56.2% of those claimants aged 25-49, and 27% claiming for over 12 months (ONS, 2004; nomis official labour market statistics, 2012a).

Although national statistics with regard to the educational level of unemployed people are not available, figures from sub-regions within the UK can give some indications. However, it must be stressed that firstly, the categorisation of qualifications from the Office for National Statistics, is different from the categorisation of the educational level used in this study, and secondly, the data are from the 2001 Census, and they concern all people aged 16-74 years (ONS, 2004). As such, it is not possible to make accurate comparisons and any attempts for general comparisons must be seen with cautiousness.

Recent unemployment trends in Europe and the US show that unemployment discriminates less than in the past, and today it can hit anyone, apart from the elite of each society. Nevertheless, it hits more those living in deprived areas, and who have less qualifications. Half of the participants, 50.9% did not have qualifications (they did not go to school or they attended primary school or some secondary school), 24.6% had GCSE (General Certificate of Secondary Education), which could be translated to lower level qualifications, and holders of a university degree were just 7%. These figures are consistent with the available data in some of the most deprived areas in Great Britain. In Manor, Sheffield, for instance, 60.5% of unemployed individuals have no qualifications or level unknown, 36.4% lower level qualifications, and just 3.1% higher level qualifications (nomis official labour market statistics, 2012g). In Speke, Liverpool, 56.5% have no qualifications or level unknown, 38.7% lower level qualifications, and 4.7% higher level qualifications (nomis official labour market statistics, 2012d). Similarly, in Bulwell, Nottingham, 53.5% have no qualifications or level unknown, 41.8% lower level qualifications, whereas 4.7% higher level qualifications (nomis official labour market statistics, 2012c).

On the other hand, when compared to the unemployed population from other deprived areas in the country, the proportion of people with no qualifications in the sample is much larger (nomis official labour market statistics, 2012a, 2012b, 2012c, 2012d, 2012e). In Firth Park, Sheffield, for instance, 50.1% of the unemployed have no qualifications or level unknown, 41.6% lower level qualifications, and 8.3% higher level qualifications. In Rotherham Central, 48.9% have no qualifications or level unknown, 46.3% lower level qualifications and 4.8% higher level qualification. In Blackley, Manchester, 48.5% have no qualifications or level unknown, 44.2% lower level qualifications and 7.3% higher level qualifications. In Lemington, Newcastle-upon-Tyne, 40.3% have no qualifications or level unknown, 49.5% lower level qualifications, and 10.2% higher level qualifications. In Cowpen (Ward), Blyth Valley (Local authority), 35.3% have no qualifications or level unknown, 62.1% lower level qualifications, and 2.7% higher level qualifications. In Tamworth Castle, West Midlands, 36.4% have no qualifications or level unknown, 59.4% lower level qualifications and 4.2% higher level qualifications.

Consistent to the previous discussion about the higher distribution of unemployment among the less privileged, are the data about the last occupation of the participants before unemployment. One-third of the study's sample used to work in customer services and sales (33.3%), 17.5% in personal services, and 15.8% in elementary occupations. According to the most recent figures available from the period October- December 2011, the last job of most unemployed people was in elementary occupations (459,000), followed by sales and customer services (252,000), and skilled trades (206,000) (ONS, 2012b). The difference in the order between elementary occupations and customer services, can be explained by the increasing rate of unemployed people who used to work in sales and customer services (8.3%) and the decrease of those who worked in elementary occupations (-4.7%) (ONS, 2012b). In addition, for females who are the majority in this study, the difference between elementary occupations and customer services and sales is very small (144,000 and 128,000 respectively) (ONS, 2012b). In this prevalence of females in the study, can be attributed the high proportion of participants who used to work in personal services. According to the national statistics, this was the third most frequent occupational category for unemployed women (117,000) and very close to the first two categories (ONS, 2012b). Nevertheless, and

apart from any differences in the order of occupations, what is of more importance is the clear indication that unemployment hits specific occupational groups more.

Furthermore, it must be mentioned that a significant proportion of the study's participants had never worked (14%). This figure is quite consistent to the data available from the 2001 Census according to which, 19% of the unemployed aged between 18-49 years had never worked (ONS, 2004). These national data concern individuals who had never worked, but at the same time include whole households that have never worked. In fact, since the 2001 Census, there has been an increase in the number of households in which no adult has ever worked (ONS, 2011a, 2011b). On the other hand, no such data have been collected during this study, and as a result, any comparison in this respect is not possible.

Appendix 9 - Interview Guide: development of individual questions

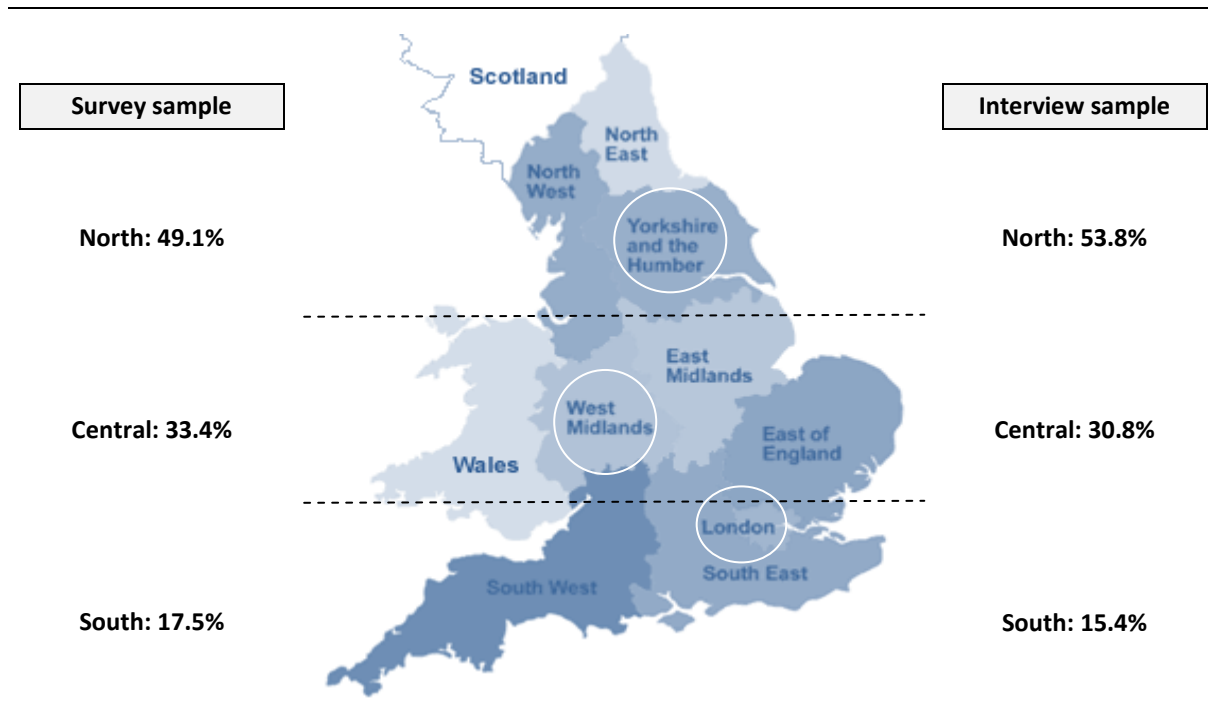
Questions	Aim	Source
1. Where did you go on holiday? For how many days? Did you like the place?	To open the interview conversation in an easy way for the interviewee, and to establish rapport.	Developed by the researcher.
2. What did you enjoy the most about your holiday? Is there anything else?	To identify the most important for the participant aspects of the holiday-break, in terms of psychological benefits; To examine the impact that the new environment had on the participant's affective states; To continue the interview conversation in an easy way for the interviewee, and to establish rapport.	Influenced by Pearce (2005, p. 164): "The concept of enjoyment has been often treated as synonymous with satisfaction. But the term enjoyment is typically used for the more fulfilling and psychological contributions deriving from experiences."
3. What types of things did you do whilst you were away? Do you think any of these experiences might be useful to your life in general? If probed: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To identify experiences and/or episodes of interactions, which were different from the respective day-to-day activities and experiences of the participant; to examine whether sources of self-efficacy information (e.g. enactive attainments, observation) were included in these experiences; To identify the extent to which these experiences had any positive impact on the person's everyday life, and to understand this impact; To continue the interview conversation in an easy way for the interviewee, and to establish rapport.	Developed by the researcher.
4. How have you been feeling since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To capture any effects of the holiday-break on the affective component of self-efficacy, and to understand these effects.	Adapted from Minnaert (2007).
5. Has the holiday experience affected the way you see yourself as a person? If probed: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To capture any effects of the holiday-break on the person's self concept in general (e.g. self-image, self-esteem, self-efficacy); To identify any potential links between self-esteem and self-efficacy.	Developed by the researcher, but conceptually derived from Jahoda's (1958) indicators of positive mental health, and based on earlier findings from social tourism studies on low-income families according to which, holiday-taking has a positive impact on participants' self-esteem (e.g. Minnaert, Maitland, and Miller, 2009).
6. Has the holiday affected the way you see your circumstances at home? If probed: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	Circumstances at home refer to a large extent to family relations, which have been found to be problematic during unemployment, thus, diminishing the person's self-efficacy. The aim of the question	Developed by the researcher, but conceptually derived from Jahoda's (1958) indicators of positive mental health, and based on findings

	is to capture whether the respondent perceives that he/she has control over the circumstances in his/her home environment, and to understand the role of the holiday-break in this perception.	from unemployment studies, according to which, unemployment has negative effects on the family unit (e.g. Elder, 1974/1999; Walsh, 1987; Schliebner and Peregoy, 1994), and on social tourism studies that have shown improvements in family relations as a result of holiday-taking (e.g. Minnaert, 2007; McCabe, 2009).
7. How do you see life in general since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To capture any effects of the holiday-break on the person's life perspectives and optimism levels, and to understand how these effects are manifested; to identify the extent to which such cognitive changes are related to the person's self-efficacy.	Developed by the researcher, but conceptually derived from Jahoda's (1958) indicators of positive mental health.
8. How do you see difficulties/challenges since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To capture whether the respondent perceives that he/she has control over difficult and challenging circumstances, and to investigate the role of the holiday-break in this perception.	Developed by the researcher, but conceptually derived from Maslow's (1987[1954]) 'independence of the environment' and Bandura's (2006) 'resiliency self-efficacy.'
9. What do you think about your ability to find work since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To examine the persons' JFSE after the holiday-break; To identify whether the person's perception is affected by the holiday-break (e.g. increased general confidence) or/and by any other reasons (e.g. difficult job market).	Adapted from Epel, Bandura, and Zimbardo (1999), and Wanberg, Zhu, and van Hooft, (2010).
10. How do you see work-life balance since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To open the sensitive topic on JSB in an easy way for the respondent; To capture his/her perception about caring responsibilities as a major restriction to work; To examine whether the holiday-experience had any effect on this perception.	Developed by the researcher. Theoretically based on findings from JSB studies, according to which caring responsibilities is a major restriction to work, especially for single-parents (e.g. Moen, 1979; Jackson and Warr, 1984; Gallie and Vogler, 1994; Bailey, 2006).
11. Have you thought of looking for work since the holiday?	To examine participants' JSB after the holiday-break; To capture the very first step of the person's JSB, which is his/her intention to look for work. The question served as a proxy to the direct and rather threatening question 'Have you been looking for work since the holiday?' (It could elicit the same information, while minimising the person's uneasiness and the risk for a social desirable answer. Those who had been looking for work could simply answer 'Yes', while those who had not, would feel less uncomfortable to answer 'No').	Developed by the researcher. Theoretically based on Kanfer's, Wanberg's and Kantrowitz's (2001) wider conceptualisation of JSB.
If YES ask: Has the holiday affected your motivation to search for work? If probed: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To examine whether the holiday experience had any effect on the person's motivation to look for work; To capture the intensity of the person's JSB (increased motivation reflects increased intensity); To	Developed by the researcher.

	understand how these effects were manifested.	
If NO ask: What kind of job would you like to find now or in the future? Probe: Has the holiday experience affected this choice? If probed: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To examine the extent to which the holiday experience had any effects on the non-seekers desire for personal growth through employment; To understand how these effects were manifested; To capture indirectly the employment commitment of those participants who had not been looking for work.	Developed by the researcher, but conceptually derived from Maslow's (1987[1954]) 'growth motivation.'
12. Have you been on a job-interview since the holiday?	To examine participants' JSB after the holiday-break (the job-interview is the only job-search activity that could be theoretically linked to tourism participation, given that they are both social activities); To capture the last step of the job-search process that is the job-interview, and thus, the effectiveness of the person's JSB (been shortlisted for an interview).	Adapted from Blau (1993).
If YES ask: How did you feel during the interview? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To identify any links between the persons' SE and JSB (e.g. resistance to stress while the person is in a stressful situation, such as a job-interview, is a sign of increased confidence).	Developed by the researcher, but conceptually derived from Jahoda's 'resistance to stress' (1958).
If NO ask: How do you feel about going on a job-interview since the holiday? Probe: How do you explain this? Is there anything else?	To identify any links between the non-seekers SE and motivation for future action (Given that resistance to stress and positive forethought motivate action, the extent to which the person perceives a particularly stressful job-search activity as overwhelming or not, determines his/her future JSB).	Developed by the researcher, but conceptually derived from Jahoda's 'resistance to stress' (1958), and Bandura's (1995, 1997) 'forethought.'
13. Do you think that you have learned anything in general from the holiday experience?	To capture any other cognitive changes that could be potentially relevant to SE and that had not been mentioned during the interview.	Adapted from Minnaert (2007).
If YES ask: Can you please tell me more about that? Is there anything else?	To capture any other cognitive changes that could be potentially relevant to SE and that had not been mentioned during the interview.	Developed by the researcher.
If NO ask: Do you think that the holiday had any other benefit for you? If probed: Can you please tell me more about that? Is there anything else?	To capture any other general benefits of the holiday-break that could be potentially relevant to SE and JSB.	Adapted from Minnaert (2007).

Appendix 10 - Comparison of qualitative and quantitative samples

Table A6. Geographical distribution of survey and interview participants



Note: The white circles show in which specific regions the majority of participants reside.

Table A7. Comparison on background characteristics

		Quantitative sample		Qualitative sample	
Variables	Values	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Gender	Male	16	28.1	5	38.5
	Female	41	71.9	8	61.5
Age	18-29	20	35.1	3	23.1
	30+	37	64.9	10	76.9
Unemployment duration	Up to 12 months	6	10.5	1	7.7
	Over 12 months	51	89.5	12	92.3
Education	Lower	43	75.4	7	53.8
	Higher	14	24.6	6	46.2
Last occupation	Blue-collar	52	91.2	11	84.6
	White-collar	5	8.8	2	15.4
Restrictions to work	None	13	22.8	3	23.1
	Restrictions	44	77.2	10	76.9

Table A8. Comparison on self-efficacy and job-search behaviour scores

	Quantitative sample		Qualitative sample	
	Pre-holiday	Post-holiday	Pre-holiday	Post-holiday
General self-efficacy (GSE)	3.92 (.61)	4.00 (.71)	4.16 (.55)	4.23 (.63)
Job-finding self-efficacy (JFSE)	3.04 (1.13)	3.49 (1.12)	3.31 (1.18)	3.85 (1.07)
Job-search behaviour				
Job-seeking (JS)				
Yes	31.6%	40.4%	46.2%	53.8%
No	68.4%	59.6%	53.8%	46.2%
Job-seeking activity (JSA)	5.0	5.0	5.0	7.0

For the continuous variables, mean and standard deviation are given; for the categorical variable the proportion of participants in different is given; for the rank-ordered variable median is given.

Appendix 11 - Interview briefing and debriefing

Briefing

Hello everyone, and thank you very much for accepting to participate in this interview/discussion. I'm Kostas, doctoral student at Nottingham University and I am conducting this study with the kind support of the Family Holiday Association. I would like to apologise for my accent. I come from Greece and English is not my first language. So please feel free to interrupt me at anytime and to ask me to say again anything that you don't understand. The purpose of this interview/discussion is to talk and find out, if and how a holiday has any personal and social benefits. The questions are related to the way you feel and think since the holiday, and the way you see job-seeking and employment. Your answers will be invaluable in our effort to promote social tourism initiatives, such as the work of the Family Holiday Association, in the UK policy agenda.

Please note that you don't have to answer any questions you don't want to, your answers will be completely confidential, and all your details will remain anonymous. You have also the right to end the interview at any time and for no reason. I would also like to let you know that during this interview/discussion I will use a sound recorder. Are you ok with that? Do you maybe have any questions? So are you still willing to participate in this interview? I turn the audio recorder on.

Debriefing

I have no further questions. Is there anything else you would like to bring up, ask about, before we finish the interview? I turn the audio recorder off. I would like to thank you for answering the questions and for your time. Your participation is really appreciated and will be invaluable to our research.

Appendix 12 - Initial categorisation and recoding of background variables

Variables	Questionnaire categories	Initial coding	Recoding for statistical analyses
Gender	Male Female	Male Female	Male Female
Age	18-23 24-29 30-36 37+	18-23 24-29 30-36 37+	18-29 30+
Unemployment duration	Open question	Up to 12 months Over 12 months Never worked	Up to 12 months Over 12 months
Education ^a	Primary school Secondary school Higher education Other ^b	Up to some primary school Up to some secondary school GCSE Higher education University degree	Lower Higher
Last occupation ^c	Open question	Never worked Labourers & factory workers Elementary occupations Customer services & sales Personal services Professional & managerial	Blue-collar White-collar
Restrictions to work ^d	None Caring responsibilities Health Other (location, study, criminal record).	None Caring responsibilities Health Other (location, study, criminal record).	None Restrictions

a. The initial coding in education is adapted from categories used in national statistics (see Barnes, 2011); b. Respondents' answers to the category 'other' shaped the initial coding of categories. Half of the respondents said that their education was up to some primary and up to some secondary school, but without completion of any. These two categories created the categories 'up to some primary' and 'up to some secondary education.' A large minority reported having GCSE, and this formed a middle category, representing lower level qualifications; c. Initial coding in last occupation is adapted from the Standard Occupational Classification 2000 (SOC) (ONS, n.d), and the International Standard Classification of Occupations (ISCO) (ILO, n.d.); d The vast majority of those who fell into this group reported caring responsibilities (77% of the group).

Appendix 13 - Normality assessment

In order to examine the normality of the distribution of scores on self-efficacy (GSE and JFSE), firstly, the symmetry of the distribution was checked. The skewness value indicated that the distribution of GSE scores was negatively skewed, both in T1 (-.75) and in T2 (-.1.02). In addition, positive kurtosis values both in T1 (1.40) and T2 (.60) indicated that the distributions were rather peaked (clustered in the centre). The distribution of JFSE scores was positively skewed (.16) in T1, whereas in T2 it was negatively skewed (-.45). Negative kurtosis values both in T1 (-.74) and T2 (-.46) indicated that the distributions were relative flat, with some cases in the extremes. In addition, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normality suggested a violation of the assumption of normality, both in GSE and JFSE scores (Sig. values < .05). In such cases, the variables can be transformed, process which involves mathematically modifying the scores using various formulas until the distribution looks more normal (see Tabachnick and Fidell, 2007). However, after inspecting the normal probability plots, which showed that the points for the cases fall along the diagonal (from lower left to upper right) with minor deviations, and the trimmed means as well, it was decided to use the data in their original form. The comparison of the original (3.92) and the trimmed mean (3.95) of T1 GSE did not reveal any differences in the mean values, which means that any extreme scores did not have a strong influence on the mean. Similarly, in T2 the original (4.00) and the trimmed mean (4.04) of GSE were not much different. With regard to JFSE the original and the trimmed mean in T1 were exactly the same (3.04), while in T2, they were not much different either (original mean: 3.49, trimmed mean: 3.55). Given these results, and the fact that most of the parametric techniques are reasonably 'robust' to violations of the assumption of normality, especially with large enough samples (e.g. $N > 30$ or better $N > 50$) there was no indication that this violation would cause any major problems (see Hair et al., 2010; Norman, 2010)

Appendix 14 - Researcher as instrument statement

My first involvement with travel and tourism goes back in my childhood years. In those old good days, I was privileged enough to travel every summer with my family. I still remember my anticipation of the summer holidays, as well as places, colours, smells, and trivia incidents from most of these trips, after almost three decades. My closer involvement with tourism goes back to my undergraduate years when I decided to study tourism, and continues since then both at professional and educational level. My almost absolute engagement with tourism was only disrupted for short periods of time (e.g. due to the compulsory National Services in Greece and to other temporary jobs that every now and then I had to take). On the other hand, my unemployment experience was short-term. I first experienced unemployment, while I was working in the tourism industry in Greece. Tourism employees in Greece are laid-off at the end of every summer season and are hired again at the beginning of the next season. My personal experience of unemployment concerned short-spells of unemployment, as I was usually lucky and stubborn enough to find employment for the winter months in North Greece; however, it was during this period of time when I first started being sceptical about unemployment in general, and the problem of seasonal unemployment in the Greek tourism sector.

My interest in social tourism for unemployed individuals started recently and rather accidentally. While I was in my first year of this doctoral programme, on a different research topic, the economic crisis hit Greece. Underemployment and unemployment increased rapidly, affecting friends, family and my studies. These changes in conjunction with my personal experience of unemployment a few years earlier, made me start developing a genuine interest on unemployment and potential solutions to this problem. It was at that time when I first read some work of my supervisor Scott McCabe on social tourism for low-income groups, which made me realise the wider potential of social tourism. Since then I have been developing the idea of social tourism for unemployed individuals.

I consider the above personal experiences as an asset for this study; however such experiences and their influences on my life perspectives may also reflect several biases that I bring into this study in general, and into the qualitative part of this research in particular. Firstly, my engagement with tourism is holistic and, thus, not restricted to university

education. Secondly, my personal experiences of unemployment mean that I am not a distant observer in this study. These experiences have positioned me in the margins between middle and working class, and differentiate me significantly from the vast majority of my academic peers. My glance in this research topic reflects a mixing of life experiences, including educational, employment, and unemployment experiences. As such, I do not identify myself with my academic peers or the unemployed participants in this study. I know how it feels to work for the minimum or below the minimum wage, and how it feels to work for a managerial or academic wage, how it feels to struggle to pay the bills and how it feels to be able to afford a weekend away, how enabling environments boost the individual's motivation and progress, and how disabling environments diminish it. With regard to unemployment in particular, I have not experienced the compounded disadvantages that participants in this study experience, but I can really understand their situation and struggle. I know the fear of unemployment, the feeling of the empty day of an unemployed, and the frustration of looking at the classifieds when there are no job vacancies available. Furthermore, these mixed life experiences are reflected in my political views. I identify myself as centre or centre-left, a stance that reflects the synthesis of left and right wing ideas as the only effective way of a country's progress; however, this rather "romantic" stance is either unrepresented or underrepresented in the Greek and English political scenes, and for this reason I currently do not support any specific political party.

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