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Well-Being and Employment in Tourism

The Association for Tourism and Leisure Education and Research (ATLAS) was established in 1991 to develop transnational educational initiatives in tourism and leisure. ATLAS provides a forum to promote staff and student exchange, transnational research and to facilitate curriculum and professional development. ATLAS currently has members in about 60 countries. More information about ATLAS can be found at http://www.atlas-euro.org/.

The ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review gives ATLAS members and participants of the ATLAS conferences and meetings a platform to publish the papers they have presented. The editing will be carried out by an editorial board / field editors.

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The ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review will be distributed to ATLAS members for free. It will also be for sale in the ATLAS online bookshop at http://www.atlas-webshop.org/.

ATLAS 25 years

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Content

Preface

On the occasion of the 25th anniversary of ATLAS, we introduce the first volume of our new periodical, ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review. In recent years we have faced increasing demand from our conference delegates for publication opportunities for their papers. While many of these have been published in books or established journals, there are still many worthy contributions that we have not been able to publish. We have therefore decided to create a new publication outlet, which is particularly aimed at the themed tracks in our conferences.

The collection of papers presented in these tracks represent concentrated and concise reviews of particular themes and topics. In order to improve our services to our members and conference participants, we have decided to start issuing the ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review, which will consist of thematically ordered collections of conference papers. For each volume of 3 to 5 papers, we will invite a guest editor to take care of the review process and proofreading of the papers. All volumes will become digitally available for members and will be on sale to non-members via the ATLAS bookshop.

This first Volume on Well-Being and Employment in Tourism includes papers from the 2014 Budapest conference and is edited by James William Miller and colleagues. We would like to thank James for taking the lead in this process. Subsequent Volumes will follow shortly.

With the launch of ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review we expect to have adequately addressed the many inquiries we received in the last few years about publication opportunities.

René van der Duim
ATLAS chair

Introduction
Well-Being and Employment in Tourism

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Because the tourism industry contributed over $7.6 trillion to the global economy in 2015 - a whopping 10% of the global GDP (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2015) - it is not surprising that the industry also attracts considerable scholarly attention. In 2015 alone, a total of 752 articles were published in the top ten tourism and hospitality journals worldwide[1]. What is striking about the research published in the past year is how little of it was devoted to the health and well-being of the people engaged in the industry, either as employees or as owner/managers. Even if one includes the literature on how best to motivate employees so that they do a better job of meeting tourists' needs (a focus that moves employees' needs to the background, although generally also benefitting their own well-being), the results are sobering. I was able to count 20 such articles altogether out of the 752. Here the *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management* was a commendable exception to the general disinterest in the topic, with 12 out of these 20 articles appearing in just this one journal. The overwhelming majority of these 20 articles dealt, however, with front-line employees in hospitality - how to keep them happy to reduce turnover rates, how to help them deal with stress so they do not unload on guests, etc. One article dealt with burnout among volunteers in local festivals. None dealt with work-life balance or well-being issues among managers or owners of tourism operations. This imbalance reflects a general focus in the field on attending to the needs of guests - which is not surprising for a service industry. But we ignore the people involved in providing service, especially those who lead tourism enterprises, at our peril. The well-known saying that "a fish rots from the head down" should make us more careful to avoid this omission. For example, when one considers the problem of burnout only from the perspectives of employee retention and avoiding possible negative consequences for guests, one misses an opportunity for sustainable cultural change within organizations. Bosses who internalize the value of work-life balance and make sure that both their own well-being needs *and* those of their employees are met, generally are better managers than workaholics. The latter tend to pay attention to work-life balance issues only because they are forced to do so, not because they really believe them to be important. In such cases, work-life balance is often treated as a side issue and addressed with scattered and ultimately not very effective initiatives, rather than

[1] As measured by the SCImago Journal & Country Rank in the category Tourism, Leisure and Hospitality Management (http://www.scimagojr.com/journalrank.php?category=1409). This category includes some top-ranked journals, however, that are not exclusively devoted to the tourism industry (Journal of Service Management, Cities and Applied Geography), so these three journals were excluded from these calculations. The resulting "Top Ten" used to calculate the total number of articles were, in rank order: *Annals of Tourism Research; Tourism Management; Journal of Sustainable Tourism; International Journal of Hospitality Management; International Journal of Tourism Research; Journal of Hospitality, Marketing and Management; International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management; Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research; Cornell Hospitality Quarterly and Tourism Geographies.*

becoming part of the company culture. Ultimately, a focus on a culture of work-life balance within an organisation contributes to its overall effectiveness, rather than just addressing the problems of individual “problem” employees (Kossek, Lewis and Hammer, 2010, pp. 3-4).

This first issue of the *ATLAS Tourism and Leisure Review* is meant, in a small way, to address this deficit in the literature. Manuela Tooma’s article deals with employee motivation in the hospitality industry and what factors can contribute to optimizing it. In addition to a thorough theoretical grounding in the topic, the article provides numerous practical recommendations for managers concerning how both to motivate employees and look out for their well-being in general. If implemented, such measures can lead to a more sustainable form of human resources management in an organisation. Hannele Rautamäki deals with the concepts of Psychological Ownership (PSO) and Joy of Work (JOY) in the context of entrepreneurship in Finland. She points out how crucial these aspects are in ensuring that businesses are viable over the long term, and ultimately also for how well they meet the needs of guests, employees and employers alike. In a last contribution, I look at how work-life balance issues and stress manifest themselves in farm tourism operations in Austria. Particularly for farm wives, as the hosts in this farm tourism context, providing accommodation can lead to very heavy workloads. The results reported in this article reveal that these women receive remuneration for their hard work in a currency that essentially mirrors the same things highlighted in Rautamäki’s research concerning Psychological Ownership (PSO) and Joy of Work (JOY). Taken together, the contributions to this issue can help us better understand how the employment situation in tourism can be improved to the benefit of all people affected by the industry. Hopefully, they will lead to increased scholarly interest in this very important topic.

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Sustainable Work-Life-Balance and Well-Being for Employees within the Hospitality Industry – A Rather Romantic Wonderland?

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Abstract

This article discusses the hospitality work environment from the perspectives of hospitality managers and employees relative to work-life balance, and provides some practical advice for how to optimise the organization of work in this regard. The hospitality industry places very high demands on the people who work within it. Initiatives to better meet the needs of employees with respect to work-life balance can not only lead to better motivated staff, but also to more satisfied guests - a classic win-win-win situation.

Introduction

An increased awareness and need for a balance between work and life have affected the labour market over the past decades. The complex environment of the hospitality industry nevertheless stimulates job stressors and imbalances in work-life. This article investigates the pressures and demands on those who work in the industry and introduces possibilities for a more flexible and stress-reduced working environment.

Hospitality–a rather demanding industry

The hotel industry is a people industry, and hospitality jobs require customer contact round the clock. The nature of this industry creates a demanding work environment for hospitality operators, managers and the hospitality employees themselves. In the course of the past decades though, a change has occurred in the labour market which has affected the business world. An increase in employee flexibility is required by organisations, but also the workers' perspectives and expectations have changed. Keywords in this connection are life-long learning, personal and career development and a balance between work and life (European Agency for Safety and Health at Work, 2012: 1).

The particular work and employment issues involved in the hospitality industry in this context are extensive and worth a closer and more intense look. Reconciling management and employee needs in the hospitality industry is particularly difficult. Naidu et al. (2013) showed in their study about human resource management in the hospitality sector that the duties of managers are manifold and tricky. Hospitality employers are obliged to improve the quality of service delivery, support talent, train skills and develop knowledge. Employees need to be recruited and placed in the right jobs, must be provided with equal employment benefits, and receive fair compensation. Managers should also try to reduce stress situations, balance workloads and improve the quality of work life for all (2013: 799). The hospitality work environment as such, despite a number of opportunities for satisfaction, provides many sources of dissatisfaction for hospitality workers.

Pavesic and Brymer (1990) note that public and professional customer contacts are among the advantages in hospitality jobs. In addition to direct involvement, independence and rewarding work, there is also the fast pace and prestige which make this work environment attractive. However, the field is also characterized by low salaries and long hours which include nights and weekend schedules, and there is physical and psychological stress associated with such jobs. Employees are faced with routine work, and very often they also have to deal with demanding supervisors and duties, company politics and management, and hardly any job advancements and possibilities to grow. Labour shortages, poor staffing policies and negative attitudes toward work on the part of co-workers are among the challenges (1990:90-96). In addition to all of the above must be added that one of the major concerns of hospitality managers are the high employment turnover rates. Deery & Shaw (1997) even talk about a “turnover culture” (1997: 377) in this industry.

Furthermore, the act of replacing employees with new ones means profit losses for companies (Gardini, 2007; Schlesinger & Heskett, 1991), as several costs occur when employees leave the organization. To begin with, there are the administration costs, which include outstanding compensation to which the employees are entitled, including insurance, vacation days, etc. In addition, there are the costs associated with attracting and recruiting new employees, including the corresponding time needed to appraise suitable candidates. Next, there are the costs associated with making the new employee fit and ready for the new position, by performing external and/or internal trainings. Last but not least, there are the costs relating to the loss in productivity of the former employee (Gardini, 2007: 657). Stress is considered to be one of the main reasons contributing to the high turnover rates in hospitality organisations, and as such is a main cause of the considerable costs associated with high turnover.

Hospitality work stressors

Stress can be defined as work demands that exceed the worker’s coping ability (Karasek & Theorell, 1992). The constant contact with guests, as well as the nature of interpersonal encounters, are at the root of service provider stress. Especially front-line employees are required to remain friendly and calm during difficult situations with customers. This so-called emotional labour (Hochschild, 1983) is associated with higher levels of perceived stress, distress and turnover (Pizam, 2004). Among stressful interactions with customers, the lack of communication with co-workers and supervisors, late and sometimes long hours at work, not having a job description or entering situations where one has little or no control over work, are contributing factors which cause stress in the workplace in the hospitality industry (Hua & Cheng, 2010: 1337-1338).

According to Thomas & Herson (2002) there are five major categories of sources of job stress in the hospitality environment. First, there is the stress that is associated with the job itself, which includes work overload, long and undefined working hours, shift work and the physical work environment as such. Second, there is role-based stress. That includes when employees work in a position with responsibilities where they are either over- or underqualified, but also includes role conflicts. Third, there is the stress associated with interpersonal relationships with managers, supervisors, subordinates and co-workers. Fourth, there is career stress, which occurs when employees feel that there is a lack of career opportunities and possibilities for development. Fifth, there are the stressors relating to the work-family interface. The feeling that there is no sense of balance between work and home life causes conflicts of loyalty (Cleveland et al, 2007: 276-277). Linked to high stress rates which are caused by working conditions and work-related factors, there is in some cases an increased risk of alcohol and other illicit drug use. Several studies have shown that the incidence of alcohol abuse and dependence is higher among hospitality employees than most other occupational groups (Hitz, 1973; Berry et al., 2007; Pizam, 2010). Adding to these strains within the hospitality work environment, there is also an overall negative perception of the field. Employees often feel that the hospitality industry conveys low status, is low paid and provides limited job satisfaction (Clarke & Chen, 2007: 246).

The hospitality industry therefore poses challenges for its managers and its employees alike - as is shown in Figure 1. It requires flexibility from the employees, and favours those who are willing to walk the extra mile for guests *despite* relatively low salaries. Hospitality managers, however, must oversee all aspects of their operations; they have to create a profitable outcome by the end of the month *while* recognizing both the individual and systematic social and psychological needs of their employees.

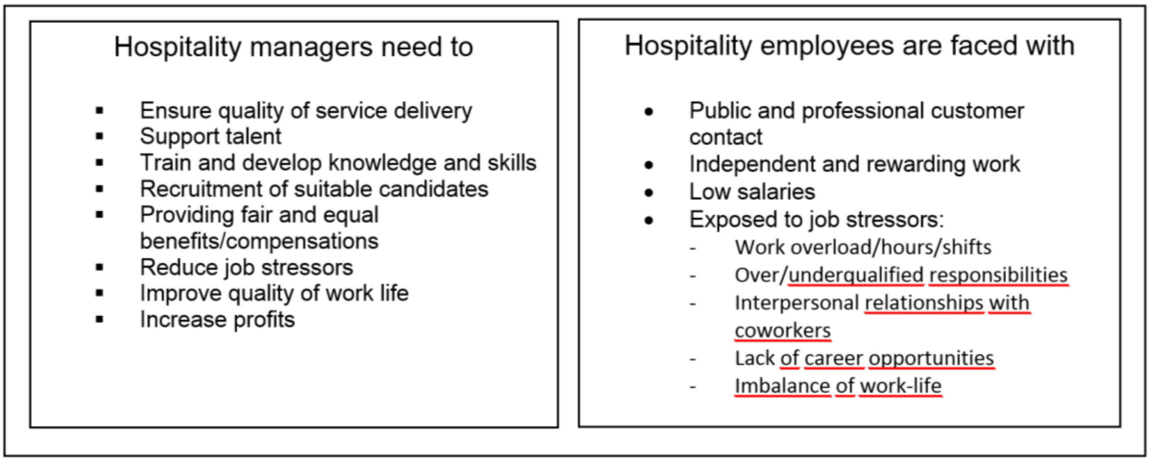

Figure 1: Work-life imbalance

Is it therefore possible for hospitality managers to create a positive work atmosphere in which employees are allowed to pursue a healthy work-life balance? In other words, is a sustainable work-life balance and well-being for employees within the hospitality industry a rather romantic wonderland?

Sustainable balance of work and life

Balancing work and life and a proper prioritizing between these two areas is what is at the root of the concept of work-life balance. Although it has become a broad and rather complex phenomenon, work-life balance lacks a common and universal definition (Greenhouse, 2003: 510-531; Maxwell & McDougall, 2004:377-393). According to the Cambridge Dictionary, work-life balance is “the amount of time you spend doing your job compared with the amount of time you spend with your family and doing things you enjoy” (Cambridge Dictionary, 2015), but this is an overly simplified definition. Greenhouse defined it as the “extent to which an individual is equally engaged in - and equally satisfied with - his or her - work role and family role” (2003: 513). Looking at both definitions it seems apparent that work-life is a balance in both work and family roles and embraces three different aspects, namely, time, involvement and satisfaction. Using the metaphor of a three-legged stool - as shown in Figure 2 - demonstrates that any distortion can lead to the stool tipping over.

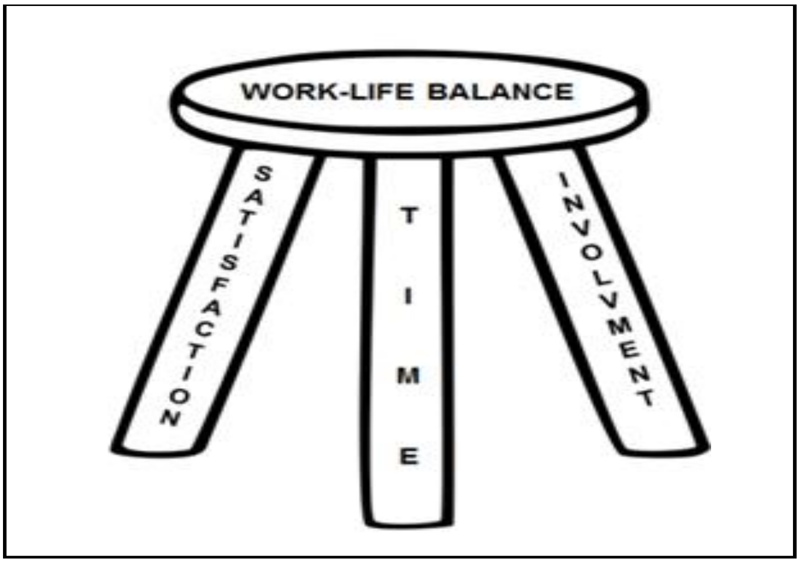

Figure 2: Three-legged stool of work-life balance

Despite the difficult environment within the hospitality industry, it is nonetheless possible that managers can make their contribution to creating a healthy work environment by considering those components.

Satisfied employees = motivated employees

Motivation and satisfaction go hand in hand, because motivated individuals who enjoy working in their environment are also more satisfied. Griffin (2006) stated that individual performance has three cores: first, the ability of individuals to perform a particular job successfully; second, the work environment which embraces all resources available and needed to get a job done, and third, the motivation or desire of the individuals themselves to do the job.

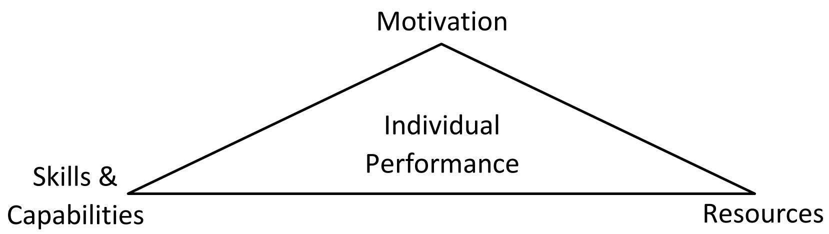

Figure 3: Determinants of individual performance

The lack of employees' skills and capabilities can be compensated with appropriate training and development and the deficiencies in resources can also be corrected by managers. Enhancing the motivation level of employees, on the other hand, is a challenging task for managers, yet relevant to organisations (Griffin, 2006: 324-325). However, mastering the art of creating a system in which employees receive rewards they genuinely want and achieving organizational strategic objectives is tricky. Individuals work for a variety of reasons and respond to incentives in different ways, some go for jobs which offer a promising career, some prefer possibilities where they express their creativity, and others concentrate on their income. It is therefore worth considering various perspectives: why do people choose certain behaviours to satisfy their own needs, what motivates them and how do they assess their own satisfaction level in the work environment.

Motivation stimuli and process perspectives

Let us assume that the Mandarin Oriental Hotel Group in London is looking for a General Manager with a starting salary of €150,000 per year. Their want ad is read by a freshly graduated tourism student. Most likely the person will not apply for this position, although the salary seems a tempting offer, because she assumes she is underqualified. Another hotel company searches for a laundry attendant which pays €18,000 a year. Although the individual has a good chance to get this job, the person is unlikely to want it, because she feels it is far below her qualifications. An ad for a management trainee with a starting salary of €40,000 a year, on the other hand, fits the expectations of the graduate.

Vrooms' attempt to explain this behaviour is described in his Expectancy Theory. He stated that individuals weigh how much a job is wanted and how likely the person feels he or she is to get it (1964). The position of a management trainee is probably what the tourism graduate wants, and because there is a reasonable chance of getting it. The theory is based on the assumption that people have different needs which satisfy them, that they have alternate options to make their own decisions and that the environment shapes the decision process. Based on the ability of the employer and the environmental elements of the job, the employee's motivation leads to effort which then results in performance. Porter & Lawler (1968) extended this theory by suggesting that there may be a relationship between satisfaction and good performance: the higher the performance, the higher the satisfaction level of the employee is. That is because it is assumed that good performance is rewarded, either intrinsically and/or extrinsically. If the rewards are perceived as equitable or fair compared to others, the employee is satisfied (Griffin, 2006, p. 330-333).

Once people are employed and are established in their work environments, they seek fairness and social equity in order to be satisfied. Individual inputs, such as educational background, effort and experience are weighed against individual outputs, which include income and benefits, job security and recognition amongst others. Adams' Equity Theory attempts to explain that the satisfaction level of people is based on comparisons: individual input and output relative to the input and output of the people they work with. When the individual ratio of this equity formula is equivalent to that of others, employees feel they are receiving fair treatment within their work environment. And on the other hand, there is little doubt that inequity results in dissatisfaction. The mere presence of inequity will motivate the individual to achieve equity or to reduce inequity, whereas the strength of the motivation correlates with the degree of perceived inequity (Adams, 1965:280-283). So both theories try to explain how individuals go about attempting to get their needs met. Another perspective is to consider *what* factors motivate people in their work place.

In addition to the popular elements such as salary, working hours, job security and general working conditions, some experts suggest that motivation can be enhanced by providing a more autonomous working environment (Herzberg, 1959; Maslow; 1954). Maslow's ideas surrounding the Hierarchy of Needs concerns the responsibility of employers to provide a workplace environment that encourages employees to fulfil their own potential. Sustainable success is built on a serious and compassionate commitment to helping people to reach their potential by ensuring that the lower order needs are swept away, so they no longer distract from the successful pursuit of higher order needs.

Certain factors need to be attended to first in order to avoid employee dissatisfaction, according to Herzberg (1959), who referred to these as hygiene factors. Herzberg theorised that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are independent of each other. If the extrinsic hygienic factors, such as an adequate salary and fringe benefit—and even decent working conditions and vacation—are addressed, all it means is that the employee is not dissatisfied. It does not mean that he or she is satisfied. In order for the employee to be truly satisfied, the employer must create possibilities for employee's advancement and growth, recognize the individual's achievement and create opportunities for him or her to do something meaningful. These intrinsic motivators are what lay the groundwork for a high level of employee satisfaction (Griffin, 2006:328-329).

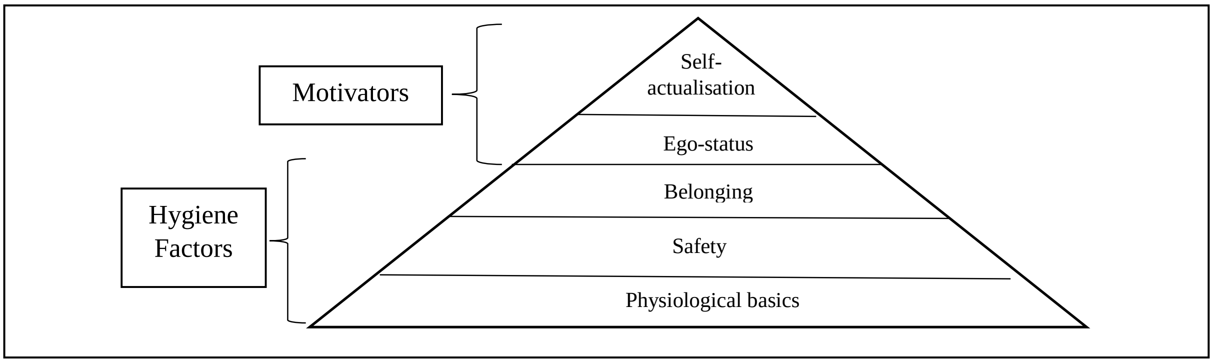

Figure 3: Comparison of Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Herzberg's Hygiene-Motivation Theory.
Source:http://www.strategies-for-managing-change.com/maslow-theory-of-otivation.html

Employers therefore should be concerned with the nature of the work itself and deal with both sets of job factors, the hygiene factors and motivator factors, including systems of motivation which provide rewards that are fair and equitable for all. The manager's role itself requires a shift from being the 'person over you' to 'mentor', and hospitality organisations should establish a talent management within their organizational culture to achieve this. Work-life balance, for the employees themselves, becomes then more meaningful and motivating as it can be perceived as an opportunity for personal development.

Possibilities to unlock the door to a romantic wonderland

It is in companies' best interest to have a healthy work force. Effectively implemented organizational strategies relating to work-life balance in the corporate culture facilitate a sustainable work environment and create a chance to create a healthy work force. The following section looks into some practical suggestions for how to accomplish this. They include workplace policies, alternative forms of work arrangement, empowerment and rewards. Also included are some tips for hospitality employees.

Workplace policies

Before organisations begin with implementing policies, there must be a mutual understanding of what work-life balance stands for within the specific working context and in which way these key values could be achieved. Policies may be tailor-made based on organisational culture, demographics and the requirements of the organization and its employees (European Occupational Safety and Health Administration, 2012: 5). Through strategic planning a consistent message then can be communicated throughout all levels of the organisation. This top to bottom methodology ensures that work-life balance programmes are successfully applied and involves the management, the organisation and the employees alike.

Alternative forms of work arrangement

The European Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA) has suggested some interventions which are useful in the area of working hours to improve work-life balance of hospitality employees. First, there are part-time contracts, a form of employment that involves fewer hours per week than a full-time contract. This provides more time for family and social activities for the employee, but also means reduced pay and possible risks of reduced career opportunities within the hospitality organisation. One of the chief advantages for employers is a cost reduction and more flexibility as they can cut back on hours when business is slow and are therefore are able to focus more on their efficacy. The administration costs including the processing of paperwork may prove similar to that required for full-time employees, however. Second, there are fully compensated reduced working hours which allows the employees to have more time for social activities, but also involves the risk of intensification of work. Third, there is the possibility of compressed work-weeks. This alternative work arrangement reduces the work-week to fewer days, though employees work the full number of hours by working longer hours. Preserving full-time income while having an additional day off during each workweek is one of the advantages for employees. Less commuting time and being on the road outside the usual rush hour traffic times, because of the extended work days, could also limit stress. The longer working days could be physically and mentally draining, however (European Occupational Safety and Health Administration, 2012: 4-5).

Raitano & Kleiner suggest that flexible work arrangements are one of the primary prevention approaches that can eliminate factors leading to distress. They allow employees to co-ordinate their work and social schedules, which improves morale and lowers absenteeism. They do require managers to carefully monitor the work to avoid shortage or excess of personnel, however, which implies additional work for hospitality managers (2004: 36).

Empowerment and rewards

Popular strategies and techniques for managers to enhance motivation within the work environment include, next to reducing working hours, providing possibilities for personal engagement and to reward good performances. Griffin (2006) states that empowerment and participation represent relevant methods in increasing the satisfaction level of employees. This management approach gives employees a certain degree of autonomy and responsibility for decision-making on the one hand, and on the other hand it allows problem-solving at a lower level of organisation, where employees have a unique view of the issues and problems that need addressing (2006: 338).

Employees at the Ritz-Carlton, for example, are permitted to spend up to $2,000 per guest to delight them and/or to set things right, in case things went wrong (Ritz Carlton, 2015). Although the value is a symbolic one, it proves that the management empowers its employees to create their own strategies for solving issues on the spot. Furthermore, it is a possibility to establish sustainable relationships with the guests themselves. This approach seems to work for both the employees themselves and also for the organization. Ritz-Carlton was the only service company to win the Malcom Baldrige award twice, in '92 and '99 (Baldrige Performance Excellence Program, 2015).

Another method to stimulate motivation is to reward employees for good performance. This not only includes monetary compensation and benefits, but also nonmonetary rewards, such as additional time off, sabbaticals or other incentive schemes.

Conclusion

A demanding work environment, such as the hospitality industry where the prevalence of job stress is widely acknowledged, poses various challenges to those who work in it. An effective way in which hospitality operators can reduce workplace stress and enhance satisfaction is by eliminating or modifying the sources of stress inherent in the work environment. Theoretically, any hospitality organisation is capable of developing and maintaining a sustainable work environment in which employees feel reasonably motivated and satisfied. Ideally, employees have the choice how hard they work, how much effort they are willing to make, and can decide how involved they want to get.

To conclude, this approach basically reflects the founding philosophy of J.W. Marriott: “Take care of the associates, the associates will take care of the guests, and the guests will come back again and again” (Gallagher, 2015: 114).

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Burden or Joy?
Experiences of Tourism Entrepreneurship from the Viewpoint of Psychological Ownership

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Abstract

This research sets out to describe the nature of Psychological Ownership (PSO) and Joy of Work (JOY) and their inter-relationship in the context of Finnish family business in tourism. The focus is on how the owner-managers of the Finnish family businesses working in tourism experience PSO and Joy of Work.

In the paper, the theoretical section is followed by an empirical survey based on the data collected with e-mail questionnaires. The results illuminate what Psychological Ownership and Joy of Work are made up of and how the two are interrelated in family-run tourism operations. The results explain how the factors of PSO and JOY correlate in family-run tourism.

Introduction

Ownership of a family business is a multiplex and multidimensional concept. It is not just a fiscal or legal one, but it also includes a psychological dimension. The responsibilities that come with legal ownership are often an outgrowth of the legal system, whereas those associated with the psychological state stem from the individual, that is, from his or her feelings of being responsible (Pierce et al., 2003: 87). At the core of psychological ownership (PSO) there is a sense of possession, leading to a psychological attachment on the part of the subject to the object. In this study, the subject is a family entrepreneur and the object is the family-owned tourism firm.

Entrepreneurs in family businesses have an important role in the local and regional economy. Running family business also requires a special commitment to learning and planning, so that these unique strengths and capabilities may remain a part of the family's traditions and business legacy. Ownership and family stand in a close interaction with each other.

The focus of this research is the psychological ownership and joy of work experienced by family entrepreneurs working in tourism. The research is based on the author's research on PSO and JOY (Rautamäki, 2013). The respondents and informants are owner-operator entrepreneurs in the field of tourism. In this body of research, the author's insights from ongoing research and work with the target group, the results from other scholars who have worked on this topic and empirical analysis will be combined. The results of this study have theoretical as well as pragmatic implications for the training, as well as the development planning of entrepreneurs working in tourism.

The researcher´s interest in these research topics arises from her practical experience in working with entrepreneurs from family businesses in tourism. Family businesses represent a responsible ownership with “a face”. The Finnish Quo Vadis Study shows that active entrepreneurship in family businesses brings the economy extra value and stability (Harju and Heinonen 2003). Palm et al. (2003) have found that the typical Finnish entrepreneur is not very eager to engage in risk-taking and takes family and lifestyle considerations into careful account in connection with his or her entrepreneurship.

Theoretical Background and Research Questions

Psychological ownership

The feelings of ownership and the psychological bond the subject feels toward the object are the core issues of PSO. Pierce at al. (2001) agree with Dittmar (1992) that genetic factors and social experiences in early childhood affect the extent to which people feel a sense of ownership. People might feel psychological ownership also towards their work, products which they produce and their organization. Psychological ownership grows and strengthens with increased association, knowledge and investment in personal capacity (Pierce et al., 2001).

PSO provides an answer to the question "What do I feel is mine" and the words "mine" and "our" are often associated with this feeling. Pierce, Kostova and Dirks (2001, 2003) argue that psychological ownership satisfies human motives such as:

- the desire to affect one’s own activities and their consequences—in other words the need to control;
- the possibility to mould one’s own identity through the object of ownership; and
- the need for a place of one’s own.

PSO is closely connected to the need for self-identity, the intimate knowledge of the target and self-investment into the target (Pierce et al., 2003). The more someone invests personal values, time and energy in a target, the more PSO is felt towards it, argue Hall and Koiranen (2001). These scholars point out that such ownership has two edges: it may mean rights, power and joy, but it may also bring unwanted responsibilities and worries.

Pierce et al. (2001, 2003) claim that PSO has its roots in and serves to satisfy three fundamental human motives:

- the need for efficacy and effectance;
- the need for self-identity; and
- the inherent need of people to have their own place.

The theory identifies three main roots and paths to PSO which are as follows:

- controlling the target;
- intimately knowing the target; and
- investing oneself in the target.

These routes increase the feeling of PSO. All these routes might not be required to feel PSO, but the more routes there are, the stronger the PSO is felt (Pierce et al., 2001; Pierce et al., 2003; Brown et al., 2013).

One´s own values affect what feelings a target might evoke (Pelham, 1991). On the other hand, the same things which evoke PSO may also weaken feelings of PSO. Changes in the target of the PSO may cause stress, anxiety and a sense of personal loss (Pierce et al., 2003). PSO may also cause negative feelings and even negative actions if a person comes to feel that the target is a burden. He or she may not let other people get involved with the target of his or her PSO (Pierce, 2001). Especially in changing situations, these negative feelings of PSO may give rise to abnormal behaviour (Bartunek, 1993; Cram and Paton, 1993; Rautamäki, 2006).

Joy of work

There is scarcity of research regarding the other key concept at the centre of this article, namely Joy of Work (JOY). Research on the concept has mainly been done from the viewpoint of job satisfaction or job motivation. In prior studies, the missing link has been the explicit connection between PSO and JOY.

Joy of work is a resource for an organization. Varila and Viholainen claim that feelings of joy of work will give the strength and energy needed to work (2000: 143-151). Strength in this context means more mental capacity than physical strength. The authors continue that joy of work leads people into a positive cycle, where the experiences of joy of work motivate them and make their work more meaningful. This, in turn, leads them to experience even more joy of work. As they are motivated they are more willing to develop themselves as well as their work. On top of that, the joy of work will affect their physical and psychological well-being positively.

Varila differentiates between short and long lasting feelings and says that job satisfaction is a long lasting feeling (Varila, 1999: 68-70). He continues that as the feeling of the joy of work is a momentary feeling, the person is not able to feel it all the time (Varila, 2000, 31: 160). Varila claims that joy of work is often based on voluntary long term and committed work.

Varila and Viholainen (2000) claim that emotions are connected to the relationship between the individual and the situation. Roti (1999) adds that work, personal relationships and leisure time are important parts of JOY. Koiranen and Karlsson (2002) suggest that profitable ownership leading to a growth in wealth is interpreted as one sign of work well done. Social relationships, JOY and wealth are the sources of happiness for family entrepreneurs. The well-being and joy of work of family entrepreneurs are strongly related to their commitment, level of work-related activity and work planning.

It is claimed that people with positive feelings live longer than other people. Due to their multiple social contacts, they are also claimed to be healthier. Scholars observe that positive people are more in balance with their feelings which is why they have more positive social contacts. Based on these assumptions, they are claimed to have better physical health and create “a positive spiral” for themselves (Kok et al., 2013).

Halter and Fuegstaller (2003) claim that happiness does not just appear, but is something that entrepreneurs must work on. First, the entrepreneurs need to be aware of the effect that happiness has on their individual needs. Second, they need to discover that life can be based on a foundation of happiness and harmony. An inner harmony is the greatest good, implying a sense of modesty and humility. The scholars say that it is not only through joy or other positive emotions that success can be achieved, but also that satisfaction with one’s life is where true success lies.

Joy of work is defined as “a feeling or an emotion of pleasure that is experienced before or during working, or afterwards about the results of working” (Koiranen, 2012). Joy of work is different from job satisfaction. Job satisfaction has been defined as “an attitudinal evaluative judgment of one’s job or job experience” (Sieger et al., 2011: 81; see also Ilies et al., 2009). Job satisfaction concerns the question, “How do I evaluate my job?” (Van Dyne and Pierce, 2004: 444), whereas joy of work asks “Is my job (or my company) a source of delight?” Happiness is considered to be much broader than joy (Ashkanasy, 2011; Fisher, 2010; Warr, 2007).

Family Businesses

Family businesses are the dominant form of business in most countries. More than half of the private-sector working population is employed by family companies. In family firms, ownership, business and family life are closely intertwined, making it a very challenging context of study. In family businesses the members of the controlling family significantly influence the business (Dawson et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 1996).

The value of family companies to national economies is of great importance, due to the number of people employed by such companies (Neubauer and Lank, 1998). A Finnish study confirms that family companies are the backbone of the Finnish national economy, since about 80-86% of the Finnish businesses are family businesses (Perheyrittäjyys, 2005). Family businesses employ almost 60% of the Finnish working population. The family businesses stabilize regional and local economies, because the owners of family businesses do not so easily move out the area.

In family-run businesses, ownership, business and family life are very much intertwined. Family entrepreneurship is often described as system of three distinct, but intersecting circles (family, business and ownership) (Tagiuri and Davis, 1982). Persons in this family-business system have one or more roles. One might be the owner, family member or managing director or maybe all of these at the same time. A family business “is the interaction between two sets of organizations, family and business that establishes the basic character of the family business and defines its uniqueness" says Davies (1989). This coincidence of family and business is the key issue of a family business (Koiranen, 1998). However, Koiranen claims that this definition does not include all elements, as the business size, shares of family ownership, age and life situation of the owners vary from one firm to another.

Family business has many definitions. According to Koiranen (2003, 20), “a family business is: 1) owned and directed by one family; 2) where the activities of the family and business are combined and 3) where there has been/will be family business succession and the next generation has taken/will take over the company." The Finnish Family Business working group (KTM 2005, 34) prepared the following definition for a family business:

A firm, of any size, is a family business, if:

- the majority of decision-making rights is in the possession of the natural person(s) who established the firm, or in the possession of the natural person(s) who has/have acquired the share capital of the firm, or in the possession of their spouses, parents, child or children’s direct heirs.
- the majority of decision-making rights, whether indirect or direct, lie in the above mentioned person(s).
- at least one representative of the family or kin is formally involved in the governance of the firm.
- the person who established or acquired the firm (share capital) or their families or descendants possess 25 per cent of the decision-making voting capital.

This definition has also been adopted by the European Union (European Commission 2009).

Tourism as a context

Europe is the world's most important tourist destination**,** with the highest density and diversity of tourist attractions. As a result, the tourist industry has become a key sector of the European economy**,** generating over 10% of EU GDP (directly or indirectly) and employing 9.7m citizens in 1.8m businesses. The future of the tourism business is challenging. Networking is a must for the entrepreneur in tourism. Global climate change, sustainable development and other environmental issues as well as e-marketing and sales have an important role in the development of the tourism business (European Commission, 2014). There were more than one billion international tourists in the world for the first time during the year 2012. The same year there were more than 20 million registered overnights in Finland, which was also a new record (Vesterinen, 2013).

Increasing tourism contributes significantly to economic growth and levels of employment, also in Finland. A high share of domestic customers, a smallish size, and families as owners are typical features of Finnish tourism businesses. Tourism brings Finland remarkable financial growth and employment. Tourism brings extra value for Finland of about 2.5 billion euros, which represents 2.4% of GDP (TEM, 2011).

The competiveness of a region or a destination is mostly based on the family businesses located in that area. That is even more typical in rural regions. These family-owned tourism companies provide the services and local products the tourists are looking for, so the tourists are able to “leave their money” there (Getz et al, 2004; Getz and Carlsen, 2005). Tourism offers many opportunities for family businesses, often embodying direct host-guest interactions in the family home or property.

Research questions

The objective of the research is to examine psychological ownership (PSO) and the joy of work (JOY) in the context of family entrepreneurs in the field of tourism in Finland. The main research question addressed in this article is:

- How do entrepreneurs of family firms in tourism experience psychological ownership (PSO) and joy of work (JOY)?

The sub-question is:

- What are the building blocks of PSO and JOY for entrepreneurs of family firms in the tourism industry?

In this research the unit of analysis was the entrepreneur rather than the family business. A person may feel PSO and JOY, but a business cannot. Also informants may discuss their experiences, but businesses are not able to do that.

Method

The research was conducted in two phases. The first phase was a quantitative survey, while the second phase was qualitative research based on thematic interviews. In this paper only the quantitative part of the research is discussed. The research strategy was quantitative and hermeneutic. In the quantitative phase of the research it was also deductive. Quantitative research is widely used in social sciences. Quantitative research can explain phenomena by numerical data which is analysed using mathematically based methods (Anttila, 2005; Hirsjärvi et al., 2005; Kyrö, 2004).

The measures for the survey items were formed based on the results of previous studies on PSO and JOY (Pierce et al., 2001; Pierce et al., 2003; Dittmar, 1992; Varila et al., 2000; Varila et al., 2001). The questionnaire consisted of statements to which participants responded according to a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). Also demographic data was collected from the respondents. The survey was emailed to a sample of 203 family entrepreneurs in tourism in Finland on May 3rd, 2009. The response rate was 34.48%. No responses had to be rejected. Also no empty or only partially-completed survey forms were returned. The loss of data was analysed by interviewing five family entrepreneurs over the phone who had not returned the survey form. The results of the loss analysis showed similar results to the survey. The data from the loss analysis was not included in the survey data.

SPSS was used to analyse the data. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) and Varimax Rotation were used to examine the first research question. Factor communalities were reasonably high (PSO .344-.737, JOY .455-.873). The results from the factor analysis provided a basis for further analysis to provide answers to the second research question. Correlation analysis and linear regression analysis were used for that purpose.

The validity of the research was based on the previous theory building and the researcher's longstanding knowledge about entrepreneurship in tourism in Finland. The informants were a representative sample of the total target population, although the number of respondents was rather low. The informants represented a sample of family entrepreneurs in all the types of tourism activities in Finland: accommodation, restaurant services, activity services as well as supporting branches of tourism.

Data Analysis and Results

This chapter contains the empirical results of the research and provides an analysis and discussion of the survey findings. There were 70 respondents: 29 females and 41 males. So there were about 40% female and 60% male entrepreneurs of family businesses in tourism among the informants. Age-wise, the respondents were combined into two categories: 50 years old or younger and over 50 years old. The following table shows the original frequencies (Table 1).

Table 1: Age of the respondents

Age of the respondents	**N**	**%**
30 years or younger	1	1.4
31-50 years old	31	44.3
51-64 years old	36	51.4
Over 65 years old	2	2.9
Total	70	100.0

63% of the respondents were the CEOs of their family business. Another 22% worked as marketing director or in charge of service production. The remaining 15% occupied other company roles.

60% of the respondents were the founders of their family business. 16% are second generation and only one person represented the third generation in their family business. 16% of the respondents became family entrepreneurs by buying the company and 8% via marriage. 63% of the respondents were the main owners of their family business (a minimum of 50% ownership) and one third of them owned at least one other company as well.

The respondents' firms represent all the main lines of activities in tourism. In the tourism business generally the share of restaurants is quantity-wise quite high. In Finland, however, many of the restaurants are members of larger business chains and are not family businesses. The following table (table 2) shows the main business activities of the family companies of the respondents.

Table 2: Main business activities of the family businesses

Main business activity	**N**	**%**
Accommodation	24	34.3
Restaurant services	14	20.0
Programme activities	14	20.0
Other	18	25.7
Total	70	100.0

Typical of tourism business is pronounced seasonality. For that reason the quantity of permanent employees is often low. During the off-season in small tourism companies it is common for only the family entrepreneur and his or her family to be employed. They also use “rental personnel”. In the next table (table 3) the size of the family businesses represented in the survey is shown.

Table 3: Size of the family business – Quantity of the permanent personnel

Quantity of the permanent personnel	**N**	**%**
≤ 9 persons	54	77.1
10-49 persons	13	18.6
≥ 50 - persons	3	4.3
Total	70	100.0

Many family tourist businesses are small. The turnover of about 40% of the family businesses in the sample was less than 300,000 euros. About 25% of them had a turnover of over 1 million euros (Table 4).

Table 4: Size of the family business – Turnover of family business

Turnover €	**N**	**%**
≤ 299,999	31	44.3
300,000 - 599,999	14	20.0
600,000 - 999,999	8	11.4
≥ 1,000,000	17	24.3
Total	70	100.0

Now the measures of the PSO and JOY items are analysed. The number of respondents for each item was 70 persons.

	Mean	Standard deviation
PSO Measures		
I will work intensively for the success of my company	4.76	.432
I want to work hard for the future of my company	4.74	.440
I feel I belong to this company	4.59	.712
I am the key person for the success of my company	4.57	.579
I feel I am responsible for my company	4.56	.629
JOY Measures		
Profitable business activity is my great joy	4.23	.726
My work often gives me joy of work	4.21	.635
I feel entrepreneurship gives me great pleasure	4.17	.742

The PSO means are higher than the means for the JOY measures and the standard deviations for the JOY measures are higher than those for PSO.

Next the data was analysed by factor analysis using SAS Principal Component Analysis (PCA). To help in the interpretation of the results, VARIMAX rotation was also run. The communalities of PSO and JOY seem to be reasonably high.

Table 5 presents the factors emerging through a Varimax rotation. The factors were named *Knowledge of the Target*, *Controlling the Target* and *Self Investment*. The JOY factors were named *Social Respect, Company Liabilities, Profitable Entrepreneurship* and *Company as Burden.*

Table 5: PSO and JOY factors by Varimax rotation

PSO	Total	% of Variance		JOY	Total	% of Variance
Controlling the Target	4.641	29.006		Social Respect	3.130	24.080
Knowledge of Target	2.184	13.651		Company Liabilities	2.431	18.702
Self Invest-ment	1.902	11.884		Profitable Entrepreneurship	1.360	10.463
				Company as a Burden	1.273	9.795
Cumulative 54.542				Cumulative 63.040		

The sum variables of the PSO and JOY variables were formed (Cronbach alpha PSO .827, JOY .641). There was a reasonably high correlation between the PSO and JOY (Pearson correlation .440, 0.01%, 2-tailed). Also the subfactors of PSO and JOY were correlated.

Gender, age, type of business, ownership share or type, main duties, turnover and size of the company were controlled as background variables. From those the only statistically significant ($p<.01$) variable in linear regression analysis was the size of the company. The size was measured by the annual sales and /or number of permanent employees, which in tourism often go hand in hand.

Linear regression analysis brought up a model indicating that 46.6% of PSO might be covered by the subfactors of JOY together with the size of the company, table 6.

Table 6: JOY subfactors and company turnover in relation with PSO as a dependent variable

Model	Beta Coefficients	Sig
Social Respect	.227	.000
Responsibilities as Entrepreneur	.253	.028
Profitable Entrepreneurship	.311	.010
Company as a Burden	-.163	.002
Company Turnover	-.313	.001

This model indicates that PSO and JOY are quite strongly related. It also reveals that distress and heavy workload correlate negatively with the PSO. The same effect seems to occur when the company size grows over 50 employees or the company turnover is over one million Euros.

Discussion

This research was intended to advance the understanding PSO and JOY in the context of family-owned businesses within the tourism industry. The main focus was on the question "How do entrepreneurs of family firms in tourism experience PSO and JOY?" and on sub-questions about the building blocks of PSO and JOY and factors supporting PSO and JOY among entrepreneurs of family firms in tourism.

The findings of this research complement earlier studies on PSO (Pierce et al., 2001; Pierce et al. 2003). The results also suggest a relationship between PSO and JOY. The following answers to the research questions can be tentatively suggested.

The survey indicated that the same three-component outcome of PSO can be found among family entrepreneurs in tourism in Finland as have been previously found, mainly in studies of employed staff (Hall 2007; Koiranen et al., 2002; Pierce et al. 2001). The three components are Knowledge of the Target**,** Controlling the Target and Self Investment.

Four dimensions were found in JOY. Those are Social Respect, Company Liabilities, Profitable Entrepreneurship and Company as a Burden. A relatively strong relationship was discovered between PSO and JOY. The model indicates that when the size of the individual tourism company in Finland grows over one million Euros in net sales or 50 people in employment, the PSO and JOY or the company workload is found to be heavy, and, consequently, the entrepreneurship might be felt more like a burden.

Entrepreneurs with strong PSO and JOY seem to feel responsibility for their companies and are active members of various networks. They create employment and prosperity for society by having the resources but also bearing responsibility.

Theoretically, the results of the research are in line with the earlier findings on the PSO and JOY phenomena. Also previously acquired understanding of the researcher thus received confirmation for the second phase of the research. The survey “opened the gate” for the forthcoming interviews.

A possible model of PSO and JOY was constructed. The factors of JOY (Social Respect, Company Liabilities, Profitable Entrepreneurship and Company as Burden) combined with the family businesses’ size (turnover and quantity of personnel) seem to explain close to 50% of the PSO experienced by the entrepreneur working in his or her family business.

The results of the survey also provided more specific information that can serve as criteria for the selection of the informants for the second phase of the research. The same applies to the lines of inquiry for the thematic interviews.

Practical implications of this research lie in the area of industrial policy planning in government and municipal sectors as well as the development of programs and initiatives for enhancing the skill-sets of entrepreneurs of family firms. Insights into rural entrepreneurship may also be garnered, as the informants will mainly be rural family entrepreneurs.

This research has several strengths, but also limitations based on the researcher´s choices during the research process. That applies both to the theoretical framework and methodology, but also to the interpretation of the research results. Limitations make the results of the study only indicative. The validity of the research was built on previous theory-building and the researcher’s long-standing knowledge about entrepreneurship in tourism. The respondents were a representative sample of the total target population, although the number of respondents was rather low. They represented a sample of family entrepreneurs of all the types of tourism activities in Finland: accommodation, restaurant services, activity services, as well as supporting branches of tourism. The timing of the survey was not the best, as in May the entrepreneurs in tourism are quite busy with their forthcoming summer season. A deeper comprehension of the topic under examination could have been gained by using interviewing as a method.

According to the latest literature on psychological ownership in organizations (Brown, Pierce, & Crossley 2014), PSO is increasingly recognized as a core feeling which also applies to JOY as a powerful force in the workplace. As Alasuutari (1999, 278) reminds us concerning the nature of doing research – ending one research project is only the beginning of another one. Hopefully, the results of this paper and the forthcoming findings of the interviews completed during the second phase of the research will stimulate future research on the factors that influence PSO and JOY.

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Work-Life Balance in Farm Tourism: Hosts, Guests and Stress

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Abstract

Tourists who choose a vacation in the countryside are often attracted by what they perceive to be the slower pace and quiet nature of rural life. Stressed by the lack of balance in their work-focused lives, they seek to slow down and regenerate. But particularly in farm tourism, the people who host them may themselves have problems with work-life balance. Farm tourism providers generally add tourism provision as a way to augment their otherwise inadequate income from agricultural activities. This article examines the work-life balance issues associated with farm tourism based on interviews conducted with farm tourism providers, who are generally women, in the Austrian province of Styria. Mechanisms for coping with stress, as well as other offsetting factors, are explained.

Introduction

Farm tourism conjures up bucolic images of contented cows grazing on succulent green meadows with birds chirping merrily in the background. The peace that fairly exudes from this rural landscape helps urban vacationers to progressively shed their heavily laden backpacks bursting with accumulated stress. But the reality of farm tourism is often at odds with this ideal image, because the additional demands placed on a farm family by engaging in tourism provision on top of their normal farm and household duties can make inroads into their work-life balance. This article seeks to examine these opposing aspects of farm tourism with particular attention to the lives of farm women in Austria.

Farm tourism: Definition and Dimensions

Research on farm tourism is complicated by the definitional morass that surrounds the term. There is a wide range of definitions of farm tourism which overlap with agritourism (Phillip, Hunter and Blackstock, 2010). In some usages of the term, the connection to the farm where the tourism takes place is very distant, indeed, having “little in common with the farm other than the farmer who manages the land on which they take place” (Roberts and Hall, 2001: 150). Examples of this would be hunting, fishing, snowmobile rentals, cross-country skiing where the farmer prepares the tracks and collects fees for this service. In its broadest definition, however, farm tourism encompasses “rural tourism conducted on working farms where the working environment forms part of the product from the perspective of the consumer” (Clarke, 1999: 27).

So in this broad definition farm tourism would include:

- accommodation on the farm
- farm shops for the direct sale of farm products
- farm-based educational and culinary tours
- farm-based activities such as horse-back riding, pick-your-own, assisting with the harvest

For the purposes of this article, however, farm tourism is understood more narrowly as farm accommodation—which in German is known as “Urlaub am Bauernhof.”

“Urlaub am Bauernhof” in Austria makes up about 4% of the summer tourism accommodation market and accounts for about 20% of all the touristic firms in the country (Bundesministerium für Land- und Forstwirtschaft,Umwelt und Wasser-wirtschaft, n.d). Approximately 14.5% of the guest beds in Austria are on farms, and the farmers who offer accommodation derive on average about 1/3 of their income from it (Gattermayer, 2006: 59-60). Thus for Austria, this form of accommodation provision represents a very important branch of tourism and, indeed, is seen as a particular kind of holiday type. The offer may involve self-catering apartments, bed and breakfast, all the way up to full board. With prices per person per night often below the 30 Euro mark for a room with breakfast, this form of accommodation is particularly attractive to families with young children. Even more popular with this segment are self-catering apartments, which often go for less than 80 euros per night for a family for four.

Austria’s farm tourism is considered to be among the best organized in the world. The Urlaub am Bauernhof organization, was founded as at the national level in 1991, although precursor organizations at the state level date back to the 1970s (Forbord, Schermer and Geißmaier, 2012: 896). The organization is well financed and has an excellent quality-control system (Nilsson, 2002: 16). Most of its activities are organized at the state level, with only an umbrella organization at the national level. Some 28% of the farms offering accommodation in the country belong to this organization, and about 50% of their guests are repeat customers, which suggests an extraordinarily high level of guest satisfaction (Bundesanstalt für Agrarwirtschaft, 2015; Bundesministerium für Land- und Forstwirtschaft, Umwelt und Wasserwirtschaft, 2013). Thus farm tourism in Austria has to be judged a resounding success when viewed as a whole.

Farm tourism’s attraction for guests and hosts

Guests are attracted to farm tourism for a number of reasons, most of which are related to the attractiveness of rural tourism generally. They generally are seeking an opportunity to decelerate, because they see their everyday lives as stressful and overly work-oriented (Park & Yoon, 2009; Pesonen & Komppula 2010). The peace and quiet of the countryside provides an obvious antidote for stress (Pesonen, Komppula, Kronenberg & Peters (2011); Komppula, 2005; Dong, Wang, Morai & Brooks, 2003; Macnaghten, 1995). Furthermore, particularly urban-dwellers seek the opportunity for the encounters with nature that rural tourism can provide (Farmaki, 2012; Hernandez et al., 2007). And the people who stay on farms are generally also keenly interested in farm-related activities that they can enjoy as a family (Cizek & Schipfer, 2007).

The attractiveness of this form of accommodation for guests appear obvious, but perhaps less obvious is why farmers would want to go to the extra effort of taking in guests, when they generally have enough on their hands with tilling their fields and tending their animals. The literature suggests many motives for the decision to move into farm tourism. One powerful motivator is to diversify farm income (Leitgeb, 2012; Dorfer, 2007). At a time when farm income appears threatened owing to falling commodity prices, broadening the income base appears to be a smart strategy to ensure the farm's survival. In addition, many farmers see tourism as an alternative to off-farm employment (Ollenburg & Buckley, 2007; Maiberger, 2009). While a job off the farm might bring in more cash than the income from farm tourism, it also involves not only the cost of commuting but also opportunity costs in the form of travel time. Farmers would generally prefer spending time on their tractors than in their car seats driving to work. Furthermore, there is the issue of ensuring the continuity of the farming tradition in the family (Strelli, 2011: 42). This objective seems more likely to be achieved through farm tourism than through other alternative forms of income. In addition, farm tourism generally provides an opportunity to utilize idle infrastructure on the farm. If the number of cattle has been reduced, for example, empty stables only represent unproductive maintenance costs, if they are not refurbished to accommodate guests (Sharpley & Vass, 2006; Evans & Ilbrey, 1992). Another consideration involves the gender division of labor. Responsibility for farm tourism is often left to the farm wife, which provides her the opportunity to engage in independent entrepreneurship (Koutsou et al., 2009). And finally, the potential for the direct or indirect sale of farm produce to guests may motivate some farmers to move into farm tourism. Goods sold directly to guests invariably put more money in the farmers' pockets than selling them at wholesale off the farm (Strelli, 2011: 36).

Farming and stress

The downside of this equation should, however, be obvious—offering accommodation on the farm is time-consuming, and in agriculture, time is almost always at a premium. Although popular perceptions may be otherwise, farming is frequently a high-stress enterprise. Numerous studies in various countries have documented high stress levels among farmers (for New Zealand: Botha & White, 2013; for Australia: Aston, 2012 and Brumby et al., 2011; for the UK: Booth & Lloyd, 2000; for the US: Mack, 2007 and for Austria: Strempfl, 2012. There is even a catch-all term in the literature for this occupationally-related problem: "farmer stress."

Independent of the country, the most common stressors facing farmers are related to the long hours and the lack of sleep, especially when working under pressure to get the planting done or bring in the harvest. The work week may extend to 100 hours at peak times. Exacerbating the heavy work load is the constant worry about the weather. When machinery fails precisely at the moment when it is most needed, it only makes the stress worse. The instability of prices for their produce and increasing government regulation combines with concerns about the future of the farm, and some famers worry that even if a successor can be found, saddling the next generation with problems that only seem to get worse every year may appear not to be in their children's best interest (Stempfl, 2012).

Farmers' stress levels are therefore often related to issues of work-life balance. The literature on work-life balance suggests that an appropriate balance of roles in work (career) and life (family and social relations/leisure/rest) results in individuals being healthier and happier, because the two spheres support one another (Jones, Burke & Westman, 2006a). Factors that can disturb that balance are manifold. A main issue that causes problems with this balance is work that is not personally rewarding (Yang, 2010; Rudow, 2014: 121). It may lead to problems on both sides of the equation, since an individual may place unreasonable expectations on the family to compensate for an unsatisfactory work experience. Another factor may be a lack of personal time for reflection or relaxation, whether as a result of work or family pressures (Zijlstra & Cropley, 2006). A common issue is also role multiplication, when the sheer accumulation of responsibilities becomes too great to bear (Rothbard & Dumas, 2006). A crossover between work and family demands (Westman, 2006) and a failure to separate work from private life physically may also cause problems. This issue is particularly present in family businesses where the place of habitation and work are identical. Li, Miao, Zhao and Lehto, for example, in a study of 369 B&B innkeepers in the U.S., found that those who separated their private and business lives were in general better able to cope with work-life balance issues (2013: 146). Finally, unhealthy behaviors resulting from the above factors are a further cause of disturbances to a favorable work-life balance (Jones, Kinman & Payne, 2006: 200).

Given these factors, it might be expected that farm tourism threatens the work-life balance of farm families that offer it. Crossover is, after all, a foregone conclusion in such operations, because home and workplace are identical. Role multiplication is also programmed in, and serving guests almost by definition cuts into the personal time for rest and reflection of farm women. This is exacerbated by the pressure to meet guests' expectations. So it is clearly worth exploring how work-life balance works in conjunction with farm tourism.

Research Question and Methodology

This research for this paper therefore focused on which stressors are most important in connection with offering farm-based accommodation, and what factors contribute to resilience in coping with the resulting stress. The methodology used to address the question consisted of structured in-home interviews of approximately 45 minutes to an hour in length with a total of 15 farm families offering accommodation in Styria. Of these, seven interviews were conducted by a student team2 led by the author and eight were completed in the context of a diploma thesis by Barbara Rossegger, which was supervised by the author. The interviews were recorded, transcribed and then coded for analysis. Because the farm wife was in all cases the one who actually provides the services to guests, the interviews were conducted with the wives. Approximately half of the enterprises offered vacation apartments alone or apartments and B&B, the other half offer only bed and breakfast rooms.

[2] Anna Elstner, Lisa Füreder, Stefan Hofer, Kristina Klöckl, Daniela Macho and Georg Reiter. The author extends his thanks to these students for their careful work in completing the interviews.

Results

The main stressor identified by these farm women was the sheer length of the work day. On average they working work 14 hours per day with peaks of up to 17 hours. The woman reporting the shortest average workday still works an average of 10 hours a day. They report beginning work at 5:30 or 6:00 in the morning and working with breaks only for meals typically until 10 in the evening. Clearly with such a long workday, little time is left over for leisure. The women reported an average of 2 hours per day that they could take “for themselves”, but at peak work periods in the year, this private time all but disappears. And because farm life is not structured the way work is normally, it means the farm wife does not have the advantage of the weekend to recharge her batteries. One woman over sixty put it this way: “Things have gotten better now that my daughter-in-law is here, but I used to get up at 4 and go to bed at 9. There was never any time to relax—I worked round the clock” (translation by the author, Rossegger, 2006: 64).

Role multiplication also plays a role in work-related stress of women providing on-farm accommodation. Especially when a woman has children to raise, the burden of taking care of guests can be heavy. This fact certainly partially ameliorated the problems associated with role multiplication. As much as 60-70% of the total work load of the women is associated with taking care of the guests, and the guests demand, in fact, more of the women’s time than their own families (Rossegger, 2006: 64). Some of them reported experiencing guilt over not having enough time to spend with their children, though most women think they have enough time for their families. They admit, however, that this is a direct result of the fact that they do not work off the farm. Their husbands, however, do not really pick up the slack. The women perceived the workload to be unevenly divided in the family. They report their own workload to be 60-100% higher than that of their husbands. As a consequence, little time remains for the women to maintain their friendships. An aggravating factor in this equation is the high seasonality of tourism in rural Styria. Almost all of the women interviewed live in areas where the heaviest guest load comes at a time when other farm responsibilities are also most time consuming. In the areas where the summer is the heaviest booked season, the peak workload of the farm and the peak workload of the accommodation business take place simultaneously. An exception to this rule are those farms close to ski areas—which, however, generally results in more even occupancy rate year round, rather than a slowdown in summer.

Another mitigating factor is the type of accommodation operation. B&B with the option of half or full board is becoming less common in Austria, but it still exists. The advantage associated with this approach is that farm products, whether meat, milk, eggs, fruits or vegetables, can be directly “sold” to the guests, with a appropriately higher profit margin than if they were sold wholesale. But the additional cost in labor falls in almost all cases on the farm wife. Because of this, many farm accommodation operations have shifted to offering only breakfast or not even that if vacation apartments are rented. When this option is chosen, the woman’s workload drops to perhaps a third of that required of women who offer full board.

When asked to rate their stress level, the women responded that it is moderately high (an average of 7 on a 10 point scale). This is actually less than might be expected given research elsewhere concerning stress in farming, and less than one might expect given their descriptions of what their work days are like. Still the stress takes its toll on their health. When asked to subjectively assess their health status, most women, especially if they were over 50, estimated it to be only satisfactory (on a scale from very poor, poor, satisfactory, good, to very good). They complained of frequent fatigue, headache, and backache. Some of the women also reported that there were tensions within the family, admitting that they are often irritable because of work-related stress. Making things worse is the perceived need to keep up a friendly facade for the guests. On the plus side, negative health behaviors in response to stress (such as alcohol abuse), which appear to be a problem in other high-stress jobs in tourism3 do not seem to be a problem among farm women offering accommodation.

What makes women who are farm tourism providers able to deal with the high stress associated with their workloads appears to be a combination of many factors. As previously mentioned, the fact that their homes are their workplaces are generally seen by them as a positive, rather than a negative aspect of their jobs. Because they are their own bosses, they are able to organize their daily activities as they see fit. This flexibility gives them a great sense of control, which has been shown in other studies to increase a person’s ability to cope effectively with work stress (Hill, Hawkins, Ferris & Weitzman, 2001: 56-57). The fact that on average 1/3 of the income of farms offering accommodation comes from this branch of the operation also raises the women’s sense of self-worth and independence. The interviewees repeatedly emphasized this aspect: “It gives me the sense of self-assurance to know that it is mine, that I did this myself” (translation by the author from Rossegger, 2006: 71).

Furthermore, the farm women interviewed reported receiving a high level of appreciation from their guests, an important source of emotional support, since praise is otherwise something often lacking in the women’s lives. Indeed, an overwhelming majority of the interviewees reported this as the most positive aspect of the work, beyond the monetary rewords themselves. One woman reported that this positive feedback made her more self-assured: “It gives you a real boost when the guests come back again and again. That makes you stronger. Then I really feel good“ (translation by the author from Rossegger, 2006: 71).

Normally, it might be expected that a sense of injustice associated with the unequal distribution of the work load in families that offer on-farm accommodation would be an additional source of stress, but in fact, this does not appear to be the case. Gender role expectations of both men and women in rural Austria are often very traditional, which is to say, patriarchal (Goldberg, 2003; Oedl-Wieser & Wiesinger, 2010: 86-86). Women who do not accept the traditional gender division of labor with its disproportionally heavy burden on the wife generally avoid the problem by simply not marrying a farmer. Pop culture then capitalizes on the shortage of women in agriculture through the popular reality TV-show, Bauer sucht Frau (Farmer seeks a wife). If a woman chooses life on a farm, she

[3] For more on this topic, see the article by Manuela Tooma elsewhere in this volume.

generally also does not expect that the workload be evenly distributed. And acceptance has long been known to be one of the important factors in dealing effectively with a stressful job situation (Bond & Bunce, 2003, p. 1065). One of the interview partners expressed it this way:

> On a farm it is not like it is elsewhere. Off the farm people often talk about a 50-50 solution, but that doesn't work for us. If you look at non-farm couples where both the husband and the wife have jobs, I can see where it might work for them to share the household work half and half when they come home. I would also want that. But on the farm, the house is the responsibility of the wife, and the farm holiday business is associated with the house, so the wife in effect has two jobs, but it is her work and not his—that's just the way it is (Translation by the author, Rossegger, 206, p. 70).

Other aspects of farm tourism provision also have a positive effect on women's ability to deal with the associated stress. One important mitigating factor mentioned by some of the respondents is the social interaction that dealing with tourists permits. The social isolation sometimes associated with farm life is broken down by the presence of guests. The guests bring the outside world to the farm, which broadens the hosts' perspectives without them having to actually go anywhere. To borrow a term from the vocabulary of university international relations, it can provide a form of "internationalization at home." This benefit of farm tourism provision has long been recognized, having been mentioned already in some of the earliest literature on farm tourism (Oppermann, 1995, p. 67). What the previous literature did not emphasize, however, was the role such contacts can play in stress management for the tourism providers. At least since the 1980s, it has been clear that positive social interactions in the workplace helps people to better manage on-the-job stress (House, 1981; Cohen & Wills, 1985; Delongis, Folkman & Lazarus, 1988). Paradoxically then in this case, the guests seem to help the farm women to deal with the stress they themselves have helped to create by renting a room on the farm.

Given the heavy workload that accompanies farm tourism provision, it is perhaps surprising that the women interviewed are so positive about having this as part of the income mix of their farm operations. But none of those interviews wants to give it up. The positives therefore apparently more than outweigh the negatives. Especially when measured against the alternatives, the women are content with their lot. It offers them the opportunity to be their own boss, to organize their lives in a flexible way and to spend more time with their husbands and children than if they worked off the farm. In addition, many also mentioned that they felt a particularly strong bond to nature, and that alternative sources of income, especially off-the-farm employment, would likely rob them of the intimate connection with nature and the seasons that they so value. When taken together these things add up to a higher quality of life than would be possible without offering accommodation. One interviewee summarized it this way: "I don't enjoy the stress, but the guests give a lot back. They say thank you a hundred times over and always come back for a repeat visit. And that makes you happy and you know what you have done it all for" (Rossegger, 2006, p. 76).

Discussion

The research results presented here provide a consistent picture of the relationship between farm tourism provision and the stress levels of the people engaged in it. It presents the realities of life associated with farm tourism within the context of the literature on stress coping mechanisms, and thus helps to explain why farm women are both able and willing to take on the burden of caring for guests. One may assume that their generally positive coping strategies are also one reason why guests find this form of accommodation so inviting. The farm wife generally conveys a positive image of her life to the guests, which helps to make them feel welcome and at home—and that then leads them to come back. What results is therefore a system of positive reinforcement, since the farm women, in return, are strengthened by the positive reactions from their guests. It would be interesting to explore this relationship in more detail in qualitative interviews with both tourists and farm tourism providers, based on the host-guest framework of previous tourism research.

The results presented in this article are subject to certain limitations that deserve mention. The number of interviewees was relatively small, and the potential problems that result from this fact were exacerbated by the fact that several interviewers were involved—a total of 8 interviewers did a total of 15 interviews. Thus, despite the use of an interview guideline, inconsistencies in the way questions were posed and differences from one interview to the next in how answers were followed up upon by interviewers cannot be excluded. Furthermore, in order to secure 15 interviews, a total of 30 women were asked to participate. A 50% turndown rate raises certain questions. Perhaps those who refused to be interviewed did so because they are doing considerably less well in handling the stress associated with offering accommodation. An alternative explanation is that the high demands on their time made them unwilling to sacrifice even an hour for an interview. This leads to some uncertainty about whether the research results are generalizable or not.

These problems aside, the results reached are largely consistent with what one might expect given the research that has been done in the past, both on farm tourism and on job-related stress. As a consequence, the insights presented here may be assumed to be accurate until a more comprehensive study demonstrates otherwise.

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What is ATLAS

May 2016

The Association for Tourism and Leisure Education and Research (ATLAS) was established in 1991 to develop transnational educational initiatives in tourism and leisure.

ATLAS provides a forum to promote staff and student exchange, transnational research and to facilitate curriculum and professional development. It currently has 212 members in 62 countries worldwide.

What are the objectives of ATLAS?

- To promote the teaching of tourism, leisure and related subjects.
- To encourage academic exchange between member institutions.
- To promote links between professional bodies in tourism, leisure and associated subjects and to liaise on educational issues, curriculum development and professional recognition of courses.
- To promote transnational research which helps to underpin the development of appropriate curricula for transnational education.

What does ATLAS do?

ATLAS promotes links between member institutions through regular meetings, publications and information exchange. The main activities of ATLAS currently are:

- Organising conferences on issues in tourism and leisure education and research. International conferences have been held in London, United Kingdom (September 2012) and in Malta (November 2013), Budapest, Hungary (October 2014), Lisbon (October 2015). The annual conference in 2016 will be organised in Canterbury, UK. Regional conferences are also held in Africa, South America and the Asia-Pacific region.
- Information services and publications, including the ATLAS website and members' portal, the annual ATLAS Reflections, Facebook and LinkedIn.
- Running international courses, such as the ATLAS Winter University in Europe and the Summer Course in Asia.
- Organisation of and participation in transnational research projects, for example on cultural tourism, sustainable tourism, and information technology.
- Research publications and reports.

What are the benefits of the ATLAS membership?

- Regular mailings of information, updates on ATLAS conferences, meetings, projects, publications and other activities.
- Access to the members' portal on Internet with exclusive access code.
- Participation in the ATLAS information lists for everyone within ATLAS member institutions, as well as for the different Special Interest Groups.
- The annual ATLAS international conference, which provides an opportunity to network with other members.

- Conferences organised by regional sections.
- ATLAS members can participate in a wide range of projects run by ATLAS in the areas of tourism and leisure education and research.
- Members have access to research information gathered through ATLAS
- International projects.
- ATLAS members are listed on the ATLAS website, giving teachers and students easy access to information about member institutions via Internet.
- Distribution of information about member events, programmes, projects and products via the ATLAS mailing list and ATLAS website.
- ATLAS members are entitled to substantial discounts on ATLAS conference fees and selected ATLAS publications.
- Contacts and lobbying through ATLAS links with other international organisations.
- Opportunity for students to take part in an established academic and research network.

ATLAS Special Interest Groups

Members of ATLAS can form and join Special Interest Groups related to specific education and research topics or for specific geographical areas. Special Interest Groups run research programmes and can organise special events and publications related to their area of interest. The current Special Interest Groups are:

- Cultural Tourism Research Group
- Gastronomy and Tourism Research Group
- Business Tourism Research Group
- Capital City Tourism Research Group
- Volunteer Tourism Research Group
- Independent Travel Research Group
- Events Research Group

ATLAS Regional Sections

ATLAS is also represented at regional and local level by sections such as ATLAS Europe, ATLAS Asia-Pacific, ATLAS Africa and ATLAS Americas. The regional sections of ATLAS have developed their own programme of activities and publications to respond more closely to the specific needs of members located in these regions and those with related research interests. Membership of ATLAS regional sections and Special Interest Groups of ATLAS is open to all ATLAS members at no extra costs.

The ATLAS publication series

As a networking organisation, one of the main tasks of ATLAS is to disseminate information on developments in tourism and leisure as widely as possible. The ATLAS publication series contains volumes of selected papers from ATLAS conferences and reports from ATLAS research projects. All publications can be found and ordered in the online ATLAS bookshop at: shop.atlas-euro.org.

Join ATLAS
ATLAS membership is open to bona-fide educational institutions and professional bodies with educational, research or professional interests in tourism, leisure and related areas. If your institution is interested, complete the application form on the ATLAS homepage at www.atlas-euro.org.

How much does the ATLAS membership cost?
Since 2016 the annual institutional membership fee for ATLAS is € 325. For organisations located in countries in Central and Eastern Europe, Africa, Asia and South America the fee is € 200 per year.

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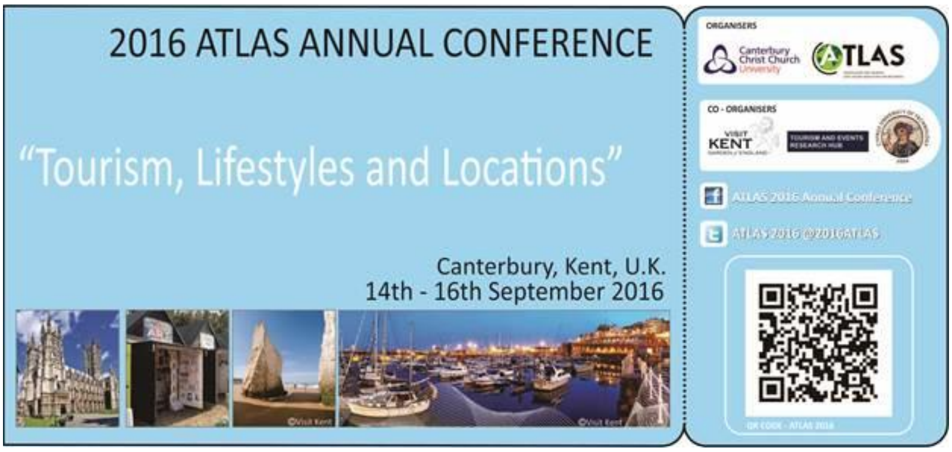

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