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ZADOVOLJSTVO ŽIVOTOM
STANOVNIKA
BIVŠE JUGOSLAVIJE

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1. Uvod

Ljudi iz Bosne i Hercegovine odlaze, ali odlaze i iz drugih balkanskih zemalja. Odlaze mladi, odlaze srednjovječni, odlaze nezaposleni i zaposleni, odlaze pojedinci, ali i čitave porodice. Na momente se čini da će zemlje zapadnog Balkana vrlo brzo postati veliki gerijatrijski centar.

Ne postoji precizna statistika o tome koliko je ljudi napustilo ove prostore, ali i procjene su zastrašujuće. Prema podacima OEBS-a, Srbiju je od 2000. godine do danas napustilo 650 000¹ stanovnika, neke procjene nevladinih organizacija su pokazale da je Bosnu i Hercegovinu u posljednjih šest godina napustilo 178 000 ljudi². Prema nezvaničnim podacima, Crnu Goru je od 1993. do 2018. godine napustilo 145 000³ stanovnika, dok je prema nekim procjenama Sjevernu Makedoniju napustilo 520 000 ljudi⁴. Od ulaska u Evropsku uniju Hrvatsku je napustilo 102 000 ljudi, ali neki smatraju da je taj broj mnogo veći i da ide i do 300 000⁵.

Prema podacima Eurostata, u Evropsku uniju 2018. godine legalno se doselilo 228 000 građana zemalja zapadnog Balkana – Crne Gore, Bosne i Hercegovine, Albanije, Sjeverne Makedonije, Srbije i Kosova*. Iz Albanije se u EU iselilo 62 000 građana, iz Sjeverne Makedonije 24 300, s Kosova* 34 500. Bosnu i Hercegovinu lani je napustilo 53 500 ljudi, Srbiju je napustilo 51 000 ljudi, a Crnu Goru 3 000⁶.

Naravno, ove podatke treba uzeti sa rezervom, jer nijedna od gore pomenutih država nema razvijenu metodologiju kojom bi precizno pratila migracije svojih stanovnika izvan zemlje, što opet govori o njihovom odnosu prema ovom problemu.

¹ <http://rs.n1info.com/Vesti/a459503/Srbiju-napustaju-radnici-svih-profila-drzava-reaguje-koordinacionim-telom.html>

² <https://www.dw.com/bs/egzodus-iz-bosne-i-hercegovine/a-49486241>

³ <https://portalanalitika.me/clanak/338037/sve-vise-mladih-odlazi-niko-za-to-ne-haje>

⁴ <http://www.novosti.rs/vesti/planeta.300.html:642969-Makedonija-se-ubrzanoprazni>

⁵ <https://www.tportal.hr/biznis/clanak/konacno-znamo-koliko-ljudi-se-iselilo-iz-hrvatske-brojka-je-golema-ali-u-stvarnosti-je-duplo-gore-foto-20181218>

⁶ <http://radio101.hr/228-tisuca-gradana-zemalja-zapadnog-balkana-lani-se-uselilo-u-eu/>

Ono što još više zabrinjava su stavovi stanovnika ovih zemalja o odlasku. U istraživanju pod naslovom „Zašto ljudi odlaze iz Srbije?“⁷ nevladina organizacija Srbija 21 je pokazala da 22% ljudi želi da se odseli iz Srbije, a među njima je najviše mladih između 18 i 29 godina, čak 34%. U istraživanju se, takođe, navodi da 41% ispitanika iz dijaspor ne planira da se vrati u Srbiju, dok svaki treći ispitanik (35%) želi da se vrati kada bude u penziji. Ipak, velika većina, čak 90% onih koji žive van Srbije ne vide budućnost za svoju djecu u Srbiji.

Studija fondacije Fridrih Ebert o mladima⁸ u zemljama jugoistočne Evrope pokazala je da najjača želja za odlazak iz zemlje postoji kod mladih iz Makedonije (35%), Kosova* (34%), Srbije (29%), Bosne i Hercegovine (27%), Crne Gore (26%) i Hrvatske (11%).

Razloga zašto se odlazi iz zemalja zapadnog Balkana ima mnogo, ali su skoro uvijek isti bez obzira na to živite li u Hrvatskoj, Bosni i Hercegovini, Srbiji, Crnoj Gori, Makedoniji ili Kosovu*. Ljudi odlaze jer nemaju posao, jer imaju male plate, jer im je muka od korupcije, nepotizma, partokratije. Među njima ima i onih koji su dosegli vrhunac u svom poslu i žele da se dalje razvijaju i napreduju. Neki se plaše izbijanja novog rata, neki više ne žele da čekaju bolju budućnost, a dobar dio njih odlazi jer ne žele da im djeca žive u ovakvom društvu.

Posebno brine želja mladih da zauvijek (ili na veoma dug period) napuste zemlju u kojoj žive.

Svi oni žele bolji život, ali se postavlja pitanje šta je to dobar život i koliko su danas građani Hrvatske, Bosne i Hercegovine, Srbije, Crne Gore, Makedonije i Kosova* zadovoljni svojim životom, a koliko oni stanovnici tih država koji danas žive u inostranstvu?

2. Šta je kvalitet života?

Zanimanje za kvalitet života je krenulo polovinom 20. vijeka, kada su time počeli da se bave ekonomisti, povezujući ga sa životnim standar-

⁷ <https://www.vice.com/rs/article/ywkk5y/pitali-smo-srbe-u-dijaspori-sta-treba-da-se-promeni-da-bi-se-vratili-u-zemlju>

⁸ <http://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/belgrad/15293.pdf>

dom. Oni su nam objašnjavali da se sa poboljšanjem ekonomskih parametara (povećanje BDP-a, visina primanja, smanjenje stope nezaposlenosti i stope siromaštva, smanjenje dužine radne nedjelje i sl.) uslovi za život poboljšavaju, a samim tim i ljudi postaju srećniji. Slijedeći tu logiku, ako bi se parametri životnog standarda u nekoj zemlji povećali nekoliko puta – i percepcija kvaliteta života bi se toliko uvećala, što nije bilo u skladu sa dobijenim nalazima. Sociodemografski faktori poput prihoda, zdravlja, obrazovanja, bračnog statusa objašnjavali su relativno mali procenat varijanse subjektivne dobrobiti (najčešće između 8% i 20%), što znači da materijalni uslovi sami po sebi nisu bili dovoljno dobri indikatori subjektivne dobrobiti (Diener, Oishi & Lucas, 2003; Diener et al., 1999; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon & Schkade, 2005). Krajem šezdesetih godina 20. vijeka istraživanjem kvaliteta života počinju da se bave sociolozi i oni počinju da prave razliku između objektivne i subjektivne komponente, odnosno objektivnih i subjektivnih pokazatelja ličnog kvaliteta života. Tokom 70-ih godina prošlog vijeka pažnja istraživača se sve više usmjerava na subjektivne pokazatelje kvaliteta života. Pojedinaac postaje centar istraživanja, a njegov subjektivni doživljaj vlastitog života sada zavisi ne samo od objektivnih parametara već i od njegovih osobina ličnosti kroz koje se realnost prelama, te od specifičnog životnog iskustva. Psihologija polako, ali sigurno preuzima primat nad ovom vrstom istraživanja, a zadovoljstvo životom postaje termin koji se sve više koristi.

3. Koja je razlika između blagostanja, zadovoljstva životom i kvaliteta života?

U prethodnom poglavlju smo pokazali kako je kroz vrijeme pojam kvalitet života evoluirao u pojam – zadovoljstvo životom. Ipak, i dalje među istraživačima u različitim oblastima vlada poprilična pojmovna zbrka.

Koje su to razlike, i da li ih uopšte ima, između pojmova blagostanje, zadovoljstvo životom i kvalitet života?

Blagostanje obuhvata različite objektivne i subjektivne aspekte života. U okviru objektivnih nalazimo sljedeće indikatore: uslovi života, obrazovanje, društveno uređenje, politička stabilnost, materijalno stanje i sl., dok se subjektivni indikator sastoji od sljedećih pokazatelja: subjektivno, psihološko i socijalno blagostanje.

Kvalitet život je konstrukt koji se veoma često izjednačava sa blagostanjem. Evo kako kvalitet života definiše Cummins (prema Jovanović, 2016) „Kvalitet života ima objektivnu i subjektivnu osu, i svaka predstavlja skup sedam domena: materijalnog blagostanja, zdravlja, produktivnosti, intimnosti, sigurnosti, zajednice i emocionalnog blagostanja.”

Oba ova pojma unutar svojih definicija vode računa o uslovima u kojima pojedinac živi, ali i njegovom (subjektivnom) opažanju sopstvenog života i rada.

Zadovoljstvo životom je sastavio dio blagostanja i kvaliteta života i podrazumijeva afektivnu i kognitivnu evaluaciju sopstvenog života (Diener, 2000).

4. Zadovoljstvo životom

Zadovoljstvo životom predstavlja kognitivnu komponentu subjektivnog blagostanja i najčešće se definiše kao subjektivna evaluacija osobe o tome koliko je njen život dobar i kvalitetan u odnosu na sopstvene standarde i kriterijume koje ona smatra važnim (Pavot & Diener, 1993). Iz ove definicije zadovoljstva životom naglasak je na subjektivnoj procjeni, što objektivne parametre života (BDP, stopa zaposlenosti, visina plate i sl.) čini manje važnim, i čini ih kriterijumima koje sami postavljamo kada opisujemo svoj život. Kao rezultat toga imamo situacije da stanovnici veoma bogatih i veoma siromašnih zemalja sebe podjednako opisuju kao srećne.

Kada govorimo o zadovoljstvu životom, moramo imati na umu da ta subjektivna procjena ne anulira objektivne parametre tj. uslove u kojima pojedinac živi. Ljudima je veoma važno da zadovolje neke bazične potrebe: dostupnost hrane i vode, sigurnost, zdravlje ili dobar

odnos sa drugim ljudima. S druge strane, zadovoljstvo životom u velikoj je mjeri podložno kulturnom uticaju. Sredina u kojoj pojedinac živi u velikoj mjeri određuje šta će pojedinci iz različitih kultura vrednovati kao važno (Suh, Diener, Oishi & Triendis, 1998). Društveno poželjno ponašanje u Britaniji ne mora biti takvo i u Kini.

Prilikom mjerenja zadovoljstva životom, moramo imati na umu da je to veoma složen proces koji može da varira kroz vrijeme i u kojem pojedinac uzima u obzir mnoge faktore. Neki od njih su kratkotrajni i zavise od trenutne situacije u kojoj se osoba nalazi (trenutno imamo gripu i nezaposleni smo), neki faktori su trajni, ali skloni promjenama (trenutno dobro raspoloženje) i neki su trajni (osobine ličnosti, zadovoljstvo porodičnim životom, kako procjenjujemo svoj uspjeh na poslu i sl.).

U okviru našeg istraživanja bavićemo se samo kognitivnim aspektom zadovoljstva životom, ali ne i afektivnim. Svjesni smo da time zanemarujemo jedan veoma važan aspekt subjektivnog blagostanja, ali neka to ostane predmet nekog istraživanja u budućnosti.

5. Determinante zadovoljstva životom

Pod uticajem ekonomista, bruto domaći proizvod i slične ekonomske mjere države dugo su se smatrale glavnim pokazateljima kvaliteta života, međutim, one su se pokazale nedovoljnim jer su istraživanja pokazala da ta koleracija nije linearna. Ova povezanost se ističe u društvima koja su ekstremno siromašna i u kojima njihovi članovi ne mogu da zadovolje osnovne životne potrebe, ali sa povećanjem životnog standarda ova veza se gubi. Takođe, ovim parametrima nisu se mogli objasniti rezultati istraživanja koja pokazuju da su jednako zadovoljni životom stanovnici države koja nije u ratu i stanovnici države u kojoj u tom trenutku traje rat (Hagopian et al. 2013).

Objektivni pristup proučavanja kvaliteta života je tradicionalniji i zasnovan je na nizu pretpostavki o tome šta život čini dobrim, te je pretežno usredsređen na identifikaciju spoljašnjih uslova koji vode ka

poboljšanju života. U objektivne društvene pokazatelje kvaliteta života ubrajamo: BDP, stepen siromaštva, zaposlenost i nezaposlenost, produktivnost, novac (platu), ali i stepen narkomanije, alkoholizma i kriminala u jednom društvu. U posljednje vrijeme i ekologija se uzima kao važan aspekt kvaliteta života. Na osnovu ovih pokazatelja se onda posredno izvode zaključci o kvalitetu življenja stanovnika nekog društva.

Danas je sasvim jasno da se kvalitet života određuje kombinacijom objektivnih i subjektivnih indikatora. Ova veza između subjektivnih i objektivnih indikatora podrazumijevala bi da na subjektivni osjećaj zadovoljstva životom u velikoj mjeri utiču objektivni faktori.

5.1 Bruto domaći proizvod

Bruto domaći proizvod (BDP) predstavlja „tvrdu”, tj. eksternu mjeru društvenog i ekonomskog razvoja jedne države. Vrlo često BDP se koristi kao jedan od najvažnijih pokazatelja životnog standarda društva, ali ne i jedini, jer ne smijemo zanemariti uticaj drugih faktora, kao što su: stopa zaposlenosti, inflacija, saldo platnog bilansa i sl. Pored ovih ekonomskih faktora, uvijek se mora voditi računa i o neekonomskim faktorima kao što su: slobodno vrijeme, kvalitet životne sredine, nivo zdravlja i obrazovanja i sl.

Tridesetih godina prošlog vijeka najznačajniji ekonomski pokazatelj životnog standarda bio je BDP, kao definicija dostignuća ekonomskog i društvenog razvoja, jer se ekonomski rast izjednačavao sa rastom BDP-a. Od ovog stanovišta se odstupilo nakon izbijanja ekonomske krize 2008. godine, koja se pretvorila i u krizu vrijednosti (Murgaš i Bohm, 2014). Bruto domaći proizvod danas nije predstavljen kao mjera dugoročnog društvenog, ekonomskog razvoja i prosperiteta, jer njegov rast ne znači i rast zadovoljstva ljudi životom, ali ga često koristimo u kombinaciji sa ostalim faktorima kada treba objasniti neke aspekte zadovoljstva životom.

Jednostavno rečeno, rast BDP ne znači ništa u jednom društvu ako od tog bogatstva cijelo društvo nema koristi. Ovu tvrdnju potkrepljuju i rezultati istraživanja Bleysa (2005) i Stiglitz i drugih (2009).

Bruto domaći proizvod jeste važan pokazatelj ekonomskog stanja jednog društva. Kada se govori o migracijama ljudi u svijetu, ne možemo zanemariti činjenicu da stanovnici zemalja sa nižim BDP-om po glavi stanovnika migriraju u zemlje sa relativno visokim BDP-om po glavi stanovnika⁹. Tokom 2017. godine u EU se uselilo 2,24 miliona osoba iz drugih zemalja¹⁰. Potpuno smo svejsni da je pogrešno svoditi migracije samo na ekonomske parametre, ali ih ni na koji način ne smijemo zanemariti.

Za potrebe ovog istraživanja pokazaćemo gdje se zemlje bivše Jugoslavije nalaze u odnosu na EU ili pojedine zemlje iz ove unije preko mjere standardne kupovne moći (PPS), a ona se dobija podjelom ukupnog BDP na broj stanovnika zemlje prilagođen visini cijena. Ako PPS ima vrijednost 100, onda vrijednosti iznad tog broja pokazuju da je vrijednost BDP-a te zemlje iznad prosjeka, a ako je vrijednost ispod 100 onda je je vrijednost BDP-a ispod prosjeka. Prema podacima Eurostata¹¹ za 2018. godinu, BiH ima vrijednost 31, Sjeverna Makedonija 38, Srbija 40, Crna Gora 48, Hrvatska 63, Slovenija 88. Kao što vidimo, zemlje bivše Jugoslavije nalaze se ispod EU prosjeka kada se radi o mjeri PPS-a, ali je važno naglasiti da je u zemljama koje su u EU situacija nešto bolja (Hrvatska i Slovenija) u odnosu na zemlje koje čekaju da uđu u EU (Crna Gora, Srbija, Sjeverna Makedonija, BiH). Zemlje u koje stanovnici zemalja bivše Jugoslavije najčešće emigriraju imaju PPS iznad prosjeka, na primjer Austrija (128), Njemačka (123), Italija (97), Danska (129) ili Švedska (121).

Postavlja se pitanje da li su ljudi u zemljama gdje je PPS iznad prosjeka srećniji u odnosu na stanovnike država sa manjim PPS-om? Iz-

⁹ https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Migration_and_migrant_population_statistics/hr#Migracijski_tokovi:_U_EU_je_2017._uselilo_2.2C4_milijuna_osoba_iz_dr.C5.BEava_koje_nisu_.C4.8Dlani-ce_EU-a

¹⁰ https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Migration_and_migrant_population_statistics/hr#Migracijski_tokovi:_U_EU_je_2017._uselilo_2.2C4_milijuna_osoba_iz_dr.C5.BEava_koje_nisu_.C4.8Dlani-ce_EU-a

¹¹ <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/tec00114/default/table?lang=en>

gleda da jesu, ali ta razlika u sreći nije onolika kolika je razlika u standardnoj kupovnoj moći.

Ako pogledamo istraživanje *Zadovoljstvo životom* Eurostata iz 2016.¹² godine vidjećemo da su svojim životom najmanje zadovoljni ispitanici iz Bugarske (5,6), Grčke (5,3), Albanije (4,9), Turske (6), slijede zemlje bivše Jugoslavije – Makedonija, Crna Gora i Srbija (6,3), Hrvatska (6,5), te Italija (6,6), Slovenija (6,9), Njemačka (7,3) i Austrija (7,9). Najveću prosječnu ocjenu nalazimo kod stanovnika Danske (8,2), Finske (7,9) i Švedske (7,9).

Izgleda da je novac važan za opažanje vlastite sreće samo do granice koja nam omogućava zadovoljenje osnovnih bioloških potreba, a kada pređemo tu granicu, onda njegov značaj opada, što je opet u skladu sa nalazima ranijih studija (Easterlin, 1995; Diener, Tay & Oishi, 2013).

5.2 Step en siromaštva

Termin „siromaštvo” dugo je podrazumijevao samo nedovoljnost prihoda za nabavku osnovnih potrepština za život (roba i usluga). Međutim, danas se definicija siromaštva određuje kao stanje u kojem nedostaju osnovne mogućnosti za dostojanstven život.¹³

Siromaštvo se manifestuje na razne načine: glad i neuhranjenost, loše zdravstveno stanje, ograničen ili nikakav pristup obrazovanju, povećana smrtnost, beskućništvo i neadekvatni stambeni uslovi, nesigurno okruženje, te društvena diskriminacija i izolacija.¹⁴ Pored toga, neučestvovanje u političkom, društvenom i kulturnom životu društva su karakteristike nezadovoljenja osnovnih ljudskih prava koje može biti izazvano siromaštvom.

Siromaštvo može da bude apsolutno i relativno. Apsolutno siromaštvo podrazumijeva gladovanje i nedostatak osnovnih uslova za

¹² <https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/hr/surveys/european-quality-of-life-surveys/european-quality-of-life-survey-2016>

¹³ https://www.esiweb.org/pdf/bridges/bosnia/PRSP_PregledSiromastva.pdf

¹⁴ Bosnia and Herzegovina: Poverty Assessment, Svjetska banka, Izvještaj br. 25343-BIH.

život, dok relativno siromaštvo obuhvata lišenost viših životnih potreba vezanih za životni standard i stil života kao što su putovanja, izlasci u restorane i sl. (Šućur, 2001).

Kada pogledamo podatke o stepenu siromaštva kod nas i u regionu vidimo da oko 19,5% stanovništva BiH živi ispod linije generalnog siromaštva (približno 25% u RS i 16% u FBiH)¹⁵. U Srbiji stopa rizika od siromaštva ili socijalne isključenosti (ova lica su u riziku od siromaštva, ili su izrazito materijalno uskraćena, ili žive u domaćinstvima veoma niskog inteziteta rada) u 2019. godini iznosila je 34,3%¹⁶. U Hrvatskoj je stopa rizika od siromaštva iznosila 20% od ukupnog stanovništva, dok taj procenat u Sloveniji iznosi 13,3%. U zemljama u koje naši ljudi najčešće migriraju ta stopa je nešto niža, u Njemačkoj 16,1%, Austriji 14,4%. Ako pogledamo Evropsku uniju u cjelini, stopa rizika od siromaštva je iznosila 16,9% prema podacima iz 2017. godine.¹⁷

Od ukupnog broja siromašnih u BiH, oko 56% živi u porodicama s djecom. Posebno su ugrožena djeca u Republici Srpskoj, gdje oko polovine te dobne populacije živi u siromašnim porodicama, dok je u FBiH to slučaj za oko trećinu. Oko 13% djece živi u porodicama koje spadaju u kategoriju najsiromašnijih, a 29% njih u domaćinstvima na liniji siromaštva. Siromaštvo porodica sa djecom je najizraženije tamo gdje nijedan član domaćinstva ne radi.¹⁸

Prema istraživanjima Eurostata, ne znači da su ljudi više zadovoljni svojom finansijskom situacijom u zemljama u kojima je manji nivo rizika siromaštva. Recimo, Češka je zemlja koja ima najmanji procenat stanovnika koji su u riziku od siromaštva, ali više od 40% ispitanika nije zadovoljno svojom finansijskom situacijom.¹⁹

¹⁵ Bosnia and Herzegovina: Poverty Assessment, Svjetska banka, Izvještaj br. 25343-BiH, str. 6.

¹⁶ <https://www.stat.gov.rs/sr-latn/vesti/20191015-siromastvo-i-socijalna-nejednakost-2018/?s=0102>

¹⁷ https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Income_poverty_statistics/hr&oldid=469037

¹⁸ Bosnia and Herzegovina: Poverty Assessment, Svjetska banka, Izvještaj br. 25343-BiH

¹⁹ Eurostata „Quality of life in Europe — facts and views”, 2015.godina.

Iako na prvi pogled možemo očekivati da će količina novca uticati na stepen sreće pojedinca, treba da budemo oprezni. Istraživanje Dienera, Taya & Oishia (2013) je pokazalo da se sa povećanjem prihoda u domaćinstvu mijenja i zadovoljstvo životom. Slične rezultate su dobili i Stivenson i Wolfers (2008) analizirajući rezultate više studija. Jedini izuzetak su bile Sjedinjene američke države. Ovo je autore navelo da zaključe da visok BDP sam po sebi ne znači mnogo, ako to bogatsvo nije pravilno raspoređeno. Ipak, ima i drugačijih nalaza – poznato je istraživanje Esterlina iz 1974. godine u kojem on pokazuje da kada se BDP udvostruči, percepcija sreće ostaje ista ili se neznatno poveća.

Rasprava o tome kako bogatstvo utiče na subjektivno blagostanje još nije završena i ne vidi joj se kraj. Ipak, postoje neke pravilnosti o kojima možemo govoriti. Što je neko društvo siromašnije to je uticaj ličnih primanja na percepciju lične sreće veći, ali taj uticaj postaje sve slabiji što društvo postaje bogatije. Takođe, taj uticaj se najbolje vidi kod kognitivnih aspekata ličnog blagostanja, ali znatno manje kod afektivnih komponenti (Diener, Ng, Harter & Aurora, 2010).

5.3 Novac (*visina plate*)

Da li se sreća može kupiti novcem?

Esterlin (1995) je kazao ne. U analizi koju je radio u SAD-u, Japanu, Belgiji, Danskoj, Francuskoj, Grčkoj, Holandiji, Irskoj, Italiji, Njemačkoj i Velikoj Britaniji pokazao je da je, iako se BDP udvostučio, a samim tim su se povećale i plate, subjektivni nivo blagostanja ostao isti ili se neznatno povećavao i smanjivao. Od tada se taj paradoks naziva njegovim imenom.

Ipak, treba biti oprezan sa ovim zaključkom.

Diener i Seligman (2004) navode da novac donosi samo mala povećanja blagostanja, nakon što se pređe određeni prag. Clark, Frijters i Shields (2008) navode da veći ekonomski prosperitet u nekom trenutku prestaje da kupuje više sreće, a sličnu tvrdnju iznose i Di Tella i MacCulloch (2008) koji kažu „Jednom kad su osnovne potrebe zadovoljene dolazi do potpune promjene daljeg ekonomskog rasta”. Frey i

Stutzer (2002) tvrde da „prihod pruža sreću na niskim nivoima razvoja, ali kada se dostigne prag (u Americi postavljen na oko 10 000 USD), prosječan nivo prihoda u zemlji ima malo uticaja na zadovoljstvo životom”.

Prema istraživanju sprovedenom u Hrvatskoj (Vuletić i saradnici, 2011), za većinu ispitanika novac predstavlja sredstvo za zadovoljenje elementarnih potreba za život, a tek je nekoliko pripadnika mlađe dobne grupe pomenulo želju za bogatstvom i percipiralo novac kao bitan faktor za ostvarivanje višeg stepena kvaliteta života.

Uzimajući u obzir zaključke do kojih su došli i Dunn, Aknin i Norton u radu objavljenom 2008. godine, možemo reći da novac može kupiti sreću, ali samo kao sredstvo zahvaljujući kojem možemo doći do stvari koje nas čine srećnima, te da novac sam po sebi ne povećava značajno osjećaj zadovoljstva i sreće. Prema anketi koju su oni sprovedli u Americi, došlo se do zaključka da veće zadovoljstvo izaziva trošenje novca na druge nego na sebe.

5.4 (Ne)zaposlenost

Nezaposlenost se definiše kao stanje u kojem dio radno sposobnog stanovništva ne može pronaći zaposlenje primjereno svojim sposobnostima i finansijskim potrebama. Pored toga, u grupu nezaposlenih spadaju i svi stanovnici koji su djelimično zaposleni, ali njihova radna snaga nije u potpunosti iskorištena, tj. ne rade puno radno vrijeme i u skladu sa tim nemaju dovoljnu novčanu nadoknadu za rad, potrebnu za normalno funkcionisanje u društvu (Bejaković, 2003).

Prema zvaničnim statističkim podacima Agencije za statistiku BiH, broj nezaposlenih u BiH u januaru 2020. godine iznosi 402 888²⁰. U Srbiji u četvrtom kvartalu 2019. godine broj nezaposlenih iznosio je 314 100²¹, u Hrvatskoj 124 000, u Sloveniji 39 000 za isti period. Kada je

²⁰ http://bhas.gov.ba/data/Publikacije/Saopštenja/2020/LAB_03_2020_02_0_BS.pdf

²¹ <https://www.stat.gov.rs/sr-latn/vesti/20200228-kretanja-na-trzistu-rada-u-cetvrtom-kvartalu-2019/?s=2400>

u pitanju Austrija, taj broj za 2019. godinu iznosio je 198 000, za Njemačku 1 390 000, dok u Evropskoj uniji iznosi 15 240 000²².

Greve (2012) naglašava da 80% razlika u sreći između država i pojedinaca može biti objašnjeno pomoću šest faktora: razvod, nezaposlenost, povjerenje, članstvo u religijskim organizacijama, vjera u Boga i kvalitet vlade. Istraživanje u Hrvatskoj (Dobrotić i sar., 2007) pokazuje da su nezaposlene osobe nezadovoljnije svojim životom, kao i oni koji pate od hroničnih bolesti, ali i samci. Andersen (2009) u svom istraživanju na nivou EU nalazi da se zadovoljstvo životom smanjuje kod ispitanika koji su nezaposleni. Di Tella, MacCulloch, Oswald (2003) i Volfers (2003) analizirali su efekte stope nezaposlenosti na makro-nivou, na nivo sreće pojedinca. Oni navode da porast stope nezaposlenosti na makro-nivou smanjuje sreću pojedinca. Volfers dalje otkriva da fluktuacije u stopi nezaposlenosti takođe negativno utiču na nivo sreće. Jedno istraživanje iz Japana (Ohtake, 2012) pokazuje da je 43% ispitanika koji su pripadali grupi nezaposlenih odgovorilo da su nesrećni i nezadovoljni svojim životom, a samo 8% ostalih ispitanika je dalo isti odgovor. Slične rezultate pokazuje i istraživanje koje je sprovedeno u Njemačkoj i koje pokazuje da se stepen zadovoljstva ljudi povećava nakon pronalaska zaposlenja, te da je samo 5% nezaposlenih izjavilo da je srećno (Winkelmann, 2014).

Ipak, moramo imati na umu da gubitak posla ne utiče isto na sve osobe. Istraživanje Clarka i Osvalda (1994) je pokazalo da gubitak posla najteže pada osobama starosti od 30 do 50 godina i da to teže prihvataju muškarci, nego žene. Takođe, istraživanja pokazuju da gubitak posla ne pogađa samo one koji gube posao, već i ljude iz njihovog poslovnog okruženja, jer se i kod njih javlja bojazan od gubitka posla (Clark, Knabe & Rätzl, 2009). Osobe koje su generalno manje zadovoljne životom teže podnose gubitak posla (Binder & Coad, 2014).

Na isti način na koji nezaposlenost šteti pojedincu (Lucas i sar., 2004), zapošljavanje može biti veoma korisno (Binder & Coad, 2010). To se, dijelom, odnosi na prihod koji posao osigurava za pojedinca, ali dijelom i zbog smisla koji može pružiti, kao zbog i društvene validaci-

²² https://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=une_rt_a&lang=en

je i drugih psiholoških faktora (Layard i sar., 2013). Ti bi nenovčani faktori trebalo da igraju ključnu ulogu u zadovoljstvu poslom, a mogu se razumjeti i kao ono što potiče uvid u to da je često poželjnije imati posao nego biti bez posla, u smislu individualne dobrobiti (Gruen i sar., 2010). Međutim, postoje određeni poslovi koji su u nekim karakteristikama bolji od drugih – na primjer, oni koji pojedincima nude visok nivo samoodređenja i autonomije i koji pružaju veće neimovinske koristi i povećavaju zadovoljstvo poslom (Benz & Frey, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Teorija samoodređenja kaže da pojedinci cijene autonomiju u svojim poslovima, jer to zadovoljava urođenu psihološku potrebu (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Frey, 1997). Stoga možemo pretpostaviti da će autonomija na radnom mjestu biti jedna od važnih odrednica dobrobiti radnog mjesta i zadovoljstva poslom.

Kada je u pitanju zadovoljstvo poslom prema podacima Eurostata²³ iz 2013. godine, 19,4% radnika u EU nije zadovoljno poslom koji rade, dok ih je 55, 8% izjavilo da su srednje zadovoljni poslom. Veće nezadovoljstvo je prisutno u zemljama sa težom političkom i ekonomskom situacijom, što je svakako uzrok nesigurnosti opstanka na radnim mjestima. Na zadovoljstvo poslom utiču mnogi faktori kao što su broj radnih sati, udaljenost posla od kuće, radno okruženje, motivacija i sl.

Godine 1983. Chaco je koristio frekvencije promjena u zadovoljstvu poslom i životnom zadovoljstvu. U studiji je zaključeno da je postojao uzročni, kontinuirani odnos između zadovoljstva poslom i zadovoljstva životom. Neke studije su otkrile da zadovoljstvo ili nezadovoljstvo poslom direktno utiče na porodične sukobe, bračno zadovoljstvo i zadovoljstvo životom uopšteno. Rezultati su, isto tako, pokazali da je na zadovoljstvo ispitanika životom uticao i njihov nivo zadovoljstva poslom i bračnog zadovoljstva. U svojoj studiji Panos i Theodossior (2007) proučavali su i otkrili da je zadovoljstvo poslom u stvari glavni faktor ukupnog zadovoljstva životom. Ovo je važniji faktor od zadovoljstva porodicom, slobodnim vremenom, zdravljem, finansijama i društvenim životom. Takođe su otkrili da visokoobrazovani pojedinci imaju viši nivo zadovoljstva poslom i zaključili su da veza izme-

²³ <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/6856423/KS-05-14-073-EN-N/742aee45-4085-4dac-9e2e-9ed7e9501f23>

đu ispunjenosti karijerom i zadovoljstva životom ne smije biti podcijenjena i zaslužuje pažnju. U zaključku, većina dosadašnjih istraživanja na temu korelacije zadovoljstva poslom i zadovoljstva životom su ukazala na blisku uzročnu vezu koja može biti obrnuto proporcijalna, u zavisnosti od toga šta, u stvari, pojedinci smatraju bitnim faktorima mjerenja zadovoljstva životom.

5.5 Produktivnost

Pojam produktivnost uglavnom označava ostvarene rezultate uloženog rada u proizvodnji ili nekoj drugoj djelatnosti ljudskog rada. Smatra se da je produktivnost rada ključni pokretač ekonomskog rasta i konkurentnosti²⁴.

Porast produktivnosti je vrlo značajan za dalji razvoj društvene zajednice. Od visine produktivnosti zavisi i položaj neke zemlje na tržištu, niska produktivnost bilo koje grane privrede odražava se na nivo razvoja te zemlje u cjelini, a posredno od toga zavisi i životni standard. Zemlje sa visokom produktivnošću imaju visok BDP, što se u velikoj mjeri odražava i na visok životni standard.

Na produktivnost mogu uticati različiti faktori (tehnička opremljenost, struktura radnika, uslovi rada, raspodjela rezultata rada, asortiman proizvodnje i integracija). Sve faktore od kojih zavisi produktivnost možemo svrstati u tri grupe: opšti faktori, tehničko-organizacioni faktori i ljudski faktori.

Produktivnost rada je najbolje mjerena kao BDP po utrošenom radnom satu i jedan je od najčešće korištenih pokazatelja produktivnosti, ali s obzirom na to da podatak o broju sati nije dostupan za svaku zemlju, koristi se i drugi pokazatelj, a to je broj zaposlenih.

Kada su u pitanju Evropska unija i zemlje u okruženju, kroz jedinstven metodološki pristup nastojala se osigurati međunarodna uporedivost dobijenih podataka, te se u tu svrhu koriste ključni EUROSTAT-ovi pokazatelji produktivnosti rada i to:

²⁴ file:///C:/Users/PC/Downloads/Produktivnost%20rada%20u%20Federaciji%20BiH%20(1).pdf

- ❖ BDP po zaposlenom
- ❖ BDP po satu rada
- ❖ Realne jedinične troškove rada²⁵

U periodu 2011–2015. godine produktivnost u BiH je imala kontinuiran blagi trend rasta, sa 37 792 KM po zaposlenom u 2011. godini, na 39 586 KM po zaposlenom u 2015. godini. U Hrvatskoj su pokazatelji produktivnosti rada bolji, ali su bez trenda rasta. Bosna i Hercegovina zaostaje u odnosu na zemlje članice Evropske unije i produktivnost je na nivou od 31% od EU prosjeka u 2015. godini.²⁶

5.6 Kvalitet životne sredine

Ekologija je naučna disciplina koja proučava raspored i rasprostranjenost živih organizama i biološke interakcije između organizama i njihovog okruženja. Uticaj društva na prirodu je bio najizraženiji tokom industrijske revolucije kada se nije mnogo vodilo računa o očuvanju sredine, a cilj je bio efikasno osvajanje i iskorištavanje prirodnih resursa, ne razmišljajući o tome kako će se to odraziti na život ljudi, ali i drugih živih bića (Ujević, 1991). Tada se takav trend doživljavao kao visoka tehnološka, a samim tim i društvena razvijenost i bio je pretpostavka civilizacijskog napretka.

Međutim, neki ekonomisti su doveli u pitanje povećanje industrijske proizvodnje i kvaliteta života. Ekološke katastrofe i naglo smanjenje prirodnih resursa doveli su do pojave nove paradigme razvoja društva i počelo se govoriti o održivom razvoju. To je razvoj koji ne vodi računa samo o našem blagostanju, nego i o blagostanju naše djece i unuka. Danas BDP više nije najvažniji pokazatelj razvoja nekog društva, već se počinje govoriti i o indeksu ekološke održivosti (ESI) i indeksu performanse okoline (EPI)²⁷. ESI procjenjuje sposobnost neke

²⁵ <https://www.gea.ba/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/Analiza-o-produktivnosti-rada-LAT.pdf>

²⁶ [file:///C:/Users/PC/Downloads/Produktivnost%20rada%20u%20Federaciji%20BiH%20\(1\).pdf](file:///C:/Users/PC/Downloads/Produktivnost%20rada%20u%20Federaciji%20BiH%20(1).pdf)

²⁷ <https://epi.envirocenter.yale.edu/>

države da zaštiti svoju okolinu u narednih nekoliko desetina godina. Indeks EPI se pojavio 2005. godine i on mjeri ukupan doprinos neke zemlje očuvanju okoline imajući u vidu globalne ekološke probleme i način na koji se pojedine zemlje suočavaju sa njima.

Kada se pogleda EPI rang-lista zemalja, vidimo da se najbolje kotiraju Švajcarska, Francuska, Danska, Malta, Švedska, Velika Britanija, Luksemburg, Austrija, a na kraju ove liste nalaze se Angola, Centralnoafrička Republika, Nigerija, Lesoto, Haiti, Madagaskar, Nepal, Indija, DR Kongo, Bangladeš i Burundi. Bosna i Hercegovina se nalazi na 158. mjestu, Hrvatska na 41. Slovenija na 34, Srbija na 84, Crna Gora 65, a Makedonija na 68.²⁸

Sasvim je jasno da danas na kvalitet života pojedinca utiču i kvalitet vazduha, vode, zemljišta, te čistoće okruženja u kojem se nalazi. Životna sredina, pored ekonomskih faktora, može imati presudan uticaj na pojedinca kada donosi odluku o mjestu stanovanja i življenja. Čovjek je dio prirode, te na njega utiču dešavanja u prirodi koja ga okružuje. Čovjek ne može živjeti u blagostanju ukoliko priroda nije blagonaklona ka njemu i ukoliko na njegov život negativno utiču zagađenja i prirodne katastrofe.

Imajući u vidu ove faktore, možemo zaključiti da ekološki uslovi imaju značajnu ulogu u određivanju nivoa kvaliteta života pojedinaca. Prema podacima Svjetske zdravstvene organizacije, 24% oboljenja i 23% oboljenja sa smrtnim ishodom se javljaju kao posljedica nepovoljnog ekološkog okruženja (Yagudin, Fakhrutdinova, Kolesnikova, & Pshenichnyi, 2014).

Kada je u pitanju životno okruženje, urbani razvoj može štetno uticati na ekosisteme okruženja, i to izgradnjom na osjetljivim i plodnim zemljištima, kao i nepravilnim odlaganjem gradskog i industrijskog otpada. Opasnost po životnu sredinu dolazi i iz prirodnih izvora, kao što su zemljotresi i poplave, zatim ljudskih izvora, poput ekoloških katastrofa izazvanih industrijom, saobraćajem, požarima... Rizike za životno okruženje mogu izazvati i globalni ekološki problemi poput efekta staklene bašte, porasta nivoa mora, klimatskih promjena i zagađenja međunarodnih voda (Leitman, 1999). Svi ovi faktori utiču na kvalitet života i zadovoljstvo pojedinca (Keles, 2012).

²⁸ <https://epi.envirocenter.yale.edu/>

Klimatske promjene imaju najveći uticaj na mnoge manje razvijene zemlje, unutar kojih su najviše pogođeni pojedinci sa nepovoljnim finansijskim statusom.

Kvalitet životne sredine je ključni faktor dobrobiti ljudi, jer na kvalitet života u velikoj mjeri utiče zdravlje uslovljeno fizičkim okruženjem (Holman & Coan, 2008; Kahn, 2002). Ekstremni ekološki događaji kao što su prirodne katastrofe (zemljotresi, poplave, suše i vulkanske erupcije) i epidemije takođe mogu izazvati povećan nivo smrtnosti, povreda i bolesti.

Dugoročno gledano, drastične klimatske promjene u okruženju mogu da naruše zdravlje ljudi (Ahmad & Yamano, 2011).

Osim što utiče na zdravlje ljudi, okruženje je bitno jer ljudi pridaju veliku pažnju ljepoti i zdravlju mjesta u kojem žive i zbog toga što brinu zbog iscrpljivanja prirodnih resursa planete (Balestra & Dottori, 2011; Kahn & Matsusaka, 1997). Neupitna je i korist koju ljudi imaju direktno od ekoloških dobara, kao što su voda, čist vazduh, zemljište, šume i pristup zelenim površinama, jer im omogućavaju da zadovolje svoje osnovne ali i više potrebe (Balestra & Sultan, 2012).

5.7 Veličina naselja

Pitanje koje djelimično istražuje literatura tiče se odnosa urbanizacije i zadovoljstva životom (Morrison, 2014; Tomaney, 2015; Piper, 2015). Ova tema je posebno relevantna u slučaju tranzicijskih zemalja i zemalja u razvoju, a karakterišu je ogromne razlike u stopama ekonomskog rasta urbanih i ruralnih područja. Značaj geografskog položaja za pojedinačno zadovoljstvo životom jasno je demonstriran od strane mnogih naučnika (Oswald & Wu, 2010; Glaeser i sar., 2016; Morrison, 2011). Neka istraživanja su isticala niže nivoe sreće i zadovoljstva u gradovima u poređenju sa seoskim područjem (Knight & Gunatilaka, 2010; Hayo, 2007; Sørensen, 2014); druga su pak izvještavala o rastu blagostanja sa porastom veličine naselja (Appleton & Song, 2008; Reh-danz & Maddison, 2005; Rodr'iguez-Pose & Maslauskaite, 2012). Štaviše, neki autori ukazuju da nivo ekonomskog razvoja utiče na vezu iz-

među urbanizacije i zadovoljstva životom, a ruralna područja su u nepovoljnom položaju u odnosu na urbana, posebno u siromašnijim zemljama (Shucksmith et al., 2009; Easterlin i sar., 2011; Berry & Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2011; Requena, 2015).

U skorije vrijeme većina naučnika se više fokusirala na izučavanje odnosa između urbanizacije i zadovoljstva životom (Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2015). Rezultati istraživanja pokazuju nesklad između empirijskih nalaza i teorijskih očekivanja; dok su gradovi mjesta na kojima se odvija najintenzivniji procesi ekonomskog rasta (Glaeser i sar., 1991), urbanizacija je uglavnom povezana sa nižim nivoima zadovoljstva životom (Graham, 2012). Ovakvi rezultati su doveli do identifikacije urbane i ruralne podjele; život izvan grada vjerovatno će dovesti do većeg zadovoljstva životom od života u urbanim sredinama.

Istraživanja koja su se bavila analizom odnosa urbanizacije i zadovoljstva životom bila su usmjerena ka razumijevanju uticaja urbanog životnog okruženja na više ili niže nivoe sreće pojedinca. Najviše istraživanja pokazuje da je urbanizacija (ili život u gradovima) dovela do nižeg nivoa sreće i životnog zadovoljstva od života u seoskim, ruralnim predjelima (Hayo, 2007; Knight & Gunatilaka, 2010; Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2012; Sørensen, 2014). Naučnici su ovakav rezultat objasnili kao posljedicu uticaja ekonomije i porasta životnog standarda nastalog u gradskom okruženju. Međutim, dualizam između ruralnih i urbanih područja koji se temelji na pristupu većine ovih priloga previše je pojednostavljen iz najmanje dva razloga. Prvo, jer nisu svi gradovi jednaki, baš kao ni sela, a svaki od njih pruža vrlo različite vrste pogodnosti za stanovništvo.

5.8 *Kriminal*

Jedan od bitnih faktora koji utiču na kvalitet života jeste stopa kriminala. Kriminal je naziv kojim se opisuju sve djelatnosti kojima se krše političke i moralne norme nekog društva, pogotovo kada je riječ o normama iz kojih stoji zakonska sankcija države.²⁹

²⁹ Crime. Oxford English Dictionary Second Edition on CD-ROM. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 2009

Sigurnost društva zauzima važno mjesto kada je u pitanju kvalitet života, te strah od kriminala može imati direktni uticaj na blagostanje pojedinca u društvu. Podaci prikupljeni u 2010/11. godini u okviru ESS-a (European Social Survey) pokazuju da se zemlje razlikuju ne samo u mjeri u kojoj se njihovi građani boje kriminala već i u mjeri u kojoj taj strah vodi do smanjenja nivoa blagostanja. Na primjer, prema ovom istraživanju, u Grčkoj i Litvaniji dvije od pet osoba smatraju da na njihovo blagostanje utiče njihov strah od kriminala, dok je u Norveškoj taj odnos oko jedan prema deset.³⁰

Veliki uticaj na porast kriminala jeste nestabilno državno uređenje, neizgrađenost sistema vrijednosti u društvu, te nizak životni standard (Smailhodžić, 2018).

Prema podacima Eurostata iz 2013. godine, čak 46,4% stanovnika EU je izjavilo da se ne osjeća sigurno da noću šeta samo. Zanimljiv je podatak da skoro jednak broj ispitanika koji pripadaju i muškoj i ženskoj populaciji su na ovo pitanje odgovorili jednako, tj. da se ne osjećaju sigurno noću. Uprkos ovom visokom procentu, sa druge strane samo 25,3% stanovništva EU prijavljuje da je bilo izloženo niskom nivou fizičke nesigurnosti, dok je 14,5% tvrdilo da je bilo izloženo nasilju, kriminalu ili vandalizmu. Možemo zaključiti da je ovaj visok nivo nesigurnosti više subjektivni doživljaj okruženja.³¹

Kada je u pitanju iskustvo viktimizacije, Hanslmaier (2013) ukazuje na značajan uticaj viktimizacije na zadovoljstvo životom. Staubli, Killias i Frei (2014) ispituju uticaj različitih vrsta viktimizacije na zadovoljstvo životom i zaključuju da postoji „negativna povezanost između zadovoljstva životom i kriminala nad imovinom kao što su provale, prevare potrošača kao i zločini protiv osoba poput napada, prijetnje, pljačke ili seksualnih uticaja” (Møller, 2005; Powdthavee, 2005). Prema Hanslmaieru (2013) viktimizacija bi mogla uticati na sreću upravo kroz strah od zločina. Ipak, njegovi podaci pokazuju direktan

³⁰ https://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/docs/findings/ESS1_5_select_findings_ba.pdf

³¹ https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Archive:Quality_of_life_in_Europe_-_facts_and_views_-_economic_and_physical_safety&oldid=400085

uticaj i viktimizacije i straha od kriminala na zadovoljstvo životom. Adams i Serpe (2000) su zauzvrat otkrili da strah od zločina indirektno utiče na zadovoljstvo životom smanjujući ljudski nadzor nad njihovim životima.³²

Po istraživanjima koje je sproveda *Inter-American Development banka* (Di Tella, MacCulloch, Ñopo, 2008) došlo se do saznanja da na dobrobit stanovnika u Latinskoj Americi, ali i ostatku svijeta, negativno utiče kriminal, a utiče i na njihovu percepciju korupcije. Pored toga, korupcija u vladi negativno utiče na stavove o ekonomskoj mobilnosti i korupciji u privatnom poslovanju. Na kraju se izvodi zaključak da kriminal, prijetnje, krađa novca, pljačkanje, te prisutnost dilera droge u komšiluku/okruženju povećavaju vjerovatnoću da će pojedinac osjetiti bijes, fizičku bol, brigu, tugu, dosadu i depresiju.

Drugo istraživanje (Krulichová, 2018) je potvrdilo rezultate prethodnog istraživanja. Potvrđena je povezanost između pokazatelja subjektivnog blagostanja i straha od kriminala koja je dala statistički značajne rezultate. Ispitanici koji se plaše kriminala manje su zadovoljni i srećni od onih čiji je strah od kriminala relativno nizak.

5.9 Narkomanija i alkoholizam

Visok nivo zadovoljstva životom povezan je s pozitivnim ishodima u intrapersonalnom, međuljudskom, strukovnom, zdravstvenom i obrazovnom okruženju, dok niski nivo zadovoljstva životom na sličan način predviđa niz negativnih ishoda, uključujući različita ponašanja visokog rizika (npr. korištenje droga i alkohola i agresivno/nasilno ponašanje), psihopatološki simptomi (depresija, anksioznost, nisko samopoštovanje, niska samoeфикаsnost, usamljenost) i indeksi tjelesnog zdravlja (npr. gojaznost) (Ye i sar., 2014).

Neke od zavisnosti kao što su narkomanija i/ili alkoholizam predstavljaju psihički poremećaj jer dolazi do patoloških procesa koji mijenjaju način na koji mozak funkcioniše (Brlas i Gorjanac, 2015). Svjet-

³² https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324607062_Life_satisfaction_and_happiness_discussing_the_impact_of_fear_of_crime_and_victimization

ska zdravstvena organizacija³³ definisala je narkomaniju kao: stanje periodične ili hronične intoksikacije izazvane ponavljanim unošenjem droge. Kada je u pitanju alkoholizam, definicija Svjetske zdravstvene organizacije glasi: „Alkoholičar je osoba koja je dugotrajnim pijenjem postala zavisna o alkoholu (psihički, fizički ili na oba načina) i u njoj su se usljed toga razvila zdravstvena (psihička ili fizička) oštećenja i socijalne poteškoće pristupačne klasičnim medicinskim i socijalnim dijagnostičkim postupcima. Spomenuti simptomi moraju biti utvrđeni, a ne smiju se samo pretpostavljati i na temelju anamnestičkih podataka o prekomjernom pijenju zaključivati da bolesnik boluje od alkoholizma.”

Problemi sa zavisnošću od određenih supstanci nemaju štetne posljedice samo po pojedinca koji je konzument, već imaju negativan uticaj i na okruženje tog pojedinca. Prema istraživanju Medicinskog fakulteta u Osijeku 80% ispitanika članova porodica zavisnika svoj stav prema kvalitetu života su ocijenili kao ni dobar ni loš (Tutić, 2016).

Generalno gledano, što više hroničnih oboljenja određena osoba ima, povećava se i rizik od funkcionalnog oštećenja svih dimenzija koje su povezane sa kvalitetom života (Thommasen & Zhang, 2006). Istraživanja su pokazala da su zavisnici od alkohola i droga manje zadovoljni kvalitetom života od ispitanika koji ne konzumiraju opijate (Smith & Larson, 2003). Ipak, zloupotreba droga u većoj mjeri narušava životnu funkcionalnost pojedinca od zloupotrebe alkohola (Smith and Larson, 2003). Istraživanja pokazuju da se nakon perioda rehabilitacije kod ispitanika povećalo zadovoljstvo životom (Laudet and Stanick, 2010). Velikom broju pacijenata koji su pristali na rehabilitaciju se poboljšao kvalitet života. Naime, 58% pacijenata je doživjelo pozitivnu promjenu u pogledu kvaliteta života prema istraživanju (Pasareanu, Vederhus, Opsal, Kristensen & Clausen, 2015). Istraživanje u Hrvatskoj (Beč, 2013) sprovedeno među različitim kategorijama zavisnika pokazalo je da 35,29% ispitanika nije zadovoljno svojim životom u posljednjih godinu dana, 23,53% je zadovoljno, dok je onih koji niti su zadovoljni niti nezadovoljni ima 41,18%. Skoro polovina zavisnika (47.06%) nije bila zadovoljna svojim životom u trenutku ispitivanja.

³³ <http://www.batut.org.rs/download/MKB102010Knjiga1.pdf>

5.10 Slobodno vrijeme

Studije o korištenju vremena prikupljaju od ljudi informacije o tome kako se koriste svojim vremenom. Načini prikupljanja variraju, kao i oznake grupa. Ipak, suštinske razlike za razdvajanje grupa do sada su standardne (Goodin i sar., 2005; Bonke & Jensen, 2012). Prva grupa je „vrijeme provedeno na plaćenom radu”. Druga grupa je „vrijeme provedeno u neplaćenom radu u domaćinstvu” – kuhanje, čišćenje, čuvanje djece i fizička briga o djeci, kupovina itd. Treća grupa je „vrijeme provedeno u ličnoj njezi” – jedenje, spavanje, njegovanje itd. Ove grupe su sada potpuno konvencionalne u studijama korištenja vremena, a mi ih jednostavno uzimamo kao date činjenice. Vrijeme provedeno u te tri skupine – plaćeno radno vrijeme, neplaćeno radno vrijeme u domaćinstvu i vrijeme lične njege – zajedno čine vrijeme koje je posvećeno onim, moglo bi se nazvati, „obaveznim” aktivnostima. Ostatak vremena se konvencionalno naziva „slobodno vrijeme”. Ovo „slobodno vrijeme” jednostavno je „preostalo vrijeme” nakon izvedenih aktivnosti u ostale tri grupe (Goodin i sar., 2005).

Za razliku od vremena potrebnog za fiziološke potrebe ili radnog vremena, količina i priroda slobodnog vremena nisu unaprijed određene i mogu se razlikovati zavisno o karakteristikama i sklonostima pojedinca. Posebno, budući da se svakodnevni život starijih, odraslih osoba sastoji uglavnom od slobodnog vremena, osim vremena potrebnog za fiziološke potrebe, njihov kvalitet života može se znatno razlikovati u zavisnosti od načina na koji se koriste svojim slobodnim vremenom (Lee J i sar., 2012). Pored toga što imaju mnogo više slobodnog vremena kojim je potrebno upravljati, načini na koje starije odrasle osobe raspolazu svojim slobodnim vremenom bitno se razlikuju od onih mladih koji svoje slobodno vrijeme koriste za „punjenje baterija” i oporavak od fizičkog i mentalnog umora (Kwon & Cho, 2000).

Za starije odrasle osobe učestvovanje u slobodnim aktivnostima može pomoći u rješavanju usamljenosti koja proizlazi iz gubitka uloga i može doprinijeti većem zadovoljstvu životom i sreći, pružajući im šanse za poboljšanje njihovog samopoštovanja i samoostvarenja. Vri-

jednosti životnog zadovoljstva odražavaju subjektivni nivo zadovoljstva pojedinca u postizanju ciljeva i očekivanja iskusnih u svakodnevnom životu (Lee & Hong, 2011). Slobodne aktivnosti su od presudne važnosti, jer su usko povezane sa životnim zadovoljstvom i kvalitetom života kako starijih, tako i mladih osoba u savremenom dobu (Lee & Yeong, 2012). Kako se period proveden u starosti povećava, sve je veća zabrinutost zbog strategija za uspješnu starost i poboljšanja kvaliteta života za starije odrasle osobe (Dupuis & Alzheimer, 2008). Brojne studije vezane za zadovoljstvo životom za starije odrasle osobe izvijestile su da učestvovanje u slobodnim aktivnostima doprinosi održavanju i poboljšanju njihovog fizičkog zdravlja, kao i psihološkog i mentalnog zdravlja i pomaže u održavanju i povećanju kvaliteta života pružajući im dobre mogućnosti za pozitivnu interakciju sa porodicom i sa drugima u društvu (Chiang i sar., 2011).

5.11 Pripadnost grupama

Istraživači i naučnici iz brojnih disciplina (psihologija, sociologija i antropologija) u velikoj mjeri prihvataju teoriju kako je članstvo u društvenim grupama izuzetno važan element u afirmisanju i održavanju lične dobrobiti i zadovoljstva životom (Tuomela, 2007). Ljudi se rađaju u grupama (npr. pleme, porodica, zajednica) i obično provode svoj život kao članovi ogromnog i dinamičnog niza različitih kolektiva (npr. radne grupe, sportske grupe, vjerske grupe, hobi-grupe, itd.). Razni autori sugerisali su da je članstvo u grupi sastavni dio ljudskog stanja i da nedostatak takvih članova može imati vrlo štetne posljedice na mentalno i fizičko zdravlje ljudi (Putnam, 2000; Jetten i sar., 2012).

Veliki dio ranih istraživanja u ovom domenu je izučavao odnos između blagostanja i društvene integracije učesnika: broja društvenih grupa ili veza koje posjeduju, ili količine angažovanosti s tim grupama/ vezama (Brisette i sar., 2000). Kroz brojne studije, istraživači su pokazali da pojedinci koji su više društveno integrisani imaju sretniji, zdraviji i duži život (Berkman & Syme, 1979; Cohen i sar., 1997; Glass i

sar., 2006; Wilson i sar., 2007). Zagovornici ovoga tvrde da društvena integracija afirmiše dobrobit pružajući pojedincima osjećaj smisla, svrhe i sigurnosti, kao i izvor društvene podrške u vrijeme stresa ili krize (Cohen, 2004).

Iako su ovo jako važni zaključci, koncept društvene integracije nije bez svojih ograničenja. Možda je najvažnije usmjeriti se na ideju da je visoki nivo društvenog kontakta (npr. često susretanje sa članovima društvenih grupa ili redovno učestvovanje u grupnim aktivnostima) ključan za dobrobit pojedinca. Ovaj kvantitativni fokus na količinu kontakta znači da je lako zanemariti važnu činjenicu o članstvu u grupi koje takođe ima kvalitativnu dimenziju. Na primjer, ponekad možemo razmisliti o tome kako je biti pripadnik određene grupe: da li je grupa bitna za mene i za moj život? Da li uživam provoditi vrijeme sa drugim članovima grupe? Osjećam li se kao dio ove grupe? Razmišljanje o pitanjima poput ovih omogućava nam da procijenimo opseg naše identifikacije u grupi (Tajfel & Turner, 1986): naš osjećaj pripadnosti grupi, zajedno s našim osjećajem zajedništva s članovima (Sani i sar., 2015). Članstvo u grupi i identifikacija u grupi nisu sinonimi: sasvim je moguće biti član grupe (i, osim toga, imati visok nivo kontakta s tom grupom i njenim članovima), ali osjećati vrlo malo smisla za stvarnu identifikaciju u grupi (Haslam i sar., 2015).

5.12 Religija

Prema rezultatima mnogih dosadašnjih studija teško je donijeti jasan zaključak o uticaju religije i duhovnosti na zadovoljstvo ljudi životom. Sanau je još 1969. utvrdio da ne postoje pouzdani dokazi da religioznost unapređuje mentalno zdravlje. Dodaćemo tu i analizu Batsona i sar. (1993) koji su analizirali 47 studija o povezanosti religioznosti i mentalnog zdravlja i kod 37 našli negativnu, ali nisku, korelaciju. Ellis je 1980. godine našao vezu između religioznosti i emocionalne uznemirenosti. S druge strane, neka istraživanja pokazuju da su duhovnost i religioznost pozitivni prediktori subjektivnog blagostanja (Kim-Pri-

eto & Miller, 2018). Što se tiče kognitivne dimenzije subjektivnog blagostanja, mnoštvo studija je utvrdilo pozitivan odnos između duhovnosti, kao i religioznosti i zadovoljstva životom (Yoon & Lee, 2004). Da bi se objasnila ta otkrića, sugerisano je da ljudi koji imaju veću povezanost sa (i usmjeravanje od) višom silom, odnosno ljudi koji pokazuju visoku vjersku i duhovnu uključenost, imaju tendenciju da daju pozitivniju ocjenu svog života (Vishkin i sar., 2016; Ramsay i sar., 2019). Osjećaj da ste u vezi s višom snagom, s drugima, i uopšte sa životom, predstavlja efikasan način održavanja pozitivne procjene nečijeg života, uprkos svim mogućim negativnim okolnostima s kojima se neko može susresti. Uz to, vjerska i duhovna uključenost mogu imati koristi za život pojedinaca kroz osnaživanje i unutrašnjih (npr. osjećaja vlastite vrijednosti) i društvenih (npr. osjećaj pripadnosti) resursa (Lim & Putnam, 2010).

Držanje čvrstih uvjerenja, bilo da se odnosi na postojanje ili nepostojanje Boga, može i samo po sebi imati spasonosni učinak i poboljšati blagostanje pojedinca smanjujući kognitivnu disonancu. U nedostatku subjektivne izvjesnosti, ljudi bi mogli doživjeti stanje psihološke napetosti koju su motivisani redukovati (Kahneman i sar., 1982; Kitchens i Phillips, 2018).

Da bismo bolje razumjeli ulogu religioznosti u subjektivnom blagostanju, važno je uzeti u obzir i kako je religioznost zamišljena unutar specifične pozadinske kulture. Na primjer, Graham i Crown (2014) koristili su skup podataka velikih razmjera koji uključuje oko 160 nacija i pronašli su sveukupni pozitivni odnos između religioznosti i zadovoljstva životom koji je kultura moderirala. Konkretno, u kulturama sa visokim stepenom religioznosti, ona je imala veći uticaj na zadovoljstvo životom u odnosu na kulture sa niskim nivoom religioznosti. Isti rezultat pronašli su Stavrova, Fetchenhauer i Schlosser (2013): upotrebom podataka o evropskim i svjetskim istraživanjima vrijednosti, autori su otkrili da je prediktivna snaga religioznosti o zadovoljstvu životom bila veća u visoko religioznim kulturama, dok je odnos bio negativan u kulturama koje su cijenile ateizam.

5.13 Pol

Kada se govori o odnosu pola i zadovoljstva životom treba biti oprezan, tj. moramo imati u vidu da se položaj muškaraca i žena kod nas, ali i u zemljama regiona razlikuje s obzirom na biološke, psihološke i sociodemografske razlike. Uzećemo za primjer BiH³⁴ u kojoj prema popisu iz 2013. godine živi 49,1% muškaraca i 50,9% žena. Žene u BiH žive u prosjeku 5 godina duže u odnosu na muškrace i muškaraci više umiru nasilnom smrću nego žene. Žene u većem procentu od muškaraca svoje zdravlje opisuju kao prosječno, loše ili veoma loše. Muškraci su obrazovaniji od žena, iako na fakultetima u BiH imamo više studentkinja od studenata. Žene napuštaju školovanje češće nego muškraci. Interesantno je da među ženama nalazimo više onih koji magistriraju, za razliku od doktorskih studija koje više završavaju muškarci. U osnovnim i srednjim školama nalazimo više žena nastavnika i profesora, dok u visokom obrazovanju dominiraju muškarci. Stopa zaposlenosti je veća kod muškaraca, nego kod žena. Kada se govori o zakonodavnoj i izvršnoj vlasti – tu muškraci dominiraju.

Takođe, moramo imati u vidu da su žene u BiH u većem procentu žrtve nasilja nego muškraci. Prema podacima institucija Federacije BiH i Republike Srpske, žene znatno više pozivaju SOS telefon za osobe žrtve nasilja, dok je u Sigurnim kućama najveći broj korisnika – ženskog pola.

Istraživanje Helsinškog parlamenta građana iz Banjaluke o rodno zasnovanoj diskriminaciji na radu u BiH pokazuje da su žene češće isložene diskriminaciji prilikom konkurisanja na posao. Takođe, žene su manje zastupljene na rukovodećim položajima u javnim ustanovama BiH i entiteta. U 2017. godini na rukovodećim pozicijama bilo je 39% žena i 60,9% muškaraca³⁵. Ovo istraživanje pokazuje da se u okviru stanovništva koje radi za platu ili dnevnicu u dobi od 15 do 64 godine rodne razlike u satnici procjenjuju na 9% prosječne satnice muških radnika (3,9 KM za muškarce i 3,5 KM za žene).

³⁴ http://bhas.gov.ba/data/Publikacije/Bilteni/2020/FAM_00_2019_TB_0_BS.pdf

³⁵ <https://hcabl.org/istrazivanje-rodno-zasnovana-diskriminacija-na-radu-u-bosni-i-hercegovini/>

Međunarodna istraživanja pokazuju da su žene sklonije depresiji i anksioznosti, što svakako može uticati na percepciju zadovoljstva životom. Epidemiološki podatak da je depresija dvostruko češća kod osoba ženskog pola je konzistentan (Bromet, Andrade, Hwang i sar., 2011), što je posebno izraženo između 18. i 64. godine života (Waraich, Goldner, Somers i Hsu). Istraživanje Jacobi i saradnika je pokazalo da je životna prevalencija depresije oko 23,3% kod žena u odnosu na 11,1% kod muškaraca, dok je godišnja prevalencija iznosila 7,5% kod muškarca i 14,0% kod žena (Jacobi, Wittchen, Holting, Hofler i sar., 2004). Međutim, ima istraživanja koja ukazuju da se ovaj odnos smanjuje, što se pripisuje relativnom smanjenju prevalencije depresije kod žena zbog boljih mogućnosti za školovanje, zaposlenje, kontrolu rađanja i drugih faktora koji utiču na polne jednakosti (Seedat, Scott, Angermeyer, Berglund, Bromet, Brugha i sar.). Kada govorimo o anksioznim poremećajima, oni su prisutni kod trećine žena i petine muškaraca (McLean, Asnaani, Litz i Hofmann, 2011).

Imajući u vidu sve gore navedeno, bilo bi očekivano da postoji razlika između muškaraca i žena kada se govori o zadovoljstvu životom (Okun, Stock i Haring, 1984), mada istraživanja u svijetu pokazuju da te razlike nisu velike, a tamo gdje se pojavljuju – one se odnose na afektivnu komponentu (Lucas i Gohm, 2000).

5.14 Starost

Istraživanja u svijetu koja se bave uticajem godina (starosti) i subjektivnog blagostanja daju različite rezultate koji nas navode na kontradiktorne zaključke. S jedne strane imamo istraživanja koja su u skladu sa Teorijom stabilnog nivoa, tj. pokazuju da je nivo sreće pojedinca skoro pa nepromjenjiv u različitim životnim dobima (Costa i sar., 1987; Diener i Suh, 1998; Myers, 2000). Druga istraživanja (Blanchflower i Oswald, 2008, Di Tella, MacCulloch i Oswald, 2003) pokazuju da subjektivno blagostanje raste negdje do 30-ih godina, pa opada do 50. godine, a nakon toga polako raste. Neka istraživanja pokazuju da subjek-

tivno zadovoljstvo životom raste do određenog perioda, a onda opada (Easterlin, 2006).

Dobijanje rezultata koji nisu konzistentni natjeralo je naučnike da promišljaju zašto je to tako. Istraživanja koja pokazuju da je subjektivna sreća konstantna i trajna vrijednost su najčešće korelacionog tipa, što je moglo da utiče na dobijanje ovakvih rezultata, a neka longitudinalna istraživanja su dovela u pitanje stabilnost subjektivnog blagostanja. Istraživanjima koja su dobila U-krivu sreće zamjera se kontrola socijalno-demografskih faktora i mogućnost da je ona u stvari rezultat statističkih procedura koje se primjenjuju. Takođe se pokazalo da longitudinalna istraživanja ne daju ovakve rezultate. Neka istraživanja su pokazala da se U-distribucija lične sreće dobija samo u zemljama koje su ekonomski razvijene i politički stabilne (Deaton, 2008).

Sasvim je jasno da je odnos između starosti i lične sreće izuzetno složen i da će i dalje biti predmet istraživanja naučnika u svijetu.

5.15 Obrazovanje

Standardna ekonomska teorija uglavnom pretpostavlja da individualno životno zadovoljstvo zavisi od apsolutnih nivoa prihoda i potrošnje. U ekonomskoj literaturi uopšteno je priznata teorija kako je obrazovanje oblik dobrobiti koji je često shvaćen kao ekvilibrijum između investicije i dobitka za potrošnju, ili, kako je u našem narodu često rečeno, „Kako posiješ, tako ćeš i požnjeti”. Dakle, ulaganje u obrazovanje jeste investicija, ali ona koja se isplati, koja je za ličnu dobit.

Ali da li je to zapravo tako?

Pristupi na kojima se temelji ljudski kapital objašnjavaju obrazovanje kao porast sposobnosti, a samim tim i porast produktivnosti pojedinca (Schultz, 1960; Becker, 1964). Kao rezultat obrazovnog usavršavanja i porasta produktivnosti, u društvu je prisutno vjerovanje da je neminovan i porast prihoda, kao i veće životne mogućnosti ili veća ostvarenja na tržištu rada. Uspjeh na tržištu rada tada će zavisiti ne

samo od postignutog nivoa obrazovanja, već i od toga koliko i kako će se taj nivo upoređivati s uspjehom drugih pojedinaca. U oba slučaja, mogući prihodi ili krajnji rezultat obrazovanja jesu ono što motiviše pojedinca da ulaže u obrazovanje kao način za povećanje kvaliteta i dobrobiti života, nezavisno od toga je li to obrazovanje zaista proizvodno sredstvo ili signalni mehanizam.

Sa druge strane, obrazovanje se može posmatrati i kao potrošnja koja doprinosi ličnom zadovoljstvu pojedinca. Mnogi naučnici posmatraju obrazovanje kao izvor lične satisfakcije ili zadovoljstva koje ispunjava one unutrašnje vrijednosti. U ovom slučaju, obrazovanje bi bila aktivnost koja i dalje zahtijeva napor i ulaganje, ali napor i ulaganje koji nisu kompenzovani bilo kakvim finansijskim uživanjem; kompenzacija bi bila u obliku povećanja osjećaja veće vrijednosti, a proces obrazovanja ne bi uvijek bio shvaćen kao investicijski trošak.

Dakle, obrazovanje se može smatrati djelimičnim pozicijskim dobrom čija vrijednost zavisi od apsolutnog i relevantnog nivoa potrošnje. Kao što se događa i sa ostalim proizvodima za potrošnju, obrazovanje može biti podložno poziciji. Pojedinci mogu vidjeti obrazovanje kao način da steknu socijalni status, pod uslovom da je njihov nivo obrazovanja viši od nivoa ostalih; obrazovanje bi se tada smatralo instrumentom vjerodostojnosti statusa (Collins, 1979). Na sličan način kao što bi obrazovanje moglo biti signalni mehanizam za povećanje prihoda, takođe može poslužiti kao zaslon za filtriranje pojedinaca u izazovnim i privilegovanim zanimanjima (Duncan, 1976; Ranson, 1993).

Budući da obrazovanje doprinosi i većoj vjerovatnoći zaposlenja i uživanju povećane zarade, to su indirektni kanali kroz koje obrazovanje može doprinijeti individualnom zadovoljstvu. Isto se događa i sa zdravljem, za koje se čini da je uslovljeno nivoom obrazovanja pojedinaca i koje pozitivno utiče na subjektivno blagostanje (Leigh, 1983). Mnoga istraživanja koja su izučavala doprinos obrazovanja životnom zadovoljstvu i opštem blagostanju pokazala su da obrazovanje izaziva značajan porast zadovoljstva životom, nezavisno od njegovog uticaja na prihod.

5.16 Bračni status

Tokom posljednjih nekoliko decenija, veliko empirijsko istraživanje fokusiralo se i na odnos između bračnog statusa i subjektivnog blagostanja i zadovoljstva životom uopšteno. Različiti modeli braka predstavljaju različite implikacije na učestvovanje žena i muškaraca na tržištu rada, na nejednakost prihoda, kao i na rast stanovništva (Becker 1973; Stack i Eshleman 1998). Na primjer, žene u braku imaju manju vjerovatnoću ulaska na radno tržište zbog odgajanja djece, dok prisustvo (odsustvo) djece takođe pozitivno (negativno) utiče na rast populacije. Pored toga, ljudi koji stupaju u brak uglavnom žive duže i manje je vjerovatno da će se upustiti u zloupotrebu alkohola, rizično ponašanje i suicidalno ponašanje (Coombs, 1991).

Jedno je sigurno; rezultati korelacije odnosa bračnog statusa i zadovoljstva životom sugerišu da su osobe u braku u prosjeku sretnije i zadovoljnije svojim životom (Stack i Eshleman, 1998). Kako god, dobrobit od braka nije ograničena samo na subjektivno blagostanje. Neki naučnici koji su se bavili izučavanjem ove teme nabrojali su i druge aspekte u kojima su se osobe u bračnim zajednicama osjećale bolje od drugih, uključujući manju učestalost mentalnih bolesti, bolje fizičko zdravlje i niži rizik od institucionalizacije (Gove i sar. 1990). Činjenica da brak može osigurati povećanje životnog zadovoljstva u odnosu na druge vrste odnosa nije iznenađujuća, s obzirom na to da brak pruža nekoliko prednosti i poticaja, kao što su manja smrtnost partnera, dijeljenje zajedničkih dobara za domaćinstvo i mogućnost kombinovanog nakupljanja imovine i bogatstva (Waite, 1995). Neki naučnici tvrde da je brak povezan s dobrobiti pojedinca jer brak daje dodatni izvor samopoštovanja (Stutzer i Frey, 2006). Takođe je veća vjerovatnoća da će ljudi u bračnim zajednicama biti manje usamljeni, što potvrđuje teoriju da život u zajednici može osigurati povećanje životnog zadovoljstva (Stutzer i Frey 2006).

Teoretski, ovaj empirijski pozitivni odnos između braka i subjektivnog blagostanja pripisuje se ili društvenom odabiru ili društvenoj uzročnosti. Društvena selekcija sugerije da će zadovoljniji pojedinci vjerovatnije stupiti (i ostati) u braku od manje zadovoljnih ljudi, jer

prvi mogu imati privlačnije ličnosti. Društvena uzročnost predlaže da brak čini ljude zadovoljnijima zbog zaštitnih emocionalnih i relacijskih faktora koji se obično dovode u vezu sa brakom (Gove i sar. 1990). Pored toga, osobe u bračnim zajednicama su uglavnom zdravije (Waite 1995; Stack i Eshleman 1998; Zimmermann i Easterlin 2006) i ostvaruju znatno veće prihode u odnosu na ljude iz ostalih grupa bračnog statusa (Rindfuss i Van den Heuvel 1990; Schoeni 1995; Zimmermann i Easterlin 2006).

6. Predmet istraživanja

Potpuno očekivano, kao i svim ostalim pitanjima, pitanjem ljudske sreće su se prvo počeli bavili filozofi: Sokrat, Platon, Aristotel, preko Kanta, Dekarta, Hegela, Ničea do Sartra (Mekman, 2007), da bi se time, sredinom 20. vijeka, počeli baviti i ekonomisti i psiholozi. Oni se nisu bavili samo promišljanjem, već su počeli da rade analize i istraživanja o povezanosti sreće pojedinca sa drugim faktorima. Danas zadovoljstvo životom istražuju, osim gore pomenutih oblasti, i mnoge druge naučne oblasti.

Šezdesetih godina 20. vijeka pojavljuje se novi pravac u psihologiji nazvan humanistička psihologija, a njeni promoteri su bili Karl Rodžers i Abraham Maslov. Oni su svoja interesovanja usmjerili prvenstveno na ljudski rast, razvoj i pozitivne potencijale čovjeka, što je kasnije uticalo na mnoge psihologe, koji su se do tada bavili samo negativnim aspektima ljudske psihe. Početkom 21. vijeka, pod uticajem američkog psihologa Martina Seligmana, razvija se pokret pozitivne psihologije koji počinje da istražuje faktore i uslove koji dovode do sreće pojedinca i njegovog građanskog angažmana.

Krajem šezdesetih i početkom sedamdesetih američki ekonomista Richard Easterlin je ramišljao o uticaju različitih faktora na sreću pojedinca. On je pokazao da ne postoji veza između stepena ekonomskog rasta i ukupnog nivoa sreće. To je nazvano Easterlinovim paradoksom, koji nam govori da se „vrijednost prihoda ne ogleda samo u različitim dobrima i uslugama koje će ljudi moći kupiti (apsolutni prihodi),

već i u njihovoj poziciji i ugledu u društvu (relativni prihodi). Nadalje, jednom kad ljudi dosegnu određenu razinu prihoda, apsolutno povećanje prihoda samo za sebe neće doprinijeti većem subjektivnom blagostanju. S druge strane, relativno povećanje prihoda koje se očituje u usporedbi s drugima, imat će pozitivnog utjecaja na subjektivno blagostanje” (Frajman- Ivković, 2012).

Danas je briga o sreći ljudi sveprisutna, imamo internacionalna istraživanja blagostanja i rang-liste sretnih naroda³⁶, o sreći se raspravlja u Davosu i TED³⁷ konferencijama. Postoje gradovi koji prate zadovoljstvo životom svojih stanovnika (Dejvis, 2017). Preplavljeni smo knjigama iz pozitivne psihologije, na mobilnim telefonima imamo aplikacije koje nam mjere sreću³⁸, a životni treneri nam prodaju svoja uputstva za sreću.

Ta potraga za srećom je u poslednjih nekoliko godina veoma prisutna u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije, a ogleda se u velikom odlasku radno sposobnog stanovništva i važno je da u tom kontekstu razmatramo fenomen zadovoljstva životom, kako ljudi koji su ostali na ovim prostorima – tako i onih koji su napustili zemlju.

Zbog toga smatramo da je važno da vidimo koliko su naši ljudi danas zadovoljni svojim životom generalno i njegovim pojedinim segmentima i kakav uticaj na to zadovoljstvo imaju neki objektivni i subjektivni faktori.

7. Ciljevi istraživanja

U okviru ovog istraživanja želimo naći odgovore na sljedeća pitanja:

- ❖ Koliko su građani iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije, kao i oni koji žive izvan njih, zadovoljni životom i pojedinim aspektima života?

³⁶ https://worlddatabaseofhappiness.eur.nl/hap_nat/nat_fp.php?mode=8

³⁷ https://www.ted.com/talks/matthieu_ricard_the_habits_of_happiness?language=sr

³⁸ <https://dnevnik.hr/vijesti/zanimljivosti/moze-li-se-sreca-izmjeriti-3-aplikacije-koje-ce-vam-pomoci-izmjeriti-koliko-ste-sretni---559081.html>

- ❖ Koliko su zadovoljni poslom koji obavljaju i kako je to povezano sa životnim zadovoljstvom?
- ❖ Koliko vremena provode na poslu i kolika su im primanja i kako je to povezano sa zadovoljstvom životom?
- ❖ Da li rade posao za koji su se školovali i kako procjenjuju mogućnost napredovanja na poslu i povezanost tih faktora sa zadovoljstvom životom?
- ❖ Kolika su ukupna mjesečna primanja svih članova porodice i kako je to povezano sa zadovoljstvom životom?
- ❖ Koliki su im mjesečni rashodi i kako su ti rashodi povezani sa zadovoljstvom životom?
- ❖ Da li i koliko mjesečno odvajaju da bi pomogli porodici ili rodbini i koliko su ta izdvajanja povezana sa zadovoljstvom životom?
- ❖ Da li bračno stanje utiče na zadovoljstvo životom?
- ❖ Da li veličina porodice i broj djece utiču na zadovoljstvo životom?
- ❖ Da li članstvo u organizacijama utiče na zadovoljstvo životom?
- ❖ Kako provode slobodno vrijeme i koliko je to povezano sa zadovoljstvom životom?
- ❖ Koliko konzumiraju štetne supstance i koliko je to povezano sa zadovoljstvom životom?
- ❖ Koliko su zadovoljni društvom u kojem žive?
- ❖ Koliki su vjernici i u kojoj mjeri je to povezano sa zadovoljstvom životom?
- ❖ Povezanost nekih sociodemografskih varijabli (starost, obrazovanje, veličina mjesta u kojem žive i pol) sa zadovoljstvom životom?

8. Metod istraživanja

Istraživanje je sprovedeno od 4. 6. 2019. do 6. 7. 2019. godine na uzorku od 4971 punoljetne osobe koje su samostalno i dobrovoljno popu-

njavale upitnik postavljen na Google platformi. Veza za anketu (link) je postavljena na društvene mreže (Facebook i Twitter) i svako ko je poznao srpski/hrvatski jezik mogao je da je popuni i podijeli na svojoj facebook stranicu ili da je pošalje prijateljima i poznanicima.

Za potrebe našeg istraživanja kreirali smo četiri kategorije ispitanika i prvu grupu čine stanovnici BiH, drugu ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (Hrvatska i Slovenija), treću ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (Srbija, Crna Gora, Makedonija) i četvrtu ispitanici koji se nalaze u nekoj od zemalja koje nisu bile u sastavu bivše Jugoslavije.

9. Upitnik

Upitnik je sastavljen od više dijelova:

Prvi dio čine podaci o ispitanicima, tj. njihove sociodemografske karakteristike:

- ❖ Pol ispitanika;
- ❖ Starost;
- ❖ Obrazovanje;
- ❖ Veličina naselja u kojem ispitanici žive;
- ❖ Bračno stanje;
- ❖ Radni status i zanimanje;
- ❖ Veličina domaćinstva i broj djece;
- ❖ Ukupna mjesečna primanja porodice i njihova raspodjela;
- ❖ Redovnost primanja;
- ❖ Etnička pripadnost;
- ❖ Država u kojoj trenutno žive.

Drugi dio se sastoji od pitanja koja se bave:

- ❖ Vrstom posla koji se obavlja, napredovanjem na poslu i sedmičnim radnim vremenom;
- ❖ Članstvom u organizacijama;
- ❖ Načinom provođenja slobodnog vremena;
- ❖ Zadovoljstvom stanjem u društvu;

- ❖ Promjenom mjesta stanovanja;
- ❖ Novčanim pomaganjem članovima porodice ili familije;
- ❖ Korištenjem nedozvoljenih sredstava (alkohol, cigarete, lijekovi za smirenje, marihuana).

Treći dio upitnika čine dvije skale:

Zadovoljstvo poslom smo mjerili skalom autora Cooper, Sloan i Williams (1987) koja se sastoji od 22 stavke na koje su ispitanici mogli da daju odgovore na skali od 1 (u potpunosti sam nezadovoljan/na) do 6 (u potpunosti sam zadovoljan/na). U okviru skale smo mjerili mogućnost za napredovanje sistemom nagrađivanja i visinom plate, klimom organizacije, sigurnošću posla, nivoom odgovornosti, mogućnošću za samoostvarenje i ispunjenje svojih poslovnih ambicija. Što je skor na skali zadovoljstva poslom veći, to znači da je ispitanik zadovoljniji poslom generalno ili u pojedinim aspektima posla.

Zadovoljstvo životom je mjereno Indeksom ličnog blagostanja (PWI-A, 2001) koji se sastoji od 8 stavki na koje su ispitanici mogli da daju odgovore na skali od 0 (nimalo zadovoljan) do 10 (potpuno zadovoljan). Prvom stavkom se mjeri generalno zadovoljstvo životom, dok ostalih sedam stavki mjere zadovoljstvo životom na pojedinim aspektima života (životni standard, zdravlje, postignuće u životu, odnos sa drugim ljudima, osjećanje sigurnosti, pripadnost lokalnoj zajednici, osjećanje bezbjednosti).

Što je skor na skali zadovoljstva životom veći, to znači da je ispitanik zadovoljniji životom generalno ili u pojedinim aspektima života.

10. Pouzdanost skale

Imamo li u vidu da su u istraživanju učestvovali punoljetni građani Bosne i Hercegovine, pouzdanost je zadovoljavajuća, pogotovo zadovoljstvo poslom sa alfa koeficijentom 0,98 i generalno zadovoljstvo životom 0,90.

11. Uzorak

U okviru ovog poglavlja prikazaćemo strukturu uzorka sa sve ispitanike, tabelarno, dok ćemo kod pojedine geografske kategorije uzorak dati opisno. Smatramo da je važno ovako detaljno prikazati uzorak zbog dalje analize dobijenih podataka.

Tabela 1. *Pol ispitanika*

	N	%
Muškarci	2051	41,3
Žene	2900	58,3
Odbija	20	,4
Total	4971	100,0

U okviru našeg uzorka nalazimo 58,3% žena i 41,3% muškaraca, dok 0,4% ispitanika nije dalo odgovor na ovo pitanje.

Tabela 2. *Godine (starost) ispitanika*

	N	%
Do 31 godinu	1163	23,4
Od 32 do 38 godina	1280	25,7
Od 39 do 47 godina	1497	30,1
Više od 48 godina	905	18,2
Odbija	126	2,5
Total	4971	100,0

Među ispitanicima najveći je procenat starosti od 39 do 47 godina (30,1%), a slijede ispitanici starosti od 32 do 38 godina (25,7%), mlađi od 31 godine (23,4%) i stariji od 48 godina (18,2%). Informacije o godinama (starosti) je odbilo da dâ 2,5% ispitanika.

Tabela 3. *Obrazovanje ispitanika?*

	N	%
Odbija	21	,4
Završena osnovna škola	46	1,0
Završena srednja škola- treći stepen	288	5,8
Završana srednja škola- četvrti stepen	1344	27,0
Završena viša škola	410	8,2
Završena visoka škola	1930	38,8
Završen magisterij ili doktorat	932	18,7
Total	4971	100,0

U okviru uzorka nalazimo 38,8% visokoobrazovanih ispitanika, a slijede ispitanici sa završenom osnovnom školom – četvrti stepen (27%), sa završenim megisterijem ili doktoratom (18,7%), višom školom (8,2%), dok zanat ima 5,8% ispitanika. Završenu osnovnu osnovnu školu ima 1% ispitanika, dok 0,4% nije željelo da da podatke o svom obrazovanju.

Tabela 4. *Veličina naselja u kojem trenutno stanujete*

	N	%
Do 1000 stanovnika	407	8,2
Od 1001 do 5000 stanovnika	427	8,6
Od 5001 do 10 000 stanovnika	338	6,8
Od 10 001 do 25 000 stanovnika	500	10,1
Od 25 001 do 50 000 stanovnika	462	9,3
Od 50 001 do 200 000 stanovnika	1129	22,7
Više od 200 001 stanovnika	1683	33,8
Odbija	25	,5
Total	4971	100,0

Najveći broj ispitanika živi u mjestima sa preko 200 001 stanovnika (33,8%), a slijede ispitanici koji žive u mjestima od 50 001 do 200 000

stanovnika (22,7%). Svaki deseti ispitanik (10,1%) živi u naseljenom mjestu od 10 001 do 25 000 stanovnika. U mjestima manjim od 10 000 ispitanika živi 23,6% naših ispitanika, dok 9,3% živi u mjestima veličine od 25 001 do 50 001 stanovnika (9,3%). Na ovo pitanje nije odgovorilo 0,5% ispitanika.

Tabela 5. *Bračno stanje ispitanika*

	N	%
Samac/samica	1177	23,7
Oženjen/udata	3283	66,0
Razveden/razvedena	319	6,4
Udovac/udovica	56	1,1
Supružnik nestao u ratu	2	,0
Odbija	134	2,4
Total	4971	100,0

U okviru uzorka dvije trećine ispitanika je oženjeno ili udato (66,0%), slijede samci (23,7%), razvedeni (6,4%) i udovci 1,1%. Na ovo pitanje nije odgovorilo 2,4% ispitanika.

Tabela 6. *Koliko osoba živi u Vašem domaćinstvu?*

	N	%
Jedno	515	10,4
Dvoje	987	19,9
Troje	1327	26,7
Četvero	1512	30,4
Petero	437	8,8
Više od 6 osoba	134	3,9
Total	4971	100,0

Među ispitanicima najveći je procenat porodica sa četiri osobe (30,4%), potom sa tri člana (26,7%), dvije osobe (19,9%) i samaca (10,4%). Ispitanika sa porodicama koje imaju pet i više članova ima 12,7%.

U okviru našeg uzorka nalazimo 20,4% ispitanika koji u okviru svojih porodica imaju po jedno dijete starosti do 6 godina, dok 6,2% ima dvoje djece, a 1% više od troje djece. Jedno dijete starosti od 7 do 10 godina ima 16,9% ispitanika, a 1,9% dvoje djece. U okviru uzorka nalazimo i 17,1% porodica sa jednim djetetom od 10 do 17 godina, 5,8% porodica sa dvoje djece i 1% više od troje djece.

Tabela 7. *Vjerska ubjeđenja ispitanika?*

	N	%
Nisam vjernik	1023	20,6
Slobodna vjerska ubjeđenja	1499	30,2
Umjerena vjerska ubjeđenja	1904	38,3
Konzervativna vjerska ubjeđenja	169	3,4
Fundamentalistička vjerska ubjeđenja	78	1,6
Ne znam	151	3,0
Odbija	146	3,0
Nesto drugo	1	,0
Total	4971	100,0

Najveći broj ispitanika sebe opisuje kao umjerenog vjernika (38,3%), a slijede ispitanici sa slobodnim vjerskim ubjeđenjima (30,2%) i oni koji nisu vjernici (20,6%). Konzervativna vjerska ubjeđenja ima 3,4% ispitanika, dok 1,6% sebe opisuje kao fundamnetaliste. Na ovo pitanje nije odgovorilo 6% ispitanika.

Tabela 8. *Koliko često ispitanici idu na vjerske obrede?*

	N	%
Nekoliko puta nedjeljno	450	9,1
Jednom nedjeljno	397	8,0
Jednom mjesečno	151	3,0
Nekoliko puta godišnje	959	19,3
Jednom godišnje ili rjeđe	857	17,2
Nikada	1891	38,0

Ne znam	109	2,2
Odbija	157	3,2
Total	4971	100,0

Vjerske obrede više puta nedeljno upražnjava 9,1% ispitanika, dok jednom nedeljno čini 8%. Jednom mjesečno na vjerske obrede odlazi 3% ispitanika, a nekoliko puta godišnje 19,3%. Jednom godišnje ili rjeđa na vjerske objede odlazi 17,2%, dok to nikada ne čini 38% ispitanika. Na ovo pitanje nije odgovorilo 5,4% ispitanika.

Tabela 9. Nacionalnost ispitanika?

	N	%
Hrvat	770	15,5
Bošnjak	2072	41,7
Srbin	607	12,2
Crnogorac	27	,5
Slovenac	9	,2
Makedonac	4	,1
Albanac	10	,2
Bosanac	1230	24,7
Jugosloven	182	3,7
Odbija	60	1,2
Total	4971	100,0

U okviru našeg uzorka nalazimo najviše Bošnjaka (41,7%), potom Bosanaca (24,7%), Hrvata (15,5%), Srba (12,2%), 3,7% Jugoslovena, 0,5% Crnogoraca, 0,2% Slovenaca i Albanaca, 0,1% Makedonaca, dok je 1,2% odbilo da se izjasni.

Ispitanici dolaze iz preko 40 zemalja i najviše ih živi u BiH (70,1%), a potom u Hrvatskoj 7,9%, Njemačkoj (5,1%), Srbiji (4,1%), Austriji (2,4%), Švedska (1,9%) i Slovenija (1%).

12. Struktura varijabli indeksa zadovoljstva životom i zadovoljstva poslom

Prije nego što krenemo sa analizom dobijenih podataka, da bismo što bolje razumjeli prirodu pojava koje mjerimo, moraćemo se upoznati sa načinima na koje ih mjerimo. Ovo se posebno odnosi na skale Indeksa ličnog blagostanja i zadovoljstva poslom gdje smo faktorskom analizom redukovali veći broja indikatora na manji broj faktora.

12.1 Faktorska analiza indeksa ličnog blagostanja (pwi-a)

Kao što smo ranije kazali, u našem istraživanju smo koristili skalu Indeksa ličnog blagostanja (PWI-A) koja se sastojala od 8 stavki koji su u našem istraživanju na cjelokupnom uzorku, kao i na četiri poduzorka, pokazala međusobne velike i značajne korelacije pa smo uradili faktorsku analizu sa ciljem da vidimo da li će se stavke („ajtemi”) međusobno grupisati u pojedine faktore i na taj način nam olakšati interpretaciju samih podataka.

Eksplorativna redukciju podataka rađena je metodom analize glavnih komponenti, sa promax rotacijom komponenti. Koristeći kriterijum izdvajanja komponenti sa eigenvalue vrijednošću preko 1, dobili smo rješenje sa jednom komponentom koja objašnjava 68% varijanse rezultata naših 8 ajtema i nazvaćemo je *indeks zadovoljstva životom*.

Tabela 10. Procenti objašnjene varijanse

Komponente	Početna eigenvalue vrijednost			Rotirana suma kvadriranih zasićenja
	Total	% varijanse	Kumulativni %	Total
1	5.446	68.074	68.074	5.446

Tabela 10.1 Komponentna zasićenja

	Komponente
Generalno zadovoljstvo životom	.634
Zadovoljstvo životnim standardom	.857
Zadovoljstvo svojim zdravljem	.793
Zadovoljstvo onim što postižu u životu	.904
Zadovoljstvo svojim odnosima sa drugim ljudima	.832
Zadovoljstvo svojim osjećajem sigurnosti	.894
Zadovoljstvo svojim osjećajem pripadnosti u lokalnoj zajednici	.829
Zadovoljstvo svojim osjećajem bezbjednosti u budućnosti	.827

12.2 Faktorska analiza zadovoljstva poslom

Zadovoljstvo poslom smo mjerili skalom autora Cooper, Sloan i Williams (1987) koji se sastoji od 22 stavke. U okviru skale smo mjerili zadovoljstvo samim poslom, mogućnošću za napredovanje, sistemom nagrađivanja i visinom plate, klimom u organizaciji, sigurnošću posla, nivoom odgovornosti, mogućnošću za samoostvarenje i ispunjenje svojih poslovnih ambicija. Faktorskom analizom smo željeli da vidimo da li će se stavke međusobno grupisati u pojedine faktore što bi nam u velikoj mjeri pomoglo oko interpretacije samih podataka.

Eksplorativna redukcija podataka rađena je metodom analize glavnih komponenti, sa promax rotacijom komponenti. Koristeći kriterijum izdvajanja komponenti sa eigenvalue vrijednošću preko 1 dobili smo rješenje sa jednom komponentom koja objašnjava 75% varijanse rezultata naših 22 ajtema i nazvaćemo je *zadovoljstvo poslom*.

Tabela 11. Procenti objašnjene varijanse

Komponente	Početna eigenvalue vrijednost			Rotirana suma kvadriranih zasićenja
	Total	% varijanse	Kumulativni %	Total
1	16.492	74.963	74.963	16.492

Tabela 11.2 *Komponentna zasićenja*

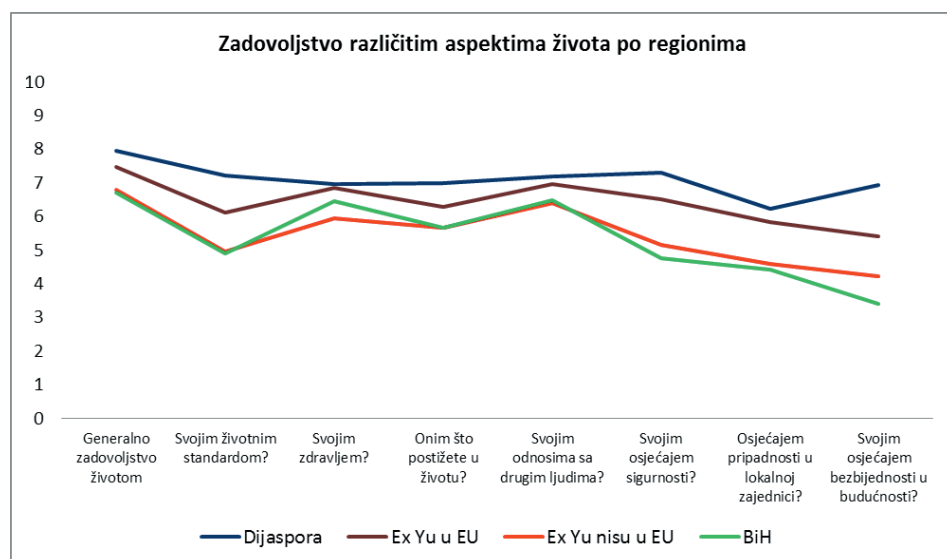
	Komponente
Komunikacijom i načinom prenošenja informacija u Vašoj organizaciji	.834
Odnosima koje imate sa ostalim zaposlenima	.818
Načinom vrjednovanja Vas i Vašeg truda	.880
Samim poslom	.859
Time koliko Vas posao motiviše za rad	.876
Mogućnošću napredovanja u svom poslu	.861
Sigurnošću koju Vam posao pruža	.793
Stepenom u kom možete da se poistovjetite sa ugledom i ciljevima svoje organizacije	.893
Načinom kontrole koju sprovode Vaši pretpostavljeni	.879
Načinom primjene promjena i inovacija	.864
Vrstom zadataka na kojima ste angažovani	.902
Mogućnošću usavršavanja i ličnog napredovanja u poslu	.895
Načinom rješavanja konflikata u oraganizaciji u kojoj radite	.868
Mogućnostima koje Vam posao pruža za ostvarenje ličnih težnji i ambicija	.905
Mogućnošću za učestvovanje u donošenju važnih odluka	.879
Stepenom u kom posao odgovara Vašim sposobnostima	.874
Stepenom slobode i fleksibilnosti koju imate u obavljanju svog posla	.873
Psihološkom klimom i atmosferom u organizaciji	.880
Visinom plate u odnosu na Vaše radno iskustvo	.816
Načinom organizacije Vaše firme	.880
Količinom posla koji obavljate (bez obzira da li je to mnogo ili malo)	.844
Mjerom u kojoj Vas Vaš posao „obogaćuje”	.866

13. Zadovoljstvo životom

U ovom poglavlju vidjećemo koliko su stanovnici iz pojedinih regiona generalno zadovoljni svojim životom, ali i koliko su zadovoljni pojedinih aspektima svog života. Važno je još jednom naglasiti da se ovdje

koristila 11- stopena skala gdje je 0 označavala da ispitanik nije ni malo zadovoljan, a 10 potpuno zadovoljan.

Takođe, moramo praviti razliku između pojmova „generalnog zadovoljstva životom” i „indeksa zadovoljstva životom”. Generalno zadovoljstvo životom je odgovor ispitanika na pitanje „Koliko su generalno zadovoljni svojim životom?” koje se nalazi u okviru skale Indeksa ličnog blagostanja, a indeks zadovoljstva životom je rezultat faktorske a nalize svih osam stavki iz skale Indeksa ličnog blagostanja.



Grafikon 1

Iz grafikona 1 možemo da vidimo da su u svim aspektima života najviše zadovoljni ispitanici koji žive u dijaspori, a slijede ispitanici koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU. Najmanje zadovoljstva nalazimo kod ispitanika koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu dio EU (Srbija, Crna Gora, Makedonija, BiH).

Tabela 12. Zadovoljstvo različitim aspektima života po regionima

		N	M	SD	SE	F	p	n ²
Generalno zadovoljstvo životom	BiH	3286	6.72	2.072	.036	88.807	< .001	0.054
	Ex Yu u EU	415	7.46	1.678	.082			
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	228	6.80	1.962	.130			
	Dijaspora	726	7.96	1.507	.056			
Svojim životnim standardom?	BiH	3378	4.90	3.067	.053	132.432	< .001	0.076
	Ex Yu u EU	437	6.10	2.711	.130			
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	243	4.95	3.008	.193			
	Dijaspora	746	7.21	2.693	.099			
Svojim zdravljem?	BiH	3365	6.46	2.945	.051	10.617	< .001	0.007
	Ex Yu u EU	435	6.84	2.696	.129			
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	244	5.94	2.852	.183			
	Dijaspora	740	6.95	2.820	.104			
Onim što postižete u životu?	BiH	3337	5.66	2.871	.050	48.580	< .001	0.030
	Ex Yu u EU	435	6.28	2.582	.124			
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	243	5.65	2.815	.181			
	Dijaspora	739	7.00	2.716	.100			
Svojim odnosima sa drugim ljudima?	BiH	3357	6.48	2.775	.048	17.121	< .001	0.011
	Ex Yu u EU	437	6.95	2.448	.117			
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	244	6.40	2.619	.168			
	Dijaspora	744	7.20	2.666	.098			
Svojim osjećajem sigurnosti?	BiH	3353	4.76	3.061	.053	170.569	< .001	0.097
	Ex Yu u EU	438	6.50	2.724	.130			
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	242	5.15	2.927	.188			
	Dijaspora	736	7.30	2.806	.103			
Osjećajem pripadnosti u lokalnoj zajednici?	BiH	3337	4.41	3.100	.054	89.554	< .001	0.054
	Ex Yu u EU	436	5.84	2.894	.139			
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	243	4.60	2.963	.190			
	Dijaspora	736	6.23	2.942	.108			

Svojim osjećajem bezbjednosti u budućnosti?	BiH	3343	3.39	2.970	.051	317.233	< .001	0.167
	Ex Yu u EU	433	5.42	2.894	.139			
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	240	4.23	2.932	.189			
	Dijaspora	737	6.92	2.942	.108			

Iz tabele 12 možemo da vidimo da postoji statistički značajna razlika između četiri kategorije ispitanika kod svih aspekata zadovoljstva životom.

Generalno gledajući, svojim životom najviše je zadovoljna dijaspora (7.96), a slijede ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje žive u EU (7.46), ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (6.80) i stanovnici BiH (6.72).

Slična je situacija i kod procjene životnog standarda, svojim standardom su najviše zadovoljni stanovnici dijaspore (7.21), potom ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje žive u EU (6.10), dok su na trećem mjestu stanovnici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (4.95) i najmanje stanovnici iz BiH (4.9).

Svojim zdravljem su najviše zadovoljni ljudi u dijaspori (6.95), a slijede ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje žive u EU (6.84), stanovnici BiH (6.46) i najmanje ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (5.94).

Onim što postižu u svom životu najviše su zadovoljni ispitanici koji žive u dijaspori (7.0), na drugom mjestu po zadovoljstvu se nalaze ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje žive u EU (6.28) i podjednako ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (5.65) i BiH (5.66).

Svojim odnosom sa drugim ljudima najviše su zadovoljni ispitanici iz dijaspore (7.2), a slijede ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje žive u EU (6.95), ispitanici koji žive u BiH (6.48) i ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (6.40).

Ispitanici iz dijaspore se u najvećoj mjeri osjećaju sigurnim (7.3), a potom ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje žive u EU (6.5), ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (5.15) i stanovnici BiH (4.76).

Pripadnošću lokalnoj zajednici najviše su zadovoljni građani koji žive u dijaspori (6.23), a slijede ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje žive

u EU (5.84), ispitanici iz bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (4.60) i ispitanici koji žive u BiH (4.41).

Osjećaj bezbjednosti u budućnosti najviše je prisutan kod ispitanika iz dijaspor (6.92), a potom kod ispitanika koji su iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji žive u EU (5.42.), pa ispitanika iz bivše Jugoslavije koji nisu u EU (4.23) i stanovnika BiH (3.39).

Kada pogledamo analizu razlika između pojedinih kategorija (tabela 12.1) vidimo da postoje razlike kod skoro svih stavki, ali mi ćemo analizirati samo one kod koji je Cohen's d veći od 0.5, jer je ta razlika dovoljno visokog intenziteta da bi se uzela u razmatranje.

Kada se govori o generalnom zadovoljstvom životom vidimo da postoji razlika između dijaspor i ispitanika u BiH (Cohen's d= -0.625) i dijaspor i ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (Cohen's d= -0.710).

Slična situacija je i kod zadovoljstva životnim standardom gdje se dijaspora razlikuje od BiH (Cohen's d= -0.766) i ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (Cohen's d= -0.814).

Tabela 12.1 *Post Hoc Tests*

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
Generalno zadovoljstvo životom	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-0.739	0.102	-7.251	-0.364	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.084	0.134	-0.624	-0.040	0.925
		Dijaspورا	-1.238	0.080	-15.439	-0.625	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.655	0.161	4.064	0.367	< .001
		Dijaspورا	0.499	0.120	-4.150	-0.318	< .001
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspورا	-1.155	0.148	-7.777	-0.710	< .001
Svojim životnim standardom?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-1.197	0.151	-7.906	-0.395	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.043	0.198	-0.216	-0.014	0.996
		Dijaspورا	-2.301	0.120	-19.103	-0.766	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	1.154	0.238	4.843	0.409	< .001
		Dijaspورا	-1.104	0.179	-6.156	-0.409	< .001
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspورا	-2.259	0.220	-10.268	-0.814	< .001

Svojim zdravljem?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-0.373	0.148	-2.528	-0.128	0.056
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.521	0.192	2.708	0.177	0.034
		Dijaspora	-0.484	0.118	-4.111	-0.166	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.894	0.232	3.856	0.325	< .001
		Dijaspora	-0.111	0.175	-0.631	-0.040	0.922
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-1.005	0.214	-4.694	-0.355	< .001
Onim što postizete u životu?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-0.623	0.144	-4.332	-0.219	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.014	0.187	0.075	0.005	1.000
		Dijaspora	-1.337	0.115	-11.666	-0.470	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.637	0.226	2.820	0.239	0.025
		Dijaspora	-0.715	0.170	-4.194	-0.268	< .001
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-1.351	0.208	-6.481	-0.493	< .001
Svojim odnosima sa drugim ljudima?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-0.470	0.138	-3.397	-0.172	0.004
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.076	0.180	0.419	0.027	0.975
		Dijaspora	-0.727	0.110	-6.593	-0.264	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.546	0.218	2.509	0.217	0.059
		Dijaspora	-0.257	0.164	-1.566	-0.099	0.398
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-0.803	0.201	-3.997	-0.302	< .001
Svojim osjećajem sigurnosti?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-1.747	0.152	-11.514	-0.578	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.396	0.199	-1.990	-0.130	0.192
		Dijaspora	-2.542	0.122	-20.905	-0.842	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	1.352	0.239	5.650	0.483	< .001
		Dijaspora	-0.794	0.180	-4.407	-0.286	< .001
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-2.146	0.221	-9.696	-0.757	< .001
Osjećajem pripadnosti u lokalnoj zajednici?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-1.437	0.155	-9.247	-0.467	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.196	0.203	-0.965	-0.063	0.769
		Dijaspora	-1.823	0.124	-14.675	-0.593	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	1.241	0.244	5.081	0.425	< .001
		Dijaspora	-0.387	0.184	-2.096	-0.132	0.154
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-1.627	0.226	-7.210	-0.552	< .001

Svojim osjećajem bezbjednosti u budućnosti?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-2.038	0.151	-13.493	-0.688	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.846	0.198	-4.282	-0.285	< .001
		Dijaspora	-3.537	0.120	-29.393	-1.193	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	1.192	0.238	5.007	0.410	< .001
		Dijaspora	-1.499	0.179	-8.372	-0.513	< .001
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-2.691	0.220	-12.243	-0.915	< .001

Stanovnici BiH se značajno razlikuju u stepenu osjećanja sigurnosti u odnosu na ostale tri kategorije ispitanika, iz dijaspore (Cohen's $d = -0.842$), iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu EU (Cohen's $d = -0.757$) i iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su danas u EU (Cohen's $d = -0.578$).

Kada se govori o pripadnosti lokanoj zajednici, nalazimo statistički značajne razlike između ispitanika koji žive u dijaspori i BiH (Cohen's $d = -0.593$) i ispitanika koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (Cohen's $d = -0.552$).

Kada se analizira osjećanje bezbjednosti u budućnosti, nalazimo značajne razlike između ispitanika koji žive u dijaspori i ispitanika koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (Cohen's $d = -0.915$) i stanovnika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su danas u EU (Cohen's $d = -0.513$). Takođe, postoji razlika između stanovnika BiH i stanovnika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su danas u EU (Cohen's $d = -0.688$).

13.1 Diskusija nalaza

Svojim životom generalno, kao i njegovim pojedinim aspektima, najviše su zadovoljni ispitanici koji žive u dijaspori, potom ispitanici koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, a najmanje ispitanici koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu dio EU (Srbija, Crna Gora, Makedonija, BiH).

Interesantno je da je generalno zadovoljstvo kod svih kategorija ispitanika veće od njihovih posebnih segmenata.

Kada pogledamo pojedinačne aspekte zadovoljstva životom, vidimo da su te razlike između pojedinačnih kategorija najveće kod stavki

osjećaja bezbjednosti u budućnosti, osjećaja sigurnosti i osjećaja pripadnosti u lokalnoj zajednici, a najmanju razliku nalazimo kod odnosa sa drugim ljudima i svojim zdravljem.

Ispitanici iz dijaspore se najviše su zabrinuti zbog svog zdravlja i osjećanja pripadnosti lokalnoj zajednici. Ovi rezultati se mogu objasniti činjenicom da sadašnju dijasporu ne čine samo mladi ljudi koji su skorije napustili naše prostore, već i ljudi koji su 90-ih godina otišli iz Jugoslavije i oni su sada u godinama u kojima zdravlje, u većoj ili manjoj mjeri, slabi i postaje veoma važno u njihovim životnim prioritetima. Kada govorimo o pripadnosti lokalnoj zajednici, moramo imati na umu da u okviru uzorka dijaspore nalazmo 39% ispitanika starosti do 38 godina i 57.4% starijih od 49 godina. Postavlja se pitanje da li su ispitanici koji su skorije došli iz BiH imali dovoljno vremena da se prilagode životu u lokalnim sredinama i budu prihvaćeni od strane starosjedilaca. S druge strane, moramo imati u vidu da ispitanici koji su Jugoslaviju napustili tokom ratova to nisu imali u planu i nisu otišli dobrovoljno, što može da utiče negativno na njihovo osjećanje pripadnosti sredini u kojoj trenutno žive. U prilog ovoj tezi ide i podatak da u okviru uzorka dijaspore imamo 32.5% Bosanca i Hercegovaca i 6.4% Jugoslovena.

Ispitanici koji žive i rade u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije najviše su zadovoljni svojim zdravljem i odnosom sa ljudima, a najmanje svojom bezbjednošću u budućnosti, pripadanjem lokalnoj zajednici i životnim standardom.

Kod ispitanika iz BiH i zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU vidimo skoro identične tendencije. Najviše su zadovoljni svojim zdravljem i odnosom sa ljudima, a najmanje osjećajem bezbjednosti u budućnosti, osjećajem pripadnosti lokalnoj zajednici, životnim standardom i osjećajem sigurnosti, s tim da je ovo zadovoljstvo najmanje kod stanovnika BiH.

Za nas je posebno interesantan odnos zadovoljstva pojedinim aspektima života u BiH gdje vidimo da su strah od neizvjesne budućnosti, osjećanje nepripadnosti lokalnoj zajednici i neizvjesnost jednako važni kao i loš životni standard.

14. Zadovoljstvo poslom i zadovoljstvo životom

U ovom poglavlju ćemo vidjeti koliko su stanovnici iz pojedinih regiona zadovoljni poslom koji obavljaju, kao i povezanost zadovoljstva poslom sa indeksom zadovoljstva životom kod svih ispitanika i po pojedinim regionima. Važno je još jednom naglasiti da se ovdje koristila 6-ostepena skala gdje je 1 označavala da je ispitanik u potpunosti nezadovoljan, a 6 potpuno zadovoljan.

Tabela 13. Zadovoljstvo poslom po regionima

	N	M	SD	SE	F	p	n ²
BiH	2457	3.3203	1.26560	.02553	0.991	0.396	0.001
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	355	3.6137	1.24007	.06582			
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	178	3.5102	1.26379	.09472			
Dijaspora	562	3.6965	1.62522	.06856			

U tabeli 13 vidimo da su svojim poslom najviše zadovoljni ispitanici iz dijaspora (3.69), a potom ispitanici koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije članicama EU (3.61), stanovnici zemlja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu dio EU (3.51) i najmanje stanovnici BiH (3.32).

Važno je naglasiti da ova razlika u zadovoljstvu poslom između pojedinih regiona nije statistički značajna ($p = 0.396$).

Tabela 14. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i zadovoljstva poslom na uzorku svih ispitanika

	Zadovoljstvo poslom
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.373**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

U tabeli 14 vidimo da je korelacija između zadovoljstva poslom i zadovoljstva životom kod svih ispitanika pozitivna, niska i značajna ($r = .373$; $p < .01$).

Slična situacija je i kod pojedinih regiona (tabela 15.) gdje je korelacija između ove dvije varijable pozitivna, niska i značajna, BiH ($r = .389$; $p < .01$), zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU ($r = .312$; $p < .01$), zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU ($r = .260$; $p < .01$) i dijaspora ($r = .313$; $p < .01$).

Tabela 15. *Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i zadovoljstva poslom kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona*

		Zadovoljstvo poslom
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.389**
Ex Yu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.312**
Ex Yu nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.260**
Dijaspورا	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.313**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .0$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

14.1 Diskusija nalaza

Kada se radi o zadovoljstvu poslom možemo reći da se ispitanici iz pojedinih regiona međusobno statistički značajno ne razlikuju, iako je ono najviše izraženo kod ispitanika iz dijaspora, a potom kod ispitanika koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije članicama EU, pa stanovnika zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu dio EU i najmanje kod stanovnika BiH.

Kada se radi o povezanosti zadovoljstva poslom i zadovoljstva životom vidimo da je ona niska, pozitivna i statistički značajna na uzorku svih ispitanika i kod sva četiri regiona. Najveću korelaciju nalazimo kod ispitanika iz BiH i najmanja kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU.

Možemo reći da su naši nalazi slični drugim nalazima (Turner, Barling i Zacharatos, 2002) koji pokazuju da je zadovoljstvo poslom

direktno povezano s mentalnim zdravljem i životnim zadovoljstvom. Istraživanje Warra (1999) je pokazalo da doživljavanje pozitivnih emocija u velikoj mjeri utječe na zadovoljstvo poslom. Nalazi Isena (2002) nam govore da smo, ukoliko smo zadovoljni poslom koji oba-
vljamo, onda i kreativniji, imamo bolje odnose s drugima i bolje dono-
simo odluke i rješavamo probleme. Međutim, postoje razlike i među
poslovima. Poslovi koji pojedincima nude visok nivo samoodređenja i
autonomije i koji pružaju veće neimovinske koristi povećavaju zado-
voljstvo poslom (Benz i Frey, 2008; Deci i Ryan, 2000). Teorija samoo-
dređenja kaže da pojedinci cijene autonomiju u svojim poslovima, jer
to zadovoljava njihove urođene psihološke potrebe (Deci i Ryan, 2000;
Frey, 1997).

15. Vrijeme provedeno na poslu, primanja i zadovoljstvo životom

U ovom poglavlju vidjećemo koliko časova ispitanici iz različitih regi-
ona provode na poslu i koliko su im redovna primanja. Nakon toga
ćemo vidjeti povezanost indeksa zadovoljstva životom sa brojem rad-
nih sati u radnoj sedmici i sa redovnošću primanja.

Tabela 16. Broj radnih sati u jednoj tipičnoj radnoj nedjelji po regionima?
(ukoliko ste zaposleni)

		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspora	Total
Manje od 20 sati	N	132	11	8	34	185
	%	4.3	2.7	3.6	4.9	4.2
20-40 sati	N	1231	169	85	363	1848
	%	39.9	41.6	38.3	51.8	41.8
Više od 40 sati	N	1508	210	110	284	2112
	%	48.8	51.7	49.5	40.5	47.8

Ne znam	N	127	10	11	14	162
	%	4.1	2.5	5.0	2.0	3.7
Odbijam da odgovorim	N	91	6	8	6	111
	%	2.9	1.5	3.6	0.9	2.5
Total	N	3089	406	222	701	4418
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 16.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	Df	p
55.510	12	.000

Ako pogledamo tabelu 16, možemo da vidimo da do 20 sati nedeljno radi 4.9% ispitanika iz dijaspore, 4.3% iz BiH, 3.6% ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU i 2.7% ispitanika zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU. Između 20 i 40 sati sedmično na poslu je provodilo 51.8% ispitanika iz dijaspore, i oko 40% ispitanika iz ostalih kategorija, dok je više od 40 sati sedmično radilo 40.5% ispitanika iz dijaspore i oko 50% iz ostalih kategorija.

Tabela 17. *Korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i broja radnih sati nedeljno na uzorku svih ispitanika*

	Broj sati u jednoj tipičnoj radnoj nedjelji
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.069**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Dobijeni rezultat, na uzorku svih ispitanika, pokazuje negativnu, veoma nisku korelaciju, ali ona je statistički značajna ($r = -.069$, $p < .01$).

Slična je situacija i kod ispitanika u BiH ($r = -.062$, $p < .01$) i ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU ($r = -.067$, $p < .01$).

Tabela 18. Korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i broja radnih sati kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona

		Broj sati u jednoj tipičnoj radnoj nedjelji
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.062**
Ex Yu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.067**
Ex Yu nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.011
Dijaspora	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.002

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Redovnu platu u najvećem procentu dobijaju ispitanici iz dijaspo-re (92.6%) i oni koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (91.1%), dok je taj procenat kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU iznosio 79.3%, Redovnu platu je dobijalo 72.9% ispitanika iz BiH (tabela 19).

Kašnjenje u isplati plata je najveće u BiH i zemljama bivše Jugosla-vije koje nisu u EU.

Tabela 19. Redovnost mjesečnih primanja po regionima?

		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspora	Total
Na vrijeme	N	2278	378	176	666	3498
	%	72.9	91.1	79.3	92.6	78.0
Sa zakašnjenjem od nedelju dana ili manje	N	266	13	10	9	298
	%	8.5	3.1	4.5	1.3	6.6
Sa zakašnjenjem od najmanje nedelju dana. ali najviše od mjesec dana	N	186	3	4	5	198
	%	6.0	0.7	1.8	0.7	4.4
Sa zakašnjenjem između mjesec dana i tri mjeseca	N	63	1	2	1	67
	%	2.0	0.2	0.9	0.1	1.5

Sa zakašnjenjem između tri i šest mjeseci	N	16	1	2	0	19
	%	0.5	0.2	0.9	0.0	0.4
Sa više od šest mjeseci zakašnjenja	N	10	0	1	1	12
	%	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.3
Nezaposlen ili ne prima platu	N	207	14	17	30	268
	%	6.6	3.4	7.7	4.2	6.0
Ne znam	N	42	1	4	3	50
	%	1.3	0.2	1.8	0.4	1.1
Odbijam da odgovorim	N	58	4	6	4	72
	%	1.9	1.0	2.7	0.6	1.6
Total	N	3126	415	222	719	4482
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 19.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
207.626	24	.000

Tabela 20. *Korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i redovnih mjesečnih primanja na uzorku svih ispitanika*

	Redovna mjesečna primanja
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.049**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Kao što možemo da vidimo u tabeli 20, korelacija na uzorku svih ispitanika negativna je, veoma slaba, ali statistički značajna ($r = -.049$, $p = < .01$).

Kada pogledamo korelacije između redovnosti plate i zadovoljstva životom po regionima, nalazimo negativnu, veoma slabu i statistički značajnu korelaciju samo kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU ($r = -.116$, $p = < .05$).

Tabela 21. Korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i redovnih mjesečnih primanja kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona

		Redovna mjesečna primanja
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.026
Ex Yu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.116*
Ex Yu nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.001
Dijaspورا	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.056

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

15.1 Diskusija nalaza

Kada se radi o vremenu provedenom na poslu vidimo da oko 5% ispitanika radi do 20 sati sedmično i tu je najveći procenat kod ispitanika iz dijaspo-re, a najmanji kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU. Između 20 i 40 časova sedmično radi oko 40% ispitanika, ali takvo radno vrijeme ima polovina ispitanika iz dijaspo-re i oko 40% ispitanika u drugim regionima. Situacija se mijenja kada se sedmično radno vrijeme produži preko 40 sati, koje radi polovina ispitanika iz BiH, iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije bez obzira na to da li su u EU ili nisu, dok je to slučaj sa 40% ispitanika u dijaspori.

Kada pogledamo povezanost vremena provedenog na poslu i zadovoljstva životom vidimo da je ona niska, negativna ali statistički značajna kod svih ispitanika i kod ispitanika u BiH i onih koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU.

Redovnu platu u najvećem procentu dobijaju ispitanici iz dijaspo-re i oni koji su živjeli u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (preko 90%), dok je to slučaj kod 80% ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU. Redovnu platu je dobijalo 73% ispitanika iz BiH.

Dobijeni rezultati pokazuju da je zadovoljstvo životom veće što su redovnija primanja, ali ovo važi kada analiziramo odgovore svih ispitanika i kod ispitanika iz bivše Jugoslavije koji su u EU. Možemo reći

da novac može kupiti sreću, ali samo kao sredstvo zahvaljujući kojem možemo doći do stvari koje nas čine srećnima, ali da novac sam po sebi ne povećava značajno osjećaj zadovoljstva i sreće (Dunn, Aknin i Norton, 2008; Diener i Seligman (2004).

16. Kvalifikacije i napredovanje na poslu

Sada ćemo vidjeti u kojoj mjeri naši ispitanici iz različitih regiona obavljaju poslove za koje su kvalifikovani i da li očekuju da će u narednim godinama napredovati.

Tabela 22. Obavljanje posla za koji ste kvalifikovani po regionima?

		Zemlja kategorije				
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspora	Total
Da	N	2032	299	157	435	2923
	%	65.3	72.9	69.8	60.8	65.5
Ne	N	1079	111	68	281	1539
	%	34.7	27.1	30.2	39.2	34.5
Total	N	3111	410	225	716	4462
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 22.1 Chi-Square Tests

V	df	p
19.014	3	.000

Rezultati koje vidimo u tabeli 22 nam govore da najviše radnika koji rade posao za koji su kvalifikovani nalazimo kod ispitanika koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (72.9%), slijede zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (69.8%), BiH (65.3%) i najmanje ispitanici iz dijaspore (60.8%).

Tabela 23. *Mogućnost napredovanja na poslu u naredne dvije godine po regionima*

		Zemlja kategorije				
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspora	Total
Da	N	1374	187	99	489	2149
	%	43.8	45.2	44.6	68.4	47.9
Ne	N	1764	227	123	226	2340
	%	56.2	54.8	55.4	31.6	52.1
Total	N	3138	414	222	715	4489
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 23.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
143.803	3	.000

Kada se radi o očekivanom napredovanju na poslu (tabela 23) vidimo da 68.4% ispitanika iz dijaspore to očekuje u naredne dvije godine, za razliku od ostale tri kategorije ispitanika kod koji taj procenat iznosi oko 44%.

16.1 Diskusija nalaza

Najviše radnika koji rade posao za koji su kvalifikovani nalazimo kod ispitanika koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, slijede zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU, BiH i najmanje ispitanici iz dijaspore. Teško je reći zašto je to tako, ali moramo imati na umu trend da poslodavci iz Hrvatske i Slovenije u posljednjih nekoliko godina ciljano dolaze po određenu radnu snagu, tj. po radnike u profesijama koje su im potrebne. S druge strane, činjenica da je u dijaspori najmanji procenat onih koji rade posao za koji su kvalifikovani može da se interpretira na različite načine. Našim ljudima koji odlaze u inostranstvo nije toliko važno koje poslove obavljaju jer im je prioritet da

odu odavde, a i velika je vjerovatnoća da određeno vrijeme ne postoje formalne mogućnosti da se zaposle u skladu sa školskom spremom i strukom za koju su kvalifikovani.

Ipak, važno je imati na umu raniji nalaz da se ispitanici iz pojedinih regija međusobno ne razlikuju kada se radi o zadovoljstvu poslom, bez obzira na to da li rade posao za koji su kvalifikovani ili ne. Ne smijemo zanemariti da upravo ispitanici iz dijaspora, u većoj mjeri od ostalih, očekuju da će u narednom periodu napredovati na poslu. Istraživanja u svijetu (Robbins, 1993; Spector, 2008) pokazuju da je mogućnost napredovanja na poslu takođe važan aspekt zadovoljstva poslom. Napredovanje omogućava lični rast i razvoj, više odgovornosti i povećanje socijalnog statusa, što može da vodi i većem stepenu lične sreće.

17. Ukupna mjesečna primanja svih članova domaćinstva i zadovoljstvo životom

U narednom poglavlju vidjećemo koliko se ispitanici iz različitih kategorija međusobno razlikuju kada se radi o ukupnim mjesečnim prihodima svih članova domaćinstva, kao i u kakvoj su vezi sa indeksom zadovoljstva životom za sve ispitanike i za pojedine regione.

Tabela 24. Ukupan mjesečni prihodi svih članova domaćinstva po regionima (u evrima)

	N	M	SD	SE	F	p	n ²
BiH	3122	1338.02	1009.103	18.060	793.758	< .001	0.352
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	387	2155.44	1367.307	69.504			
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	223	1480.99	1023.045	68.508			
Dijaspورا	649	4631.97	3215.995	126.239			

Rezultati prikazani u tabeli 24 su prilično očekivani, jer najviša ukupna primanja imaju ispitanici iz dijaspora (4632 evra), a slijede

stanovnici zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (2155.4 evra), zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (1481 evro) i BiH (1338 evra). Ova razlika u prosječnim primanjima je statistički značajna (tabela 24.1).

Tabela 24.1 *Post Hoc Tests*

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
Ukupan mjesečni prihodi svih članova domaćinstva	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-817.429	84.787	-9.641	-0.775	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-142.976	109.053	-1.311	-0.142	0.556
		Dijaspora	-3293.955	67.873	-48.531	-2.034	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	674.453	132.271	5.099	0.538	< .001
		Dijaspora	-2476.526	101.044	-24.509	-0.924	< .001
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-3150.980	122.121	-25.802	-1.116	< .001

Kada pogledamo razlike unutar pojedinih kategorija vidimo da se stanovnici BiH značajno razlikuju u odnosu na stanovnike bivše Jugoslavije koje su sada u EU (Cohen's d= -0.775) i dijaspore (Cohen's d= -2.034). Takođe nalazimo statistički značajnu razliku kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su sada u EU i njihovih bivših sugrađana koji nisu u EU (Cohen's d= 0.538) i dijaspore (Cohen's d= -0.924). Razlika postoji i između ispitanika iz dijaspore i onih koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije, ali ne i u EU (Cohen's d= -1.116).

Tabela 25. *Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i ukupnih mjesečnih primanja na uzorku svih ispitanika*

	Ukupna mjesečna primanja
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.259**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

U tabeli 25 vidimo da je korelacija između zadovoljstva poslom i ukupnih mjesečnih primanja domaćinstva, za sve ispitanike, pozitivna, niska i značajna ($r = .259$; $p < .01$).

Slična situacija je i kod pojedinih geografskih kategorija (tabel 26.) gdje je korelacija između ove dvije varijable pozitivna, niska i značajna, BiH ($r = .219$; $p < .01$), zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU ($r = .206$; $p < .01$), zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU ($r = .350$; $p < .01$), dok kod dijaspora ta veza nije značajna.

Tabela 26. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i ukupnih mjesečnih primanja kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona

		Ukupna mjesečna primanja
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.219**
Ex Yu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.206**
Ex Yu nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.350**
Dijaspore	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.003

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

17.1 Diskusija nalaza

Sasvim je očekivano da najveća mjesečna primanja nalazimo kod ispitanika iz dijaspora, a slijede ispitanici koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, dok se primanja stanovnika BiH i zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU ne razlikuju značajno. Kada pogledamo povezanost između indeksa zadovoljstva poslom i ukupnih mjesečnih primanja nalazimo nisku, pozitivnu i značajnu korelaciju kod uzorka svih ispitanika, kao i za ispitanike koji žive u BiH i zemljama bivše Jugoslavije. Ta veza je najveća kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU. Kao što smo ranije kazali, dijaspora ima veća primanja u odnosu na ostale regione, ali kod njih ne nalazimo značajnu povezanost između primanja i indeksa zadovoljstva životom.

Naši rezultati su donekle u skladu sa rezultatima u svijetu, Diener i Biswas (2002) u metaanalizi 11 studija nalaze pozitivne korelacije od 0.15 do 0.25 između prihoda i subjektivne procjene sreće. Slične rezultate u Njemačkoj dobijaju Lucas i Schimack (2009) kod kojih korelacija varira od 0.17 do 0.20. Interesantan je nalaz istraživača da vrijednost povezanosti između dohotka i zadovoljstva životom varira u zavisnosti od ekonomske razvijenosti jednog društva. Što je društvo bogatije to je ta povezanost slabija (oko 0.20), a što je siromašnije ta korelacija je veća (i preko 0.40). Kao dobru ilustraciju ovih tendencija pogledaćemo korelacije između Srbije, Ruande, Švajcarske i Norveške (Jovanović, 2016). Korelacija između prihoda i zadovoljstva životom je u Srbiji je iznosila 0.48, a u Runadi (0.40), dok je ta veza u Švajcarskoj iznosila 0.2, a u Norveškoj 0.21.

U našem istraživanju korelacija je između 0.219 u BiH i 0.35 u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU, dok je kod ispitanika iz dijaspora ta korelacija veoma niska i nije značajna. Kako objasniti ove rezultate za dijasporu? Izgleda da je novac važan za opažanje vlastite sreće samo do granice koja nam omogućava zadovoljenje osnovnih bioloških potreba, a kada pređemo tu granicu, onda njegov značaj opada. Sa primanjima od 4631.97 eura svih članova domaćinstva, izgleda da je dijaspora prešla tu granicu i sada im to nije toliko važan preduslov za sreću.

18. Upravljanje mjesečnim rashodima i zadovoljstvo životom

U prethodnom poglavlju smo vidjeli kako ukupni mjesečni prihodi utiču na sreću naših ljudi. Biće interesantno vidjeti kakva je struktura troškova ispitanika u okviru naše četiri kategorije ispitanika tj. koliko oni mjesečno, u procentima, izdvajaju novca za stanovanje, prevoz, ishranu, školovanje, zdravstvo, zabavu, vraćanja kredita i koliko uštede. Takođe ćemo vidjeti da li postoji povezanost između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i vrste rashoda svih ispitanika i unutar pojedinih kategorija.

Tabela 27. Mjesečni rashodi u procentima i štednja kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona

		N	M	SD	SE	F	p	n ²
Stanovanje (stanarina, voda, struja, održavanje zgrade i sl.)	BiH	2976	19.51	10.943	.201	47.354	< .001	0.032
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	400	21.67	12.034	.602			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	217	21.84	12.502	.849			
	Dijaspورا	681	25.13	12.195	.467			
Prevoza (benzin, karte za gradski i međugradski prevoz i sl.)	BiH	2822	10.71	6.548	.123	61.880	< .001	0.044
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	386	10.08	6.207	.316			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	199	9.75	5.493	.389			
	Dijaspора	658	7.00	5.383	.210			
Ishranu	BiH	3010	30.16	12.134	.221	170.248	< .001	0.106
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	404	25.57	10.578	.526			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	221	32.19	14.021	.943			
	Dijaspора	687	19.49	9.415	.359			
Školovanje (lično ili djece)	BiH	1918	11.33	8.140	.186	24.940	< .001	0.027
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	255	9.59	7.264	.455			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	128	12.52	9.290	.821			
	Dijaspора	383	7.82	6.620	.338			
Zdravstvene usluge	BiH	2209	7.16	5.875	.125	1.925	0.123	0.002
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	296	5.64	5.165	.300			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	153	6.68	4.788	.387			
	Dijaspора	429	6.17	6.089	.294			
Zabavu	BiH	2460	9.27	7.432	.150	3.783	0.010	0.003
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	360	9.17	7.059	.372			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	186	10.91	10.747	.788			
	Dijaspора	610	8.81	6.725	.272			

Kredit	BiH	1793	21.61	12.149	.287	1.177	0.317	0.001
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	243	18.95	11.460	.735			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	101	17.01	10.770	1.072			
	Dijaspورا	386	13.42	10.405	.530			
Štednju	BiH	1344	13.44	12.466	.340	14.594	< .001	0.020
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	220	13.75	13.561	.914			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	99	15.80	14.853	1.493			
	Dijaspора	542	17.75	13.927	.598			

Kada se radi o troškovima stanovanja vidimo da su oni najveći kod dijaspore (25.1%) od ukupnih mjesečnih prihoda, a slijede zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje jesu u EU i nisu u EU (oko 22%), dok taj procenat najmanji u BiH i iznosi 19.5%. Važno je naglasiti da je razlika između ovih kategorija ispitanika statistički značajna (tabela 27.1) i možemo reći da je intenzitet te razlike između stanovnika dijaspore i BiH (Cohen's $d = -0.503$) prilično veliki.

Od ukupnog mjesečnog prihoda za prevoz najviše izdvajaju stanovnici BiH (10.7%) i stanovnici bivše Jugoslavije koji su u EU (10.0%), a slijede građani bivše Jugoslavije koji nisu u EU (9.7%) i dijaspore (7.0%). Razlika između ovih grupa je statistički značajna (tabela 27.1), a razlike su intenzivne između dijaspore i BiH (Cohen's $d = 0.584$), ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su sada u EU (Cohen's $d = 0.541$) i ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu sada u EU (Cohen's $d = 0.508$).

Na hranu najviše troše ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (32.1%) i BiH (30.1%), a potom ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (25.5%) i dijaspore (19.4%). I ovdje nalazimo statistički značajnu razliku (tabela 27.1), i tu nalazimo prilično intenzivnu razliku između dijaspore i ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su sada u EU (Cohen's $d = 0.617$), BiH (0.914) i od ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (Cohen's $d = 1.186$). Takođe, nalazimo intenzivnu razliku između ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i onih koje nisu u EU (Cohen's $d = -0.556$).

Kada se govori o zdravstvenim uslugama ne nalazimo statistički značajne razlike između ispitanika koji pripadaju navedenim kategorijama (tabela 27.1).

Izdvajanje iz porodičnog budžeta za školovanje je najveće u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (12.5%) i BiH (11.3%), a nešto manje u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (9.5%) i dijaspori (7.8%). Razlika između ovih grupa je statistički značajna (tabela 27.1) i tu je razlika između dijaspori i zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU prilično intenzivna (Cohen's $d = 0.637$).

Na zabavu najviše izdvajaju ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (10.9%), a slijede stanovnici BiH (9.2%), zemalja iz Jugoslavije koji su u EU (9.1%) i dijaspora (8.8%), a iako statističke analize pokazuju da je razlika između ovih kategorija statistički značajna – izgleda da je uzrok te značajnosti prije svega veličina uzorka (tabela 27.1).

Kada govorimo o kreditima, ne nalazimo statistički značajne razlike između ispitanika koji pripadaju navedenim kategorijama (tabela 27.1).

Među ispitanicima koji uspijevaju i nešto da uštede najviše je onih iz dijaspori (17.7%), a slijede ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (15.8%), zemalja iz Jugoslavije koje su u EU (13.7%) i BiH (13.4%), mada statistička analiza pokazuje da su razlike između ovih kategorija male, ali statistički značajne (tabela 27.1).

Tabela 27.1 *Post Hoc Tests*

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
Stanovanje	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-2.162	0.604	-3.581	-0.195	0.002
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-2.333	0.797	-2.927	-0.211	0.018
		Dijaspora	-5.624	0.482	-11.677	-0.503	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.171	0.956	-0.179	-0.014	0.998
		Dijaspora	-3.462	0.714	-4.847	-0.285	< .001
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-3.291	0.884	-3.723	-0.268	0.001

Prevoza	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	0.624	0.341	1.827	0.096	0.261
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.958	0.462	2.076	0.148	0.161
		Dijaspora	3.708	0.272	13.611	0.584	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.334	0.549	0.609	0.056	0.929
		Dijaspora	3.084	0.403	7.644	0.541	< .001
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	2.750	0.509	5.401	0.508	< .001
Ishranu	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	4.589	0.620	7.395	0.384	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-2.032	0.816	-2.489	-0.166	0.062
		Dijaspora	10.675	0.495	21.560	0.914	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	-6.620	0.980	-6.757	-0.556	< .001
		Dijaspora	6.086	0.734	8.290	0.617	< .001
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	12.707	0.906	14.031	1.186	< .001
Školovanje	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	1.746	0.528	3.308	0.217	0.005
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-1.181	0.723	-1.633	-0.144	0.360
		Dijaspora	3.519	0.443	7.937	0.445	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	-2.927	0.858	-3.412	-0.366	0.004
		Dijaspora	1.772	0.640	2.768	0.257	0.029
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	4.699	0.809	5.812	0.637	< .001
Zdravstvene usluge	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	0.610	0.369	1.653	0.103	0.349
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.250	0.496	-0.504	-0.041	0.958
		Dijaspora	0.511	0.288	1.775	0.087	0.286
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.860	0.593	-1.451	-0.157	0.468
		Dijaspora	-0.099	0.434	-0.229	-0.020	0.996
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	0.761	0.546	1.394	0.144	0.503
Zabavu	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	0.100	0.423	0.238	0.014	0.995
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-1.647	0.570	-2.892	-0.214	0.020
		Dijaspora	0.459	0.339	1.355	0.063	0.528
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	-1.747	0.676	-2.584	-0.206	0.048
		Dijaspora	0.358	0.498	0.720	0.052	0.889
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	2.106	0.627	3.357	0.268	0.004

Kredit	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-1.591	0.874	-1.820	-0.131	0.264
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.179	1.172	0.153	0.015	0.999
		Dijaspora	0.080	0.664	0.121	0.007	0.999
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	1.770	1.404	1.260	0.141	0.588
		Dijaspora	1.671	1.020	1.638	0.139	0.357
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-0.099	1.284	-0.077	-0.008	1.000
Štednju	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-0.312	0.950	-0.328	-0.025	0.988
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-2.355	1.360	-1.731	-0.186	0.308
		Dijaspora	-4.306	0.665	-6.479	-0.334	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	-2.043	1.581	-1.293	-0.146	0.568
		Dijaspora	-3.995	1.044	-3.825	-0.289	< .001
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-1.951	1.428	-1.367	-0.139	0.521

Tabela 28. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i mjesečnih rashoda na uzorku svih ispitanika

	Stanovanje	Prevoz	Ishrana	Školovanje	Zdravstvene usluge	Zabava	Kredit	Štednja
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.129**	-.078**	-.220**	-.098**	-.140**	.079**	-.130**	.100**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Kao što vidimo iz tabele 28, indeks zadovoljstva životom je u negativnoj i veoma slaboj, ali statistički značajnoj korelaciji sa izdacima za stanovanje ($r = -.129$; $p < .01$), prevozom ($r = -.078$; $p < .01$), ishranom ($r = -.220$; $p < .01$), školovanjem ($r = -.098$; $p < .01$), zdravstvom ($r = -.140$; $p < .01$) i kreditima ($r = .130$; $p < .01$), dok je korelacija pozitivna i veoma slaba kod izdataka za zabavu ($r = .130$; $p < .01$) i štednje ($r = .100$; $p < .01$).

Slična situacija je i kod pojedinih geografskih kategorija (tabela 29) gdje je korelacija između varijabli, kad su značajne, najčešće nega-

tivna i niska. U BiH nalazimo negativnu i nisku povezanost između zadovoljstva poslom i izdvajanja za stanovanje ($r = -.198$; $p < .01$), ishranu ($r = -.152$; $p < .01$), školovanje ($r = -.082$; $p < .01$), zdravstvene usluge ($r = -.146$; $p < .01$) i kredit ($r = -.057$; $p < .05$), dok je niska i pozitivna korelacija kod zabave ($r = .095$; $p < .01$). U zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u sastavu EU nalazimo negativnu i nisku korelaciju između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i troškova stanovanja ($r = -.107$; $p < .05$) i ishrane ($r = -.106$; $p < .05$), dok je korelacija pozitivna sa zabavom ($r = .126$; $p < .05$). Kod zemlja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU negativnu i nisku korelaciju nalazimo između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i izdvajanje za stanovanje ($r = -.228$; $p < .01$) i zdravstvene usluge ($r = -.206$; $p < .01$) i pozitivnu i nisku korelaciju sa štednjom ($r = .286$; $p < .01$). Kada se radi o dijaspori nalazimo nisku i negativnu korelaciju između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i troškova stanovanja ($r = -.168$; $p < .01$), prevoza ($r = -.185$; $p < .01$) i ishrane ($r = -.169$; $p < .01$).

Tabela 29. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i mjesečnih rashoda ispitanika kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona

	BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspora
	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	Indeks zadovoljstva životom
Stanovane	-.198**	-.107*	-.228**	-.168**
Prevoz	-.006	.063	-.037	-.185**
Ishrana	-.152**	-.106*	-.054	-.169**
Školovanje	-.082**	.019	.144	-.073
Zdravstvene usluge	-.146**	-.074	-.206*	-.048
Zabava	.095**	.126*	.091	.047
Kredit	-.057*	-.065	-.169	-.091
Štednja	.049	.035	.286**	.079

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

18.1 Diskusija nalaza

Kada se govori o stanarini, rezultati pokazuju da za nju najviše novca izdvajaju ispitanici iz dijaspore i to je otprilike četvrtina od ukupnih mjesečnih prihoda, dok ispitanici u BiH za stanarinu izdvajaju oko petine svojih prihoda. Interesantan je i podatak da su ispitanici i generalno, ali i po regionima manje zadovoljni životom što su im izdaci za stanarinu veći. Ta korelacija je najveća kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU.

Za prevoz najviše odvajaju stanovnici BiH i ta izdvajanja su oko deset posto od mjesečnog budžeta, dok za tu uslugu najmanje izdvajaju ispitanici iz dijaspore. Kada pogledamo vezu između izdvajanja za prevoz i indeksa zadovoljstva životom vidimo da postoji negativna i niska korelacija na uzorku svih ispitanika i kod onih iz dijaspore. Važno je naglasti da je ta korelacija viša kod ispitanika iz dijaspore, nego na cjelokupnom uzorku. Ovaj podatak je interesantan jer dijaspora najmanje izdvaja za prevoz, a samo kod njih to negativno utiče na zadovoljstvo životom.

Na hranu se mjesečno najviše troši u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU i BiH, oko trećina budžeta, a četvrtina budžeta kod ispitanika iz dijaspore. Zanimljivo je da što više ispitanici troše na ishranu to su manje zadovoljni životom i ovo pravilo važi za uzorak svih ispitanika, kao i za ispitanike iz BiH, zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i dijasporu. Korelacije jesu niske, ali su značajne.

Izdvajanje iz porodičnog budžeta za školovanje je najveće u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU i BiH, a nešto manje u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i dijaspori. Kada pogledamo povezanost između izdvajanja za školovanje i indeksa zadovoljstva životom, vidimo da je ona negativna i značajna za sve ispitanike i kod ispitanika iz BiH. U praksi to znači da što se više novca odvaja za školovanje to se smanjuje indeks zadovoljstva životom.

Kada se govori o zdravlju, za zdravlje se skoro podjednako izdvaja, između 6% i 7%, bez obzira na to iz kojeg regiona ispitanici dolaze. Što se više novca izdvaja za zdravlje, to su ispitanici manje zadovoljni

svojim životom. Ova veza je značajna kod uzorka svih ispitanika, kao i kod stanovnika BiH, gdje je ta povezanost veoma slaba, i ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU kod kojih je niska.

Za vraćanje kredita ispitanici izdvajaju od 13% do 21% od mjesečnih primanja ali te razlike nisu značajne između regiona. Za kredit stanovnici BiH odvajaju petinu svog mjesečnog budžeta, dok je taj iznos kod dijaspora nešto više od 13%. Sasvim očekivano – što se više novca izdvaja za vraćanje kredita, to su ispitanici manje zadovoljni životom. Ova povezanost je značajna, ali niska, kod uzorka svih ispitanika i kod stanovnika BiH.

Na zabavu mjesečno najviše izdvajaju ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji nisu u EU, a slijede stanovnici BiH, zemalja iz Jugoslavije koji su u EU i dijaspora, oko 9%. Iako statističke analize pokazuju da je razlika između ovih kategorija statistički značajna izgleda da je uzrok tome veličina uzorka. Kod uzorka svih ispitanika, kao i kod stanovnika BiH, nalazimo nisku i pozitivnu povezanost između izdvajanja novca za zabavu i indeksa zadovoljstva životom. Paraktično, to znači da zadovoljstvo životom raste što su ispitanici spremniji da više novca izdvoje za zabavu.

Među ispitanicima najveće štediše su ispitanici iz dijaspora koji uspiju da uštede nešto manje od petine mjesečnih primanja, a slijede ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU, zemalja iz Jugoslavije koji su u EU i BiH. Iako su razlike između njih statistički značajne, izgleda da je uzrok te značajnosti prije svega veličina uzorka. Korelacija između mogućnosti uštede je pozitivna i veoma slaba kada se radi o uzorku svih ispitanika, a niska kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU.

Kada pogledamo sveukupne rezultate možemo da kažemo da su oni prilično očekivani. Zadovoljstvo životom u jednoj mjeri zavisi od toga kako se kućni budžet troši. Naravno, i tu postoje regionalne razlike, ali najveći uticaj rashoda na sreću nalazimo kod stanovnika BiH. Takođe je interesantno da su troškovi ti koji u većoj mjeri utiču na (ne)zadovoljstvo životom, nego zabava i štednja.

19. Mjesečno izdvajanje za pomoć porodici/rodbini i zadovoljstvo životom

U ovom poglavlju vidjećemo da li i koliko ispitanici iz pojedinih regiona izdvajaju novca za pomoć porodici ili rodbini i da li je to i u kojoj mjeri povezano sa njihovim indeksom zadovoljstva životom.

Prije svega, važno je znati da 44.8% naših ispitanika tvrdi da slanjem novca pomažu porodici i rodbini.

	N	M	SD	SE	F	p	η^2
BiH	1485	129.667	154.631	4.013	44.295	< .001	0.057
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	162	215.062	358.194	28.142			
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	92	111.467	95.251	9.931			
Dijaspورا	481	250.208	298.736	13.621			

Tabela 30. Mjesečno izdvajanje novca za pomoć porodici i rodbini kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona (u eurima)

Rezultati prikazani u tabeli 30 pokazuju da dijaspora izdvaja najviše novca kojim pomažu porodici ili rodbini (250 eura), a slijede stanovnici zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji su u EU (215 eura), BiH (129 eura) i osobe iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (111 euro). Ova razlika u prosječnom izdvajanju za pomoć je statistički značajna, ali i očekivana ako znamo da ljudi koji žive u dijaspori imaju i najveće prihode.

Kada pogledamo razlike unutar pojedinih kategorija (tabela 30.1) vidimo da su razlike između stanovnika BiH prilično intenzivne u odnosu na dijasporu (Cohen's $d = -0.604$). Razlika je intenzivna (Cohen's $d = -0.502$) između ispitanika iz dijaspore i onih koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije, ali ne i u EU.

Tabela 30.1 *Post Hoc Tests*

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
Ukupani mjesečni prihodi svih članova domaćinstva	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-85.394	17.559	-4.863	-0.462	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	18.200	22.801	0.798	0.120	0.855
		Dijaspora	-120.541	11.134	-10.827	-0.604	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	103.594	27.705	3.739	0.355	0.001
		Dijaspora	-35.146	19.278	-1.823	-0.112	0.263
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-138.741	24.149	-5.745	-0.502	< .001

Tabela 31. *Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i izdvajanje novca za pomoć porodici i rodbini na uzorku svih ispitanika*

	Izdvajanje novca za pomoć porodici i rodbini
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.074**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

U tabeli 31 vidimo da je korelacija između zadovoljstva životom i izdvajanja novca za pomoć porodici/ rodbini pozitivna, niska i značajna ($r = .074$; $p < .01$).

Kada pogledamo korelaciju po regionima, vidimo da postoji niska i negativna veza između izdvajanja novca za pomoć porodici i rodbini i opšteg zadovoljstva životom kod ispitanika zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU ($r = -.187$; $p < .01$). Pozitivnu i nisku korelaciju između izdvajanja novca za pomoć prijateljima i rodbini i indeksa zadovoljstva životom nalazimo i kod ispitanika iz bivše Jugoslavije koji nisu u EU, ali ta razlika nije statistički značajna ($r = .183$).

Tabela 32. *Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i izdvajanje novca za pomoć porodici i rodbini kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona*

		Izdvajanje novca za pomoć porodici i rodbini
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.041
Ex Yu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	- .187**
Ex Yu nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.183
Dijaspورا	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.023

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

19.1 Diskusija nalaza

Od ukupnog broja ispitanika, njih 45% šalje novčanu pomoć porodici i rodbini. Potpuno očekivano, ispitanici iz dijasپore izdvajaju najviše novca za pomoć, jer oni imaju i najveće prihode, a slijede ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, a potom stanovnici BiH i oni iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU.

Kada pogledamo cjelokupni uzorak, sve ispitanike, vidimo da sa porastom količine novca koji se šalje porodici i rodbini raste i indeks zadovoljstva životom. Istina, ova veza je slaba, ali je značajna. Istraživanja u SAD Dunna, Akina i Nortona iz 2008. godine je pokazalo da trošenje novca na druge ljude utiče na povećanje nivo sreće kod ispitanika koji troše novac. Interesantno je da nalazimo negativnu, ali nisku korelaciju, između ove dvije varijable kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije, što praktično znači da što ispitanici izdvajaju više novca za pomoć porodici i rodbini, to je niže njihovo zadovoljstvo životom. Ostaje otvoreno pitanje zašto je to tako, da li je to za njih veliko finansijsko opterećenje ili je u pitanju nešto drugo trebalo bi dalje istraživati.

20. Bračno stanje i zadovoljstvo životom

U ovom poglavlju ćemo vidjeti da li su više zadovoljni svojim životom ispitanici koji su u braku ili oni koji nisu. Takođe ćemo vidjeti da li ta razlika postoji i u pojedinim regionima.

Tabela 33. Indeks zadovoljstva životom svih ispitanika s obzirom da li su u braku ili ne

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p	Cohen's d
Samci	1364	5.522	2.369	0.064	-3.710	4326.000	< .001	-0.121
U braku	2964	5.812	2.401	0.044				

Kao što možemo da vidimo u tabeli 33, osobe koje su u braku imaju izraženiji indeks zadovoljstva životom u odnosu na samce. Ova razlika je statistički značajna, ali ovo moramo uzeti sa velikom rezervom imamo li u vidu da je Cohen's d slabog intenziteta.

Tabela 34. Zadovoljstvo životom kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona s obzirom na to da li su u braku ili ne

		N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
BiH	Samci	1013	5.2556	2.34649	.07373	-1.445	3038	.149
	U braku	2027	5.3846	2.30862	.05128			
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Samci	125	6.2680	2.04724	.18311	-1.050	388	.294
	U braku	265	6.5108	2.16975	.13329			
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Samci	76	5.2434	2.24999	.25809	-1.076	208	.283
	U braku	134	5.5886	2.22352	.19208			
Dijaspora	Samci	143	6.9274	2.17588	.18196	-1.072	668	.284
	U braku	527	7.1599	2.33170	.10157			

Iz tabele 34 možemo da vidimo da se osobe koje su u braku ne razlikuju od osoba koje to nisu, bez obzira na region iz kojeg dolaze, u stepenu indeksa zadovoljstva životom.

20.1 *Diskusija nalaza*

Dobijeni rezultati su pokazali da se osobe koje su udate ili oženjene međusobno ne razlikuju u zadovoljstvu životom, bez obzira na to da li se rezultat odnosi na sve ispitanike ili na pojedine regione.

Rezultati koje smo dobili u našem istraživanju se djelimično poklapaju sa istraživanjima u svijetu. Zašto djelimično? Zato što istraživači u svijetu nalaze statistički značajne razlike između osoba u braku i samaca (Diener, Suh, Lucas, Smith, 1999; Verbakel, 2012). Interesantno je spomenuti istraživanje iz Srbije koje je pokazalo da su svojim životom najviše zadovoljni samci i osobe u kohabitaciji, dok su osobe u braku bile zadovoljnije samo od osoba koje su izgubile bračnog partnera (Jovanović, 2016). U zavisnosti od toga kako društvo percipira brak, zavisi i njegov uticaj na zadovoljstvo pojedinca. U tradicionalnim društvima gdje se na brak gleda kao na nešto važno, oženjeni muškarci i udate žene su zadovoljnije svojim životom od samaca, dok se u društvima koja na brak gledaju liberalno ta razlika ne nalazi (Vanassche, Swicegood, Matthijs, 2013). Istraživanja Lucasa i Clarka (2006) pokazuje da zadovoljstvo životom raste do samog stupanja u brak, da bi kasnije se vratilo na nivo prije sklapanja braka.

21. Veličina porodice i zadovoljstvo životom

Sada ćemo vidjeti koliko članova porodice imaju ispitanici iz različitih kategorija i kako je to povezano sa zadovoljstvom životom.

Tabela 35. Broj članova porodice kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona

		N	M	SD	SE	F	p	n ²
Koliko osoba živi u Vašem domaćinstvu?	BiH	3485	3.27	.082	.022	6.683	< .001	0.004
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	444	3.20	.047	.067			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	248	3.10	.019	.082			
	Dijaspora	765	3.05	.018	.047			
Od tog broja, koliko je djece do 6 godina starosti?	BiH	993	1.29	.077	.018	0.300	0.826	0.001
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	110	1.27	.037	.059			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	51	1.31	.015	.077			
	Dijaspora	206	1.33	.031	.037			
Koliko je djece starosti od 6 do 10 godina?	BiH	652	1.17	.056	.031	0.682	0.563	0.002
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	106	1.14	.041	.034			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	30	1.10	.023	.056			
	Dijaspora	157	1.14	.022	.041			
A koliko je djece starosti od 10 do 17 godina?	BiH	786	1.30	.059	.022	1.427	0.233	0.004
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	115	1.39	.061	.058			
	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	64	1.25	.020	.059			
	Dijaspora	204	1.38	.866	.061			

Kad pogledamo tabelu 35 vidimo da između ispitanika postoji statistički značajna razlika između pojedinačnih kategorija samo kod ukupnog broja osoba u domaćinstvu. Porodice sa najviše članova nalazimo u BiH, a slijede porodice iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su članice EU i oni koji nisu članice EU. Porodice u dijaspori imaju najmanje članova.

Interesantno je da post hoc analiza nalazi značajne razlike između ispitanika iz dijaspori i BiH, ali s obzirom na to da je intenzitet Cohen's $d = 0.169$ nizak nećemo ih detaljnije razmatrati.

Tabela 35.1 *Post Hoc Tests*

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
Koliko osoba živi u Vašem domaćinstvu?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	0.071	0.066	1.071	0.054	0.708
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.166	0.086	1.922	0.127	0.219
		Dijaspora	0.221	0.052	4.213	0.169	< .001
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.095	0.104	0.913	0.069	0.798
		Dijaspora	0.150	0.078	1.915	0.112	0.222
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	0.055	0.096	0.573	0.043	0.940
Od tog boja, koliko je djece do 6 godina starosti?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	0.017	0.057	0.306	0.030	0.990
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.024	0.081	-0.293	-0.042	0.991
		Dijaspora	-0.035	0.043	-0.816	-0.063	0.847
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.041	0.095	-0.430	-0.069	0.973
		Dijaspora	-0.053	0.067	-0.789	-0.093	0.859
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-0.012	0.088	-0.131	-0.021	0.999
Koliko je djece starosti od 6 do 10 godina?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	0.073	0.077	0.948	0.102	0.779
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.110	0.110	0.995	0.150	0.752
		Dijaspora	0.050	0.064	0.773	0.066	0.867
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.037	0.129	0.283	0.124	0.992
		Dijaspora	-0.024	0.093	-0.256	-0.040	0.994
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-0.060	0.122	-0.496	-0.094	0.960
A koliko je djece starosti od 10 do 17 godina?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-0.089	0.067	-1.325	-0.141	0.547
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.053	0.087	0.607	0.085	0.930
		Dijaspora	-0.080	0.053	-1.513	-0.116	0.430
	Ex Yu u EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.141	0.104	1.354	0.248	0.528
		Dijaspora	0.009	0.078	0.115	0.011	0.999
	Ex Yu nisu u EU	Dijaspora	-0.132	0.096	-1.381	-0.167	0.512

Tabela 36. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i broja članova porodice na uzorku svih ispitanika

	Ukupan broj članova porodice	Djeca do 6 godina	Djeca od 7 do 10 godina	Djeca od 11 do 17 godina
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.034*	-.003	.012	.019

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

U tabeli 36 vidimo da postoji veoma slaba i pozitivna korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i veličine porodice ($r = .034$; $p < .05$). Kada pogledamo korelacije po regionima (tebla 37), nalazimo veoma slabu i pozitivnu vezu između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i ukupnog broja članova porodice u BiH ($r = .068$; $p < .01$).

Tabela 37. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i broja članova porodice ispitanika iz različitih geografskih regiona

		Ukupan broj članova porodice	Djeca do 6 godina	Djeca od 7 do 10 godina	Djeca od 11 do 17 godina
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.068**	.014	.059	-.033
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.063	.004	-.108	-.053
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.052	-.057	-.103	.108
Dijaspora	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.018	-.091	-.146	.121

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

21.1 Diskusija nalaza

Prije svega, moramo naglasiti da prosječna porodica, bez obzira na to iz kojeg regiona dolazi, ima oko 3 člana. Kada se govori o poveznosti veličine porodice i indeksa zadovoljstva životom nalazimo statistički značajnu, veoma nisku i pozitivnu korelaciju između ukupnog broja članova porodice i indeksa zadovoljstva životom kod uzorka svih ispitanika i stanovnika BiH.

Kada se pogledaju korelacije između broja djece i zadovoljstva životom, ne nailazimo na statistički značajne razlike, što je u skladu sa nalazima dobijenim u drugim istraživanjima. Rezultati dobijeni u svijetu jasno pokazuju da djeca ljude ne čine više sretnim. Analiza Stanca iz 2012. godine pokazuje da su ljudi bez djece zadovoljniji životom od osoba sa djecom. Ove rezultate su dobili i Hansen (2012) i Clark i Georgellis (2013). Istraživači ove rezultate najčešće objašnjavaju na dva načina, prvo da rođenje djece kod roditelja izaziva povećanu brigu, stres, umor, nedostatak sna, ekonomske probleme, prekid karijere i sl. S druge strane, roditelji su primorani da prihvataju neke životne uloge koje nisu željeli i koje ih ne čine sretnima.

22. Članstvo u organizacijama i zadovoljstvo životom

U ovom poglavlju vidjećemo da li su (i koliko) ispitanici iz različitih regiona članovi nekih organizacija i da li po tome međusobno razlikuju. Ispitanicima je ponuđeno članstvo u sedam organizacija, ali je data i osma opcija kao otvorena mogućnost da sami upišu da li su članovi neke organizacije koja nije spomenuta. Pored frekvenci koje ćemo analizirati, vidjećemo da li se ispitanici međusobno razlikuju između prosječnog broja pripadanja organizacijama. Na kraju ćemo vidjeti da li postoji veza između zadovoljstva životom i pripadanja organizacijama.

Kada analiziramo članstvo ispitanika u političkim partijama vidimo da je u BiH najveći procenat ispitanika koji su članovi političkih

partija (13.4%), a slijede ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu članice EU (9.6%), potom dijaspora (7.4%) i ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su članice EU (6.6%). Kada govorimo o ekološkim organizacijama, vidimo da je svaki deseti ispitanik iz dijaspore (11.9%) i BiH (9.3%) član ove organizacije. Među ispitanicima koji su iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji ne žive u EU nalazimo 8.9% ekologa, a među onima koji žive u EU nalazimo njih 6.2%. Članstvo u humanitarnim organizacijama najviše je prisutno kod ispitanika koji žive izvan teritorije bivše Jugoslavije (36.6%), a slijedi stanovnici BiH (24.5%) i ispitanici koji su iz država bivše Jugoslavije koji jesu ili nisu u EU (oko 20%). Članove sportskih društava nalazimo u najvećem procentu u dijaspori (29%), potom u BiH (20.8%), zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (18.9%) i najmanje kod onih koji nisu u EU (13.6%). Kada se radi o kulturno- umjetničkim društvima otprilike svaki deseti ispitanik iz svakog od četiri regiona je njegov član. Članova vjerskih udruženja najviše je u dijaspori (12.5%) i BiH (10%), a najmanje u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (7.4%) i zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (5.1%). Kada se radi o pripadnicima lovačkih i ribolovačkih udruženja, možemo reći da je procenat njihovih članova prilično mali i da taj procenat za dijasporu iznosi 5.2%, zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU BiH 4.3% i BiH 3.6%. Ove razlike jesu statistički značajne za sve kategorije, izuzev kulturno- umjetničkih društava (tabela 38).

Tabela 38. Članstvo u nekoj od organizacija kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona?
(samo odgovor Da)

		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspora	V	df	p
Političke stranke	N	442	28	23	54	48.867	6	.000
	%	13.4	6.6	9.6	7.4			
Ekološke organizacije	N	292	26	21	85	13.529	6	.035
	%	9.3	6.2	8.9	11.9			

Humanitarne organizacije	N	775	86	51	266	63.245	6	.000
	%	24.5	20.5	21.6	36.6			
Sportskog društva	N	653	79	32	207	36.528	6	.000
	%	20.8	18.9	13.6	29.0			
Kulturno-umjetničkog društva	N	333	42	20	83	4.164	6	.655
	%	10.8	10.0	8.5	11.7			
Vjerskog udruženja	N	311	31	12	89	17.883	6	.007
	%	10.0	7.4	5.1	12.5			
Lovačkog ili ribolovačkog društva	N	111	4	10	37	16.858	6	.010
	%	3.6	1.0	4.3	5.2			

Tabela 39. Prosječan broj članstava u organizacijama kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona

	N	M	SD	SE	F	p	n ²
BiH	392	2.714	.12730	.00643	.784	< .503	0.004
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	52	2.788	.13008	.01804			
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	27	2.639	.16013	.03082			
Dijaspورا	59	3.114	.16637	.02166			

Kada se govori o pripadnosti ispitanika nekoj organizaciji vidimo da je ta razlika nije statistički značajna (tabela 39). Članstvo u organizacijama je najmanje prisutno kod ispitanika koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (2.63), potom u BiH (2.71) i onih koji su u EU (2.78). Najangažovaniji su građani iz dijaspore (3.11).

Tabela 40. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i članstvo u organizacijama na uzorku svih ispitanika

	Članstvo u organizacijama
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.077

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva i članstva u organizacijama kod svih ispitanika je pozitivna, niska i nije statistički značajna (tabela 40).

Kada pogledamo korelacije po regionima, ni tu ne nalazimo statistički značajne razlike (tabela 41).

Tabela 41. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i članstvo u organizacijama kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona

		Članstvo u organizacijama
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.038
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.166
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.041
Dijaspora	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.007

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

22.1 Diskusija nalaza

Kad se govori o pripadnosti građana određenim organizacijama možemo reći da se ispitanici iz regiona međusobno ne razlikuju značajno, iako ih najviše nalazimo u dijaspori. Ipak, postoji razlika u strukturi članstva u pojedinim organizacijama. Ispitanici iz dijaspore su najviše članovi ekoloških, humanitarnih i sportskih udruženja, dok u BiH nalazimo najviše članova političkih partija. Da stanovnici BiH „vole” članstvo u političkim partijama pokazalo je i istraživanje Berta Šalaja iz 2009. godine koje je pokazalo da je 18% stanovnika ove zemlje član neke političke partije, što se prije svega može povazati sa klijentelizmom i partokaratijom koja je u velikoj mjeri prisutna u BiH³⁹. Nismo

³⁹ <https://ba.voanews.com/a/indeks-klijentelizma-media-circle/4310448.html>

našli značajnu povezanost između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i članstva u organizacijama, ali ta veza je pozitivna i najviše prisutna kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU.

Pripadnost grupama je sastavni dio ljudske egzistencije i nedostatak takvih odnosa može imati vrlo štetne posljedice na mentalno i fizičko zdravlje ljudi (Putnam, 2000; Jetten i sar., 2012). Kroz brojne studije, istraživači su pokazali da su pojedinci koji su više društveno integrirani skloniji živjeti sretnijim, zdravijim i dužim životima (Berkman i Syme, 1979; Cohen i sar., 1997; Glass i sar., 2006; Wilson i sar., 2007). Istraživanja koja se bave osjećanjem lične sreće i socijalnim kapitalom pokazuju njegov pozitivan uticaj na ličnu sreću, ali moramo biti oprezniji kada se govori o pojedinim segmentima socijalnog kapitala, kao i sreće. Istraživanja (Rodriguez- Pose i von Berlepsch, 2014) nalaze povezanost, u većoj ili manjoj mjeri, između socijalnog kapitala i zadovoljstva životom, ali ne i kod članstva u političkim partijama. Istovremeno Elgar i sar. (2011) nalaze pozitivnu i jaku korelaciju između pripadanja organizacijama i grupama i zadovoljstva životom i ta je veza bila snažnija u društvima sa nižim socijalnim kapitalom. Ipak, uticaj socijalnog kapitala je izgleda mnogo veći u bogatijim društvima, dok su u siromašnijim društvima prihod važniji za individualnu sreću (Bjørnskov, 2003).

23. Korištenje slobodnim vremenom i zadovoljstvo životom

U okviru naše analize pokazaćemo kako ispitanici iz pojedinačnih regiona najčešće provode svoje slobodno vrijeme. Takođe, vidjećemo povezanost između načina korištenja slobodnim vremenom svih ispitanika po pojedinačnim geografskim područjima i indeksa zadovoljstva životom.

Kada pogledamo dobijene rezultate (tabela 42), vidimo da ispitanici bez obzira na region u kojem žive slobodno vrijeme provode skoro identično.

Tabela 42. *Pet najčešćih načina na koji ispitanici iz regiona svakodnevno provode svoje slobodno vrijeme u procentima (%)*

	BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspora
Korištenjem interneta	75.8	82.7	78.6	74.1
Druženje sa porodicom	68.4	62.8	64.9	65.9
Odmaranje u kući	65.9	61.7	64.9	63.0
Slušanje muzike	52.4	62.4	57.7	56.6
Gledanje TV-a	51.8	53.2	46.0	46.8

Razlike između regiona nalazimo u intenzitetu, tj. procentu upražnjavanja pojedinih aktivnosti, tako da internet najviše koriste ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, te zajedno sa ispitanicima iz BiH najviše gledaju i televiziju. Muziku najviše slušaju ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji su u EU, a najmanje ispitanici iz BiH.

Najviše čitaju ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU. Sa prijateljima se više druže ispitanici koji žive u nekoj od država bivše Jugoslavije nego oni koji žive u dijaspori. Sportske aktivnosti najviše upražnjavaju ispitanici iz dijaspore (dodatak 1).

Ako pogledmo veze između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i pojedinih načina korištenja slobodnog vremena svih ispitanika (tabela 43), vidimo da su korelacije niske ali značajne. Pozitivne korelacije nalazimo između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i druženja sa prijateljima ($r = .055$; $p < .01$), izleta u prirodu ($r = .053$; $p < .01$), bavljenja sportom ($r = .109$; $p < .01$), zabave ($r = .036$; $p < .05$) i upražnjavanjem religijskih sadržaja ($r = .046$; $p < .01$). Negativnu korelaciju nalazimo između zadovoljstva životom i gledanja TV-a ($r = -.058$; $p < .01$), čitanja ($r = -.031$; $p < .05$) i odlaska u pozorište ($r = .036$; $p < .05$).

Kada se govori o korelaciji između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i korištenja slobodnog vremena kod ispitanika BiH (tabela 44), nalazimo nisku i pozitivnu korelaciju kod druženja sa prijateljima ($r = .099$; $p < .01$), druženja sa rodbinom ($r = .055$; $p < .01$), druženja sa porodicom ($r =$

.047; $p < .01$), bavljenja sportom ($r = .088$; $p < .01$), zabave ($r = .054$; $p < .01$) i upražnjavanja religije ($r = .110$; $p < .01$), dok negativnu korelaciju nalazimo kod gledanja TV-a ($r = -.063$; $p < .01$).

Kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji su sada u EU (tabela 45) nalazimo pozitivnu korelaciju između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i druženja sa prijateljima ($r = .155$; $p < .01$), izleta u prirodi ($r = .130$; $p < .05$), gledanja TV-a ($r = .107$; $p < .05$) i bavljenja sportom ($r = .137$; $p < .01$). Niska i negativna korelacija je prisutna kod političkih i društvenih aktivnosti ($r = -.103$; $p < .05$).

Kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (tabela 46) nalazimo pozitivne korelacije između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i druženja sa porodicom ($r = .159$; $p < .05$), dok nisku i negativnu korelaciju nalazimo kod gledanja TV-a ($r = -.161$; $p < .05$) i korištenja interneta ($r = -.177$; $p < .01$).

Među ispitanicima iz dijaspor (tabela 47) nalazimo niske, negativne, ali značajne korelacije između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i gledanja TV-a ($r = -.085$; $p < .05$), putovanja ($r = -.186$; $p < .01$), odlaska u kino ($r = -.091$; $p < .05$) i odlaska u muzej ($r = -.97$; $p < .05$).

Tabela 43. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i korištenja slobodnim vremenom kod na uzorku svih ispitanika

	Indeks zadovoljstva životom
Druženje s prijateljima	.055**
Druženje s rodbinom	.002
Izleti u prirodu	.053**
Gledam TV	-.058**
Druženje s porodicom	.027
Bavljenje sportom	.109**
Zabava	.036*
Putovanja	.020
Čitanje	-.031*
Bavljenje nekim hobijem	-.001

Učenje stranih jezika	.024
Slušanje muzike	-.002
Odlasci u kino	.028
Odlasci u pozorište	-.036*
Internet (facebook, igrice i dr.)	.004
Posjećivanje sportskih takmičenja	.004
Odmaranje u kući	-.006
Politicka i drustvena aktivnost	-.005
Religiozni sadržaji	.046**
Odlazak u muzej	.009

Tabela 44. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i korištenja slobodnim vremenom kod ispitanika iz BiH

	Indeks zadovoljstva životom
Druženje s prijateljima	.099**
Druženje s rodbinom	.055**
Izleti u prirodu	.011
Gledam TV	-.063**
Druženje s porodicom	.047**
Bavljenje sportom	.088**
Zabava	.054**
Putovanja	.027
Čitanje	-.029
Bavljenje nekim hobbijem	-.028
Učenje stranih jezika	-.018
Slušanje muzike	-.034
Odlasci u kino	.024
Odlasci u pozorište	-.027

Internet (facebook, igrice i dr.)	.005
Posjećivanje sportskih takmičenja	.001
Odmaranje u kući	-.014
Politicka i društvena aktivnost	.032
Religiozni sadržaji	.11**
Odlazak u muzej	-.004

Tabela 45. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i korištenja slobodnim vremenom kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji su u EU

	Indeks zadovoljstva životom
Druženje s prijateljima	.155**
Druženje s rodbinom	.070
Izleti u prirodu	.130*
Gledam TV	.107*
Druženje s porodicom	-.026
Bavljenje sportom	.137**
Zabava	.015
Putovanja	.012
Čitanje	-.020
Bavljenje nekim hobbijem	.091
Učenje stranih jezika	.008
Slušanje muzike	.046
Odlasci u kino	.081
Odlasci u pozorište	.035
Internet (facebook, igrice i dr.)	.071
Posjećivanje sportskih takmičenja	-.007
Odmaranje u kući	.070
Politicka i društvena aktivnost	-.103*
Religiozni sadržaji	.025
Odlazak u muzej	-.064

Tabela 46. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i korištenja slobodnim vremenom kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji nisu u EU

	Indeks zadovoljstva životom
Druženje s prijateljima	.118
Druženje s rodbinom	.011
Izleti u prirodu	.048
Gledam TV	-.161*
Druženje s porodicom	.159*
Bavljenje sportom	.089
Zabava	.041
Putovanja	.035
Čitanje	-.088
Bavljenje nekim hobbijem	.006
Učenje stranih jezika	-.017
Slušanje muzike	.017
Odlasci u kino	.005
Odlasci u pozorište	-.121
Internet (facebook, igrice i dr.)	-.177**
Posjećivanje sportskih takmičenja	.019
Odmaranje u kući	-.024
Politicka i drustvena aktivnost	-.079
Religiozni sadržaji	-.054
Odlazak u muzej	-.107

Tabela 47. Dijaspورا

	Indeks zadovoljstva životom
Druženje s prijateljima	-.004
Druženje s rodbinom	-.074
Izleti u prirodu	-.060
Gledam TV	-.085*
Druženje s porodicom	.025
Bavljenje sportom	.044

Zabava	-.076
Putovanja	-.186**
Čitanje	-.029
Bavljenje nekim hobbijem	.002
Učenje stranih jezika	-.033
Slušanje muzike	.009
Odlasci u kino	-.091*
Odlasci u pozorište	-.073
Internet (facebook, igrice i dr.)	.027
Posjećivanje sportskih takmičenja	-.007
Odmaranje u kući	.021
Politicka i drustvena aktivnost	-.078
Religiozni sadržaji	-.054
Odlazak u muzej	-.097*

23.1 Diskusija nalaza

Bez obzira na region u kojem žive naši ispitanici, oni na sličan način provode svoje slobodno vrijeme, a to praktično znači da se bave: korištenjem interneta, druženjem sa porodicom, odmaranjem kod kuće, slušanjem muzike i gledanjem TV-a. Razlike nalazimo u intenzitetu, tj. procentu upražnjavanja tih aktivnosti, tako da internet najviše koriste ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, dok oni uz ispitanike iz BiH najviše gledaju televiziju. Muziku najviše slušaju ispitanici iz zemlja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, a najmanje ispitanici iz BiH. Najviše čitaju ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU. Sa prijateljima se više druže ispitanici koji žive u nekoj od država bivše Jugoslavije nego oni koji žive u dijaspori. Sportske aktivnosti najviše upražnjavaju ispitanici iz dijaspore.

Kada pogledamo rezultate na cijelom uzorku ispitanika, vidimo da je zadovoljstvo životom kod ispitanika veće što se oni više druže sa prijateljima, što češće odlaze u prirodu i što se više bave sportom. Takođe, češći izlasci i češće upražnjavanje religije pozitivno se odražava-

ju na indeks zadovoljstva životom. S druge strane, mnogo gledanja TV-a, čitanje i odlazak u pozorište loše utiču na njihovo zadovoljstvo životom. Važno je imati na umu da su ove korelacije veoma niske, mada su statistički značajne.

Slična je situacija i u BiH, gdje sa porastom druženja sa prijateljima, rodbinom i porodicom, bavljenja sportom, izlascima i upražnjavanje religije raste i zadovoljstvo životom, dok gledanje televizije to zadovoljstvo smanjuje.

Kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji su u EU indeks zadovoljstva životom raste sa porastom druženja sa prijateljima, odlaskom na izlete u prirodu, gledanjem TV-a i bavljenjem sportom, a opada sa porastom političkih i društvenih aktivnosti.

Kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji nisu u EU nalazmo pozitivnu vezu između druženja sa porodicom i zadovoljstva životom, dok gledanje TV-a i korištenje interneta na njega negativno utiče.

Što ispitanici iz dijaspeore više gledaju TV, putuju, idu u kino i muzeje, to je njihovo zadovoljstvo životom manje.

Slobodne aktivnosti su presudne jer su usko povezane sa životnim zadovoljstvom i kvalitetom života kako starijih tako i mladih osoba u savremenom dobu (Lee i Yeong, 2012). Način na koji se odrasle osobe koriste svojim slobodnim vremenom bitno je drugačiji od načina kako mladi provode svoje slobodno vrijeme za „punjenje baterija” i oporavak od fizičkog i mentalnog umora (Kwon i Cho, 2000). Istraživanja socijalnog kapitala (Rodriguez – Pose i von Berlepsch, 2014) su pokazala da je druženje sa porodicom i prijateljima pozitivno povezano sa osjećanjem sreće, što jeste u skladu sa našim nalazima.

24. Konzumiranje štetnih supstanci i i zadovoljstvo životom

U ovom poglavlju ćemo vidjeti koliko je konzumiranje štetnih supstanci prisutno u svakodnevnom životu ispitanika iz četiri geografske regije i kako je to povezano sa indeksom zadovoljstva životom.

Tabela 48. Učestalost konzumiranja štetnih supstanci u procentima (%), (svakodnevno i nekoliko puta sedmično) kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona

	BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspora
Pivo	11.4	9.1	13.3	14.5
Vino	5.1	12.7	8.3	9.4
Žestoka alkoholna pića	3.0	1.6	3.3	3.7
Energetska pića	3.4	2.4	2.5	6.7
Gazirana pića	17.1	10.9	20.3	20.4
Lijekovi za smirenje	5.6	4.4	9.1	2.1
Cigarete	35.2	33.1	38.6	29.5
Marihuana	3.1	1.1	3.0	2.7

U BiH svaki treći ispitanik (35.2%) konzumira cigarete svakodnevno ili nekoliko puta sedmično, dok 17.1% pije gazirana pića, 11.4% pivo, a 5.6% uzima lijekove za smirenje. Kada se govori o ispitanicima iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU vidimo da njih trećina (33.1%) puši cigarete, 12.7% pije vino, 10.9% gazirana pića, 9.1% pivo i 4.4% konzumira lijekove za smirenje. U zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU nalazmo 38.6% onih koji svakodnevno ili nekoliko puta sedmično konzumiraju cigarete, dok 20.3% pije gazirana pića, 13.3% pivo, 8.3% vino i 9.1% lijekove za smirenje. Ispitanici iz dijasporе najviše puše cigarete (29.5%), dok svaki peti (20.4%) pije gazirana pića. Pivo pije 14.5%, vino (9.4%), a energetska pića 6.7% ispitanika.

Tabela 49. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i konzumiranja štetnih supstanci kod uzorka svih ispitanika i po različitim regionima

	Svi ispitanici	BiH	Zemalje bivše Jugoslavije koji su u EU	Zemalje bivše Jugoslavije koji nisu u EU	Dijaspora
	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	Indeks zadovoljstva životom
Pivo	.009	-.022	.048	.086	.029
Vino	.084**	.039*	.114*	.103	.069
Žestoka alkoholna pića	.058**	.017	.116*	.052	.057
Energetska pića	.042**	.033	-.009	.065	.012
Gazirana pića	.056**	.072**	.007	.095	.009
Lijekovi za smirenje	-.231**	-.223**	-.199**	-.191**	-.123**
Cigarete	-.074**	-.067**	-.061	-.026	-.045
Marihuana	-.025	-.013	.043	-.050	-.040

U tabeli 49 možemo da vidimo povezanost indeksa zadovoljstva životom i konzumiranja štetnih supstanci na uzorku svih ispitanika, gdje nalazimo pozitivne, niske i statistički značajne veze kod vina ($r = .084$; $p < .01$), žestokih alkoholnih pića ($r = .058$; $p < .01$), energetske pića ($r = .042$; $p < .01$) i gaziranih pića ($r = .056$; $p < .01$). Negativna, niska, ali značajna veza postoji kod lijekova za smirenje ($r = -.0231$; $p < .01$) i cigareta ($r = -.074$; $p < .01$).

Kada pogledamo korelacije samo kod stanovnika BiH, možemo da vidimo da postoje niske i pozitivne veze između opšteg zadovoljstva životom i konzumiranja vina ($r = .039$; $p < .05$) i gaziranih pića ($r = .072$; $p < .01$), kao i negativna i niska kod lijekova za smirenje ($r = -.223$; $p < .01$) i cigareta ($r = -.067$; $p < .01$).

Kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU nalazimo nisku i pozitivnu korelaciju između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i

konzumiranja vina ($r = .114$; $p < .05$) i konzumiranja žestokih alkoholnih pića ($r = .116$; $p < .05$), kao i negativnu i nisku povezanost sa uzimanjem lijekova za smirenje ($r = -.199$; $p < .01$).

Kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji nisu u EU nalazimo nisku i negativnu korelaciju između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i korištenja lijekova za smirenje ($r = -.191$; $p < .01$).

Među ispitanicima iz dijaspore nalazimo nisku i negativnu korelaciju između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i korištenja lijekova za smirenje ($r = -.123$; $p < .01$).

24.1 Diskusija nalaza

Kada govorimo o konzumiranju štetnih supstanci, vidimo da se u svim regionima najviše konzumiraju cigarete, i to najviše u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU i BiH. Gazirana pića su na drugom mjestu po konzumiranju i najviše se piju u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU i u dijaspori. Na trećem mjestu je pivo koje se najviše pije među ispitanicima iz dijaspore i među onima koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU. Vino se nalazi na četvrtom mjestu i najviše se pije u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i u dijaspori, a slijede lijekovi za smirenje koji se najviše koriste u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU i u BiH. Energetska pića najviše konzumira dijaspora i to duplo više od ostalih regiona. Žestoka alkoholna pića se najviše piju u dijaspori. Marihuana se najviše puši u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU, u BiH i u dijaspori.

Kada pogledamo korelacije indeksa zadovoljstva životom i konzumiranja štetnih supstanci kod svih ispitanika, vidimo da sa porastom konzumiranja vina, žestokih alkoholnih i gaziranih pića, raste i indeks zadovoljstva životom, dok to zadovoljstvo opada kod većeg konzumiranja lijekova za smirenje i cigareta.

Slična je situacija i u BiH gdje indeks zadovoljstva životom raste sa porastom konzumiranja vina i gaziranih pića, a opada što se više konzumiraju lijekovi za smirenje i cigarete. Kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše

Jugoslavije koje su u EU indeks zadovoljstva životom raste sa porastom konzumiranja vina i žestokih alkoholnih pića, dok se smanjuje sa uzimanjem lijekova za smirenje. Među ispitanicima iz dijaspora i zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU indeks zadovoljstva životom opada sa većom potrošnjom lijekova za smirenje. Dobijeni rezultati se donekle razlikuju od rezultata istraživanja u svijetu (Smith i Larson, 2003; Pasareanu, Vederhus, Opsal, Kristensen i Clausen, 2015; Beč, 2013). Ovdje je veoma važno da pažljivo ineterpretiramo dobijene rezultate. Prije svega, moramo imati na umu da umjereno konzumiranje vina i piva u jednoj mjeri mogu da utiču na povećanje dobrog raspoloženja kod ispitanika, ali je tanka granica kada to uživanje preraste u zavisnost. Takođe, treba imati na umu da je konzumiranje alkoholnih pića naša tradicija i da se to veoma često povezuje sa veseljima i proslavama.

25. Zadovoljstvo društvom u kojem žive i zadovoljstvo životom

U ovom poglavlju ćemo vidjeti koliko su ispitanici iz pojedinih regiona zadovoljni trenutnim stanjem u društvu i spremnošću da napuste trenutno mjesto boravka u narednom periodu.

Tabela 50. *Zadovoljstvo političkom situacijom u državi u kojoj trenutno žive?*

		Zemlja kategorije				
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspورا	Total
Da	N	23	36	9	528	596
	%	0.7	8.2	3.7	70.3	12.4
Ne	N	3359	402	237	223	4221
	%	99.3	91.8	96.3	29.7	87.6
Total	N	3382	438	246	751	4817
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 50.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
2775.505	3	.000

Najveće zadovoljstvo političkom situacijom u društvu nalazimo kod ispitanika iz dijaspore (70.3%), dok je taj procenat drastično niži kod ostalih kategorija ispitanika. Političkom situacijom u društvu je zadovoljno 8.2% onih iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i 3.7% onih iz zemalja koje nisu u EU. U BiH je 0.7% ispitanika zadovoljno trenutnom političkom situacijom.

Tabela 51. *Zadovoljstvo zdravstvenim sistemom u državi u kojoj trenutno živite?*

		Zemlja kategorije				
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspورا	Total
Da	N	126	92	15	633	866
	%	3.7	21.0	6.1	84.1	18.0
Ne	N	3262	347	229	120	3958
	%	96.3	79.0	93.9	15.9	82.0
Total	N	3388	439	244	753	4824
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 51.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
2726.206	3	.000

Zadovoljstvo zdravstvenim sistemom je najveće kod ispitanika iz dijaspore (84.1%), dok je taj procenat drastično niži u ostalim kategorijama ispitanika. Svaki peti ispitanik (21%) iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU zadovoljan je zdravstvenim sistemom i 6.1% onih iz zemalja koje nisu u EU. U BiH je 3.7% ispitanika zadovoljno kako danas funkcioniše zdravstveni sistem u zemlji.

Tabela 52. *Zadovoljstvo obrazovnim sistemom u državi u kojoj trenutno živite?*

		Zemlja kategorije				
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspورا	Total
Da	N	173	129	26	643	971
	%	17.8	13.3	2.7	66.2	100.0
Ne	N	3204	310	217	100	3831
	%	83.6	8.1	5.7	2.6	100.0
Total	N	3377	439	243	743	4802
	%	70.3	9.1	5.1	15.5	100.0

Tabela 52.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
2539.473	3	.000

Kao što vidimo iz tabele 52.1, postoji statistički značajna razlika između ispitanika iz različitih regiona kada se radi o njihovom zadovoljstvu obrazovanjem. Najveće zadovoljstvo obrazovnim sistemom nalazimo kod ispitanika kod dijaspora (66.2%), dok je taj procenat drastično niži kod ostalih kategorija ispitanika. U BiH je obrazovanjem zadovoljno 17.8% ispitanika, dok je taj procenat u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU iznosi 13.3%, a kod onih u zemljama koje nisu u EU 2.7%.

Tabela 53. *Razmišljanje o promjeni grada u kojem trenutno živite?*

		Zemlja kategorije				
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspора	Total
Da	N	1437	105	93	124	1759
	%	42.7	24.0	38.3	16.5	36.7

Ne	N	1927	332	150	626	3035
	%	57.3	76.0	61.7	83.5	63.3
Total	N	3364	437	243	750	4794
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 53.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
214.212	3	.000

O promjeni grada u kojem žive razmišlja 42.7% stanovnika BiH, a slijede 38.3% ispitanika koji žive u nekoj od država bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU i 24% ispitanika koji su u EU. Najmanji procenat ispitanika koji razmišlja da promijeni grad u kojem trenutno boravi nalazimo kod dijaspora (16.5%).

Tabela 54. *Razmišljanje o promjeni države u kojoj trenutno živite?*

		Zemlja kategorije				
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspora	Total
Da	N	1796	95	120	81	2092
	%	53.3	21.6	49.4	10.8	43.6
Ne	N	1575	344	123	669	2711
	%	46.7	78.4	50.6	89.2	56.4
Total	N	3371	439	243	750	4803
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 54.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
546.044	3	.000

O napuštanju države u kojoj sada žive razmišlja 53.3% stanovnika BiH, a slijedi 49.4% ispitanika koji žive u nekoj od država bivše Jugoslavije i nisu u EU i 21.6% ispitanika koji su u EU. Najmanji procenat ispitanika koji razmišlja da promijeni državu u kojoj trenutno boravi nalazimo kod dijaspore (10.8%).

Tabela 55. Zadovoljstvo životom na uzorku svih ispitanika s obzirom na to da li razmišljaju da napuste državu u kojoj žive

	N	M	SD	SEM	t	df	p	Cohen's d
Razmišljam da napustim zemlju	1915	4,8854	2,20518	,05039	-21,615	4360	0,000	- ,659
Ne razmišljam da napustim zemlju	2447	6,3840	2,32379	,04698				

Sasvim očekivano (tabela 55), dobijamo statistički značajnu razliku u stepenu zadovoljstva životom između ispitanika koji razmišljaju da napuste zemlju u kojoj žive i onih koji o tome ne razmišljaju. Osobe koje razmišljaju da napuste zemlju imaju manji indeks zadovoljstva životom u odnosu na one koji žele da ostanu.

Tabela 56. Zadovoljstvo životom kod ispitanika iz različitih regiona s obzirom na to da li razmišljaju da napuste državu u kojoj žive

		N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
BiH	Razmišljam da napustim zemlju	1647	4,7643	2,18529	,05385	-15,605	3054	,000
	Ne razmišljam da napustim zemlju	1409	6,0274	2,28239	,06080			
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Razmišljam da napustim zemlju	89	5,5506	1,99598	,21157	-4,547	394	,000
	Ne razmišljam da napustim zemlju	307	6,6950	2,11732	,12084			

Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Razmišljam da napustim zemlju	106	5,2052	2,26221	,21973	-2,018	214	,045
	Ne razmišljam da napustim zemlju	110	5,8114	2,15276	,20526			
Dijaspورا	Razmišljam da napustim zemlju	67	6,5728	1,96226	,23973	-1,955	674	,051
	Ne razmišljam da napustim zemlju	609	7,1527	2,33881	,09477			

Kod stanovnika BiH, zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i onih izvan EU koji ne razmišljaju da napuste državu u kojoj žive, izraženiji je indeks zadovoljstva srećom nego kod ispitanika koji o tome ne razmišljaju. Samo kod ispitanika iz dijaspora ovo pravilo ne važi.

25.1 Diskusija nalaza

Najveće zadovoljstvo političkom situacijom nalazimo kod ispitanika koji žive u dijaspori (oko 70%), dok je taj procenat drastično niži kod ostalih kategorija ispitanika. Svaki deseti ispitanik iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU zadovoljan je političkom situacijom u njegovoj zemlji i 3.7% onih iz zemalja koje nisu u EU. U BiH je manje od 1% ispitanika zadovoljno trenutnom političkom situacijom. Slična situacija je i kod zadovoljstva zdravstvenim sistemom koje je najveće kod ispitanika koji žive u dijaspori, dok je ta procenat drastično niži u ostalim kategorijama ispitanika. Svaki peti ispitanik iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU zadovoljan je zdravstvenim sistemom u njegovoj zemlji i 6.1% onih iz zemalja koje nisu u EU. U BiH je 3.7% ispitanika zadovoljno kako danas funkcioniše zdravstveni sistem u zemlji. Kada se govori o zadovoljstvu obrazovnim sistemom, dvije trećine dijaspora je zadovoljno. U BiH je obrazovanjem zadovoljan svaki peti ispitanik, kao i svaki deseti ispitanik u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU. Kod zemalja koje nisu u EU obrazovnim sistemom je zadovoljno 2.7% ispitanih građana.

O promjeni grada u kojem žive najviše razmišljaju, nešto više od 40%, stanovnici BiH, dok je taj procenat nešto manji kod ispitanika

koji žive u nekoj od država bivše Jugoslavije koja nije u EU. O promjeni grada razmišlja i svaki peti ispitanik iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU. Najmanji procenat ispitanika koji razmišljaju da promijene grad u kojem trenutno borave nalazimo kod stanovnika dijaspora. O napuštanju države u kojoj sada žive razmišlja polovina stanovnika BiH, kao i onih koji žive u nekoj od država bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU. Svaki peti ispitanik iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji živi u EU razmišlja da napusti zemlju, kao i svaki deseti stanovnik dijaspora. Potpuno je očekivano – što je zadovoljstvo životom manje, to je želja da se napusti zemlja veća.

26. Praktikovanje vjere i samoprocjena religioznosti i zadovoljstvo životom

U okviru ovog pasusa vidjećemo kako ispitanici opisuju svoju religioznost i koliko često odlaze na vjerske obrede. Kasnije ćemo vidjeti korelacije između zadovoljstva životom i načina upražnjavanja vjere.

Tabela 57. *Da li odlazite na vjerske obrede...?*

		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspورا	Total
Nekoliko puta nedjeljno	N	377	11	13	44	445
	%	10.9	2.5	5.3	5.8	9.1
Jednom nedeljno	N	274	69	6	46	395
	%	7.9	15.6	2.4	6.0	8.0
Jednom mjesečno	N	94	33	8	16	151
	%	2.7	7.5	3.2	2.1	3.1
Nekoliko puta godišnje	N	688	112	39	115	954
	%	19.9	25.3	15.8	15.1	19.4
Jednom godišnje ili rjeđe	N	562	87	58	150	857
	%	16.3	19.7	23.5	19.6	17.5

Nikada	N	1283	122	117	361	1883
	%	37.1	27.6	47.4	47.3	38.3
Ne znam	N	84	6	5	14	109
	%	2.4	1.4	2.0	1.8	2.2
Odbijam da odgovorim	N	96	2	1	18	117
	%	2.8	.5	.4	2.4	2.4
Total	N	3458	442	247	764	4911
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 57.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
204.374	21	.000

Među ispitanicima koji nekoliko puta nedeljno posjećuju vjerske obreda nalazimo najviše stanovnika BiH (10.9%), a slijede ispitanici iz dijaspora (5.8%), ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (5.3%) i ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (2.5%).

Najveći broj ispitanika koji jednom nedeljno posjećuju vjerske objekte nalazimo kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (15.6%), a potom kod ispitanika iz BiH (7.9%), dijaspora (6%), a najmanje kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (2.4%).

Jednom mjesečno vjerske objekte posjećuje 7.5% ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (15.6%), potom ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (3.2%), ispitanici iz BiH (2.7%) i dijaspora (2.1%).

Nekoliko puta godišnje vjerske objekte posjećuje 25.3% ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (15.6%), 19.9% ispitanika iz BiH i podjednak procenat (oko 15%) ispitanika iz dijaspora i iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU.

Jednom godišnje ili rjeđe u vjerske objekte posjećuje 70.9% ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU, potom 66.9% iz dijaspora, 53.4% BiH i 47.3% ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU.

Tabela 58. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i učestalost odlaska na vjerske obrede kod svih ispitanika

	Učestalost odlaska na vjerske obrede
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.121**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva i odlaska na vjerske obrede kod svih ispitanika je pozitivna, niska i statistički značajna ($r = .121$; $p < .01$).

Kada pogledamo korelacije po regionima nalazimo statistički značajnu razliku samo kod ispitanika u BiH, a ona je pozitivna i niska ($r = .181$; $p < .01$).

Tabela 59. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i učestalost odlaska na vjerske obrede ispitanika iz različitih regiona

		Učestalost odlaska na vjerske obrede
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.181**
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.082
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.096
Dijaspora	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.053

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Tabela 60. Vjerska ubjedenja ispitanika

		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Dijaspora	Total
Nisam vjernik	N	645	82	86	207	1020
	%	18.7	18.5	35.0	27.2	20.8

Slobodna vjerska ubjeđenja	N	1034	150	64	245	1493
	%	29.9	33.9	26.0	32.2	30.4
Umjerena vjerska ubjeđenja	N	1420	162	80	233	1895
	%	41.1	36.6	32.5	30.6	38.6
Konzervativna vjerska ubjeđenja	N	118	21	6	24	169
	%	3.4	4.7	2.4	3.2	3.4
Fundamentalistička vjerska ubjeđenja	N	63	4	2	7	76
	%	1.8	.9	.8	.9	1.5
Ne znam	N	96	20	5	29	150
	%	2.8	4.5	2.0	3.8	3.1
Odbijam da odgovorim	N	80	4	3	16	103
	%	2.3	.9	1.2	2.1	2.1
Nesto drugo	N	1	0	0	0	1
	%	.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	.0
Total	N	3457	443	246	761	4907
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 60.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
92.800	21	.000

Najveći procenat onih koji ne vjeruju nalazimo u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU (35%), a slijedi dijaspora (27.2%), dok ih je oko 18.5% u BiH i u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU.

Slobodna vjerska ubjeđenja nalazimo kod 33.9% ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i 32.2% ispitanika iz dijaspore, dok je taj procenat 29.9% u BiH i 26% kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU.

Umjerena vjerska ubjeđenja su najviše prisutna kod ispitanika u BiH (41.1%), a potom kod 36.6% ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i 32.5% ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU. U dijaspori nalazimo 30.6% ispitanika sa umjerenim vjerskim ubjeđenjima.

Fundamentalistička i konzervativna vjerska ubjeđenja najviše su prisutna u BiH (5.2%) i kod ispitanika u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU (5.6%). U zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU nalazimo 3.2% konzervativaca i fundamentalista i njih 4.1% u dijaspori.

Tabela 61. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i samoprocjena religioznosti kod svih ispitanika

	Samoprocjena religioznosti
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.052**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva i samoprocjena religioznosti kod svih ispitanika je pozitivna, veoma slaba i statistički značajna ($r = .052$; $p < .01$).

Kada pogledamo korelacije po regionima nalazimo statistički značajnu razliku samo kod ispitanika u BiH, gdje je ona pozitivna i veoma slaba ($r = .089$; $p < .01$).

Tabela 62. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i samoprocjena religioznosti ispitanika iz različitih regiona

		Učestalost odlaska na vjerske obrede
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.089**
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.018
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.093
Dijaspورا	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.074

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

26.1 Diskusija nalaza

Prema podacima Pew Research Center⁴⁰ u svijetu preovladava hrišćanstvo (31.4%), a slijede muslimani (23.2%), hindusi (15%), budisti (7%) i ostali. S druge strane, prema popisu iz 2013. godine u BiH⁴¹ je živjelo 50.7% muslimana, 30.75% pravoslavaca, te 15.19% katolika. U Srbiji⁴² je prema popisu iz 2011. godine živjelo 84.6% pravoslavnih vjernika, a slijede katolici sa 5% i muslimani sa 3%. Iste godine kao i u Srbiji, imali smo popis stanovništva u Hrvatskoj⁴³ gdje nalazimo 86.2% katolika, 4.4% pravoslavaca i 1.47% muslimana. Sve ovo nam govori da u svijetu, kao i kod nas u regionu, preovladavaju osobe koje sebe opisuju kao vjernike.

Da li su oni zadovoljniji životom od nevjernika?

Istraživanja u svijetu dobijaju suprotstavljene nalaze kada se govori o uticaju vjere na zadovoljstvo životom i samim tim je teško donijeti neki generalni zaključak. Sanau je još 1969. godine utvrdio da ne postoje pouzdani dokazi da religioznost unapređuje mentalno zdravlje. Dodaćemo tu i analizu Batsona i sar. (1993) koji su analizirali 47 studija o povezanosti religioznosti i mentalnog zdravlja i u njih 37 su našli negativnu, ali nisku korelaciju. Ellis je 1980. godine našao vezu između religioznosti i emocionalne uznemirenosti. S druge strane, postoje istraživanja koja ukazuju da religiozno ponašanje i uvjerenja pozitivno utiču na mentalno zdravlje ljudi. Argly (2000) nalazi pozitivnu vezu između intrizičke religioznosti i smisla života. Ellison (1991) nalazi visoku povezanost između učestalosti odlaska u crkvu i sreće. Witter i sar. (1985) su radili metaanalizu 56 studija na temu religioznosti i sreće. Oni zaključuju da postoji veza između religioznosti i različitih aspekata sreće.

Kao što vidimo, rezultati su oprečni, ali možemo reći da religioznost sama po sebi nije ni dobra ni loša za subjektivno zadovoljstvo

⁴⁰ <https://www.pewforum.org/2015/04/02/religious-projections-2010-2050/>

⁴¹ <http://balkans.aljazeera.net/vijesti/bih-danas-rezultati-popisa-iz-2013-godine>

⁴² <https://www.vreme.com/cms/view.php?id=1157758#veroisповести>

⁴³ https://www.dzs.hr/Hrv/censuses/census2011/results/htm/H01_01_10/h01_01_10_RH.html

životom i da efekti u velikoj mjeri zavise od društvenog i kulturnog konteksta. Istraživanje Gebauera, Nehrlicha, Sedikidesa i Nebericha iz 2013. godine pokazuje da u društvima koja su visoko religiozna najviši nivo subjektivnog blagostanja imaju religiozne osobe sa niskim primanjima, dok u bogatim društvima, u kojima je religioznost niska, najviši nivo blagostanja imaju bogate osobe, bez obzira na njihovu religioznost.

Naše istraživanje pokazuje da na vjerske obrede najčešće odlaze ispitanici iz BiH i zemlja bivše Jugoslavije koji su u EU, a slijede ispitanici iz dijaspora i zemlja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU. Kada interpretiramo ove rezultate moramo imati na umu da je obaveza muslimana da što je moguće redovnije odlaze u džamiju na molitvu, za razliku od hrišćana koji svoje crkve najčešće posjećuju nedjeljom. Kada pogledamo cjelokupni uzorak, nalazimo da su ispitanici koji češće odlaze na vjerske obrede zadovoljniji svojim životom. Imamo li u vidu regione, samo u BiH nalazimo pozitivnu, ali nisku vezu između odlaska na vjerske obrede i zadovoljstva životom.

Najviše nevjernika, oko jedne trećine, nalazimo u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU, dok jedna četvrtina ispitanika iz dijaspora na isti način sebe opisuje. U skladu sa rezultatima njihovog vjerskog ponašanja, najviše osoba koji sebe opisuju kao vjernike nalazimo u BiH i u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU. Pozitivnu vezu između zadovoljstva životom i religioznosti nalazimo na uzorku svih ispitanika i kod stanovnika BiH.

27. Povezanost indeksa zadovoljstva životom i nekih sociodemografskih varijabli

U okviru ovog poglavlja vidjećemo koliko su svojim životom zadovoljni ispitanici s obzirom na starost, obrazovanje, veličinu mjesta u kojem žive i pol.

Tabela 63. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i godina (starosti) kod svih ispitanika

	Godine (starost)
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.138**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i starosti kod svih ispitanika je negativna, niska i statistički značajna ($r = -.138$; $p < .01$).

Kada pogledamo korelacije po regionima nalazimo statistički značajnu razliku kod svih kategorija i one su negativne i niske; BiH ($r = -.138$; $p < .01$), zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU ($r = -.121$; $p < .05$), zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU ($r = -.239$; $p < .01$) i dijaspora ($r = -.126$; $p < .01$).

Tabela 64. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i starosti ispitanika iz različitih regiona

		Starost
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.138**
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.121*
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.239**
Dijaspore	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.126**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Tabela 65. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i obrazovanja kod svih ispitanika

	Obrazovanje
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.098**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i obrazovanja kod svih ispitanika je pozitivna, niska i statistički značajna ($r = .098$; $p < .01$).

Kada pogledamo korelacije po regionima nalazimo statistički značajnu razliku u BiH ($r = .148$; $p < .01$), kod zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU ($r = .112$; $p < .01$) i dijaspora ($r = .133$; $p < .01$).

Tabela 66. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i obrazovanja ispitanika iz različitih regiona

		Obrazovanje
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.148**
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.112**
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	-.020
Dijaspore	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.133**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Tabela 67. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i veličina mjesta u kojem žive kod svih ispitanika

	Veličina mjesta u kojem žive
Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.078**

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Korelacija između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i veličine mjesta u kojem žive na uzorku svih ispitanika je pozitivna, niska i statistički značajna ($r = .078$; $p < .01$).

Kada pogledamo korelacije po regionima, ne nalazimo statistički značajnu razliku (tabela 66).

Tabela 68. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i veličina mjesta u kojem žive iz različitih regiona

		Veličina mjesta u kojem žive
BiH	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.026
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.065
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.079
Dijaspورا	Indeks zadovoljstva životom	.024

** korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .01$

* korelacije značajne na nivou $p < .05$

Tabela 69. Indeks zadovoljstva životom kod svih ispitanika s obzirom na pol

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
Muškarci	1836	5.8504	2.44368	.05703	2.941	4421.000	0.003
Žene	2587	5.6358	2.35456	.04629			

Kao što vidimo u tabeli 67, muškraci (5.85) za sebe kažu da su zadovoljniji životom od žena (5.63). Razlika između ove dvije kategorije ispitanika je statistički značajna ($p = 0.003$), ali ovdje treba biti oprezan jer uzorak ispitanika je veoma veliki i to može biti uzrok postojanja razlika.

Tabela 70. Indeks zadovoljstva životom kod ispitanika iz BiH s obzirom na pol

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
Muškarci	1332	5.5004	2.35373	.06449	3.101	3104	.002
Žene	1774	5.2396	2.29445	.05448			

U BiH su muškarci (5.50) zadovoljniji životom od žena (5.20) i ova razlika je statistički značajna ($p = 0.002$), ali i ovaj rezultat treba uzeti sa rezervom zbog veličine uzorka.

Tabela 71. Indeks zadovoljstva životom kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU s obzirom na pol

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
Muškarci	56	6.5446	2.37917	.31793	.423	395	.672
Žene	341	6.4142	2.09516	.11346			

Između muškaraca i žena koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije, a koje su sada u EU ne postoji statistički značajna razlika ($p = 0.672$) kada se radi o indeksu zadovoljstva životom.

Tabela 72. Indeks zadovoljstva životom kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU s obzirom na pol

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
Muškarci	88	5.5568	2.20264	.23480	.301	217	.764
Žene	131	5.4647	2.23721	.19547			

Ni u zemljama bivše u Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU ne postoji statistički značajna razlika ($p = 0.764$) kada se radi o indeksu zadovoljstva životom.

Tabela 73. Indeks zadovoljstva životom kod ispitanika iz dijaspore s obzirom na pol

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
Muškarci	348	7.1483	2.38952	.12809	.713	681	.476
Žene	335	7.0216	2.24605	.12271			

Kod ispitanika iz dijaspore ne nalazimo statistički značajnu razliku kod indeksa zadovoljstva životom s obzirom na pol ($p = 0.476$).

27.1 Diskusija nalaza

Dobijeni rezultati pokazuju da sa porastom godina (starosti) opada indeks zadovoljstva životom. Ova veza važi ne samo na uzorku svih ispitanika nego i za svaki region posebno. Ineteresantno je da je ta veza

posebno izražena kod ispitanika koji žive u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU.

Naši rezultati se ne slažu sa projekcijama teorije stabilnog nivoa subjektivnog blagostanja, ali ni sa nalazima koji govore o U-distribuciji subjektivnog blagostanja. Prva teorija polazi od toga da je subjektivno blagostanje stabilno tokom životnog ciklusa i zavisno je od osobina ličnosti pojedinca koje imaju benetičku predispoziciju, a ne spoljašnjih faktora. Istraživanja Coste i sar. (1987) i Myersa (2000) idu u prilog ovoj teoriji. S druge strane, postoje istraživanja koja kažu da se naše zadovoljstvo životom mijenja sa godinama i može se opisati U krivuljom. Ona pokazuju da je subjektivno blagostanje visoko u mladosti i da opada do srednjeg odraslog doba, da bi onda opet počelo rasti što smo stariji. Prema ovom viđenju, svojim životom smo najmanje zadovoljni između 30 i 50 godine, ali ta starosna granica varira od društva do društva, recimo u Srbije su ljudi najmanje zadovoljni životom oko 49. godine, u Švajcarskoj oko 35. a u Francuskoj oko 62. godine. U prilog ovakvom viđenju subjektivnog blagostanja idu neka istraživanja (Blanchflower i Oswald, 2008; Di Tella, MacCulloch i Oswald, 2003). Ipak, neka istraživanja pokazuju da U-distribuciju nalazimo samo kod država sa visokim BDP-om (Deaton, 2008), dok u ostalim zemljama subjektivno blagostanje opada sa godinama (starošću), baš kao i u našem istraživanju. Takve rezultate je dobio i Jovanović i sar. u Srbiji.

Kada se govori o povezanosti obrazovanja sa zadovoljstvom životom, tu nalazimo nisku i pozitivnu korelaciju kod svih ispitanika, u BiH, u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i u dijaspori. Dobijeni rezultati su u skladu sa nalazima drugih istraživanja. Oni se mogu objasniti na nekoliko načina, prije svega, obrazovanje se može posmatrati kao porast sposobnosti, a samim tim i porast produktivnosti pojedinca (Schultz, 1960; Becker, 1964), što kao rezultat ima i povećanje prihoda, a samim tim i povećanje mogućnosti zadovoljenja ličnih želja. Takođe, viši stepen obrazovanja smanjuje mogućnost gubitka posla, ali podrazumijeva i lakše nalaženje u slučaju da se to desi, što svakako ima uticaj na percepciju života osobe. Takođe, postoje zanimanja koja donose ugled u društvu i neke druge privilegije, mimo novčane

dobiti, što zadovoljava psihološke potrebe za pripadanjem, priznanjem i slično.

Zadovoljstvo životom je veće ako ispitanik živi u većem gradu. Ova korelacija je veoma slaba, ali značajna, i važi samo za uzorak svih ispitanika, ali ne i za regije. Slične rezultate su nalazimo i kod istraživača u inostranstvu (Appleton i Song, 2008; Rehman i Maddison, 2005; Rodríguez-Pose i Maslauskaitė, 2012), mada postoje istraživanja koja pokazuju sasvim suprotne rezultate. Ipak, moramo biti oprezni kod interpretacije ovih rezultata jer unutar pojedinih regija ne nalazimo povezanost zadovoljstva životom sa veličinom naselja. Takođe, moramo imati u vidu da životi u selima u BiH i Makediniji nisu isti kao u selima u Austriji ili Njemačkoj, baš kao što se drastično razlikuje život u gradovima do 200 000 stanovnika u odnosu na gradove sa milion ili više stanovnika.

Razlike u zadovoljstvu životom s obzirom na pol nalazimo na cjelokupnom uzorku i uzorku BiH i vidimo da su muškarci zadovoljniji svojim životom od žena. Ovaj rezultat moramo uzeti sa rezervom jer su uzorci veliki i možda je to osnovni razlog postojanja tih razlika. Naši rezultati se donekle razlikuju od rezultata dobijenih u svijetu, koji ni sami nisu konzistentni. Neka istraživanja pokazuju da su muškarci neznatno zadovoljniji od žena (Haring, Stock i Okun, 1984), a negdje žene od muškaraca (Wood, Rhodes i Whelan, 1989). Naravno, postoje i istraživanja gdje se ispitanici nisu razlikovali od ispitanica u stepenu zadovoljstva životom (Michalos, 1987). Zašto je to tako? Prije svega, moramo imati na umu da se položaj muškaraca i žena razlikuje između različitih društava i unutar jednog društva. Istraživači su shvatili da postoje mnogi faktori: socijalni, kulturni, ekonomski, koji se moraju uzeti u obzir prilikom interpretacije dobijenih rezultata. U zemljama u kojima je neravnopravnost između muškaraca i žena veća, muškarci su zadovoljniji životom (Tesch-Romer, Motel-Klingebiel i Tomasik, 2008). Kod društava koja su izuzetno siromašna žene su manje zadovoljne životom, u odnosu na muškarce (Graham i Chattopadhyay, 2013). Interesantan je i podatak da subjektivno blagostanje ljudi u SAD opada u odnosu na poslednje decenije i da je taj pad znatno veći kod žena, nego kod muškaraca. S druge strane, rast zadovoljstva živo-

tom stanovnika EU raste, ali je taj rast znatno veći kod muškaraca nego kod žena (Jovanović, 2016).

28. Predviđanje zadovoljstva životom

Regresionom analizom pokušaćemo da dođemo do odgovora na pitanje kako se nekim skupom varijabli, koje nazivamo prediktori, može objasniti variranje jedne varijable koja se naziva kriterijumska varijabla ili kriterijum. U ovom istraživanju kriterijumska varijabla je određena kao prosječna ocjena indeksa zadovoljstva životom. U našem slučaju rađena je uobičajena metoda standardne višestruke regresione analize.

Tabela 72.1. pokazuje da je regresiona analiza za uzorak svih ispitanika statistički značajna ($F= 2.020$; $df_1=39$. $df_2= 225$; $p=.001$) i sva tri prediktora „zadovoljstvo poslom”, „ukupan mjesečni prihod svih članova vaše porodice” i „lijekovi za smirenje” objašnjavaju 26% varijanse varijable „Indeks zadovoljstva životom”. Što su ispitanici zadovoljniji poslom i imaju veća ukupna mjesečna primanja to su više zadovoljni svojim životom. Takođe, što ispitanici koriste više lijekova za smirenje to je i njihov indeks zadovoljstva životom manji.

Tabela 74. Prediktorska varijabla i dio varijanse varijable „indeks zadovoljstva životom”, kod uzorka svih ispitanika, koji je njome objašnjen.

Model	R	R ²	ARS	SEE
1	.509	.259	.131	2.23118

Tabela 74.1 ANOVA

	Model	SS	df	MS	F	p
1	Regression	392.134	39	10.055	2.020	.001
	Residual	1120.086	225	4.978		
	Total	1512.220	264			

Tabela 74.2 Regresioni koeficijenti prediktorskih varijabli za kriterijumku varijablu „indeks zadovoljstva životom“

Model	Nestandardizovani koeficijent		Standardizovi koeficijent	t	p
	B	SE	Beta		
(Constant)	4.437	1.946		2.281	.024
Pol	-.031	.341	-.006	-.092	.927
Godine starosti	-.027	.017	-.113	-1.616	.107
Obrazovanje	.068	.118	.036	.575	.566
Veličina naselja u kojem žive	.045	.054	.053	.830	.408
Broj radnih sati u nedelji	-.182	.199	-.057	-.915	.361
Redovno primanje plate	-.034	.079	-.027	-.437	.662
Veličina domaćinstva	.000	.115	.000	.001	.999
Zadovoljstvo poslom	.561	.107	.313	5.234	.000
Društveni aktivizam	.977	1.168	.055	.836	.404
Druženje s prijateljima	-.129	.193	-.048	-.668	.505
Druženje s rodbinom	.034	.168	.014	.204	.838
Izleti u prirodu	-.027	.179	-.010	-.150	.881
Gledam TV	.060	.134	.029	.450	.653
Druženje s porodicom	-.113	.193	-.038	-.587	.558
Bavljenje sportom	-.076	.134	-.039	-.567	.571
Zabava (izlasci, žurke)	-.017	.202	-.006	-.083	.934
Putovanja	-.033	.240	-.010	-.137	.891
Čitanje	.046	.136	.023	.341	.733
Bavljenje nekim hobiem	-.009	.119	-.005	-.079	.937
Učenje stranih jezika	.013	.110	.008	.120	.905
Slušanje muzike	.013	.140	.006	.093	.926
Odlasci u kino	-.049	.223	-.018	-.219	.827
Odlasci u pozorište	.166	.235	.061	.708	.480
Internet	.003	.220	.001	.013	.990
Posjećivanje sportskih takmičenja	.001	.158	.001	.008	.994
Odmaranje u kući	-.061	.190	-.020	-.323	.747
Politička i društvena aktivnost	.082	.134	.040	.615	.539
Religiozni sadržaji	-.133	.129	-.072	-1.030	.304

Odlazak u muzeje	.016	.210	.005	.074	.941
Ukupan mjesečni prihod svih članova porodice	.000	.000	.185	2.855	.005
Slanje pomoć porodici/ rodbini	.000	.001	-.004	-.061	.951
Pivo	-.074	.166	-.034	-.444	.658
Vino	.187	.192	.073	.972	.332
Žestoka alkoholna pića	.108	.212	.037	.511	.610
Energetska pića	-.046	.193	-.016	-.238	.812
Gazirana pića	.095	.142	.044	.670	.503
Lijekove za smirenje	-.357	.157	-.139	-2.270	.024
Cigarete	-.013	.080	-.010	-.163	.871
Marihuanu	-.033	.208	-.010	-.160	.873

Varijabla „indeks zadovoljstva životom” se najbolje može predviđeti uz pomoć varijable „zadovoljstvo poslom” što se najbolje može vidjeti na osnovu Beta koeficijenta koji iznosi .313, varijable „ukupni mjesečni prihodi cijele porodice” gdje je Beta .185, a slijede „lijekovi za smirenje”, kod kojih je Beta koeficijent negativan i iznosi -.139.

29. Završna razmatranja

Zadovoljstvo životom predstavlja kognitivnu komponentu subjektivnog blagostanja i najčešće se definiše kao subjektivna evaluacija osobe o tome koliko je njen život dobar i kvalitetan u odnosu na sopstvene standarde i kriterijume koje ona smatra važnim (Pavot i Diener, 1993). U našem istraživanju objektivne ili, bolje reći, ekonomske parametre jednog društva koristimo da bismo vidjeli njihovu povezanost sa zadovoljstvom životom, dok afektivne aspekte ljudskog blagostanja svjesno zanemarujemo, sa željom da se u narednom periodu bavimo njima.

Dobijeni rezultati pokazuju da su stanovnici dijaspore najzadovoljniji svojim životima, a slijede ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, dok su ispitanici iz Srbije, Crne Gore, Makedonije i Bosne

i Hercegovine najmanje zadovoljni. Interesan je podatak da je generalno zadovoljstvo životom veće u odnosu na njegove pojedine aspekte.

Naravno, svaka kategorija ispitanika ima svoje specifičnosti, stanovnici iz dijaspeore najmanje su zadovoljni svojim zdravljem i kako su prihvaćeni u lokalnoj zajednici, a najviše svojom bezbjednošću i perspektivom u budućnosti. Ovdje možemo govoriti o dvije kategorije ispitanika, kategoriji onih koji su ranije otišli iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije u inostranstvo i sada su već u penziji i kategoriji onih koji su nedavno napustili ove prostore. Očekivano je da ispitanike koji su ranije otišli u inostranstvo ili su protjerani sa ovih prostora sada muče zdravstveni problemi, dok oni koji su nedavno otišli imaju problem sa neprihvatanjem od strane lokalnog stanovništva.

Ispitanici koji trenutno žive u Sloveniji i Hrvatskoj najmanje su zadovoljni svojim standardom, pripadnošću zajednici i osjećanjem bezbjednosti u budućnosti, dok su najviše zadovoljni svojim zdravljem i odnosima sa drugim ljudima. Izgleda da kod ovih ispitanika imamo mješavinu problema iz dijaspeore (osjećanje nepripadanja zajednici) i zemalja koje nisu u EU (loš standard i neizvjesna bezbjednost u budućnosti).

Među ispitanicima iz Srbije, Crne Gore, Makedonije i Bosne i Hercegovine najmanje zadovoljstva nalazimo kod njihove bezbjednosti u budućnosti, pripadnosti lokalnoj zajednici, osjećanja sigurnosti i životnog standarda. Najviše su zadovoljni svojim zdravljem i odnosom sa ljudima. Možemo reći da su ovi podaci prilično očekivani imamo li u vidu političku i ekonomsku situaciju u regionu i mnogo otovorenih pitanja koji opterećuju ove zemlje na unutrašnjem i spoljnom planu, ali je teško objasniti zašto postoji nezadovoljstvo ispitanika kod pripadnosti lokalnoj zajednici. Bilo bi interesantno vidjeti kako su oni razumjeli ovo pitanje.

Kada govorimo o međusobnim razlikama ispitanika u zadovoljstvu životom u četiri kategorije, najveće razlike su između ispitanika iz dijaspeore i zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU.

Ali zašto je to tako?

Postoji mnogo faktora koji utiču na individualno zadovoljstvo životom, ali naše istraživanje pokazuje da je najbolji prediktor varijabla „zadovoljstvo poslom” za cjelokupan uzorak. Što su ispitanici zadovoljni svojim poslom to je njihovo zadovoljstvo životom veće i ovi rezultati su u skladu sa rezultatima istraživanja u inostranstvu (Chaco, 1983; Panos i Theodossior, 2007). Kada pogledamo korelacije između zadovoljstva poslom i zadovoljstva životom, vidimo da su one pozitivne, ali je interesantno da je ta veza najveća kod stanovnika BiH, a najmanja kod ispitanika koji žive u Srbiji, Makedoniji i Crnoj Gori, iako su njihovi ekonomski pokazatelji veoma slični. Ipak, moramo imati na umu da se ispitanici, bez obzira na to gdje žive, međusobno ne razlikuju u stepenu zadovoljstva poslom koji obavljaju.

Kao što smo kazali u prethodnom poglavlju, ispitanici se nisu međusobno razlikovali u stepenu zadovoljstva poslom, ali kada pogledamo neke faktore koji se tiču radnog procesa vidimo da razlike i te kako postoje. Zaposleni iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije, bez obzira na to da li su one u EU ili ne, više rade preko 40 sati sedmično u odnosu na zaposlene iz dijaspore. Istovremeno, plate su najredovnije kod ispitanika iz dijaspore i onih koji su u EU, nego u BiH, Srbiji, Crnoj Gori i Makedoniji. Rezultati pokazuju da što ispitanici više vremena provode na poslu, to su manje srećni. Ova veza je slaba, ali značajna na nivou cjelokupnog uzorka, ali i kod stanovnika BiH, Srbije, Crne Gore i Makedonije. Neplaćeni prekovremeni rad je vjerovatno jedan od uzroka ove negativne korelacije. Sasvim je očekivana povezanost između redovnih primanja i zadovoljstva poslom, ali ova veza je značajna kod uzorka svih ispitanika i kod ispitanika iz bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU.

Među ispitanicima iz dijaspore nalazimo najveći procenat onih koji trenutno rade poslove za koje nisu kvalifikovani, ali je istovremeno među njima najveći procenat onih koji očekuju da će u naredne dvije godine napredovati u poslu. Kao što vidimo, ljudi koji žive izvan zemalja bivše Jugoslavije spremniji su da neko vrijeme obavljaju poslove koji su ispod njihovih obrazovnih kvalifikacija, uvjereni da će s vremenom napredovati na poslu. Izgleda da njihov motiv za odlazak sa ovih prostora nije samo ekonomski, već želja da se ovi prostori napuste po svaku cijenu, zarad nekog pristojnog života u budućnosti.

Na uzorku svih ispitanika „ukupna mjeseća primanja” su se pokazala kao dobar prediktor zadovoljstva životom i što su ta primanja veća to je zadovoljstvo životom veće. Ova povezanost je potvrđena i kroz korelacije koje su pozitivne i značajne, izuzev kod ispitanika iz dijaspore. Izgleda da su ispitanici iz dijaspore dosegli primanja kojima mogu da zadovolje osnovne životne potrebe i novac više nije toliko važan za njihovu ličnu sreću, dok u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije to nije slučaj.

Kada se radi o mjesečnim troškovima koje imaju ispitanici i njihovom povezanošću sa zadovoljstvom životom možemo reći da smo dobili prilično očekivane rezultate. Što su troškovi veći, stanarina, školovanje, liječenje i krediti, to je zadovoljstvo životom manje. Novac koji se troši na zabavu ili uštedi povećava zadovoljstvo životom. Naravno, i tu postoje regionalne razlike i one su najviše prisutne kod stanovnika BiH. Kada se govori o stanarini, rezultati pokazuju da za nju najviše novca izdvajaju ispitanici iz dijaspore i to je otprilike četvrtina od ukupnih mjesečnih prihoda. Možemo reći da su ovi rezultati sasvim očekivani jer ljudi koji emigriraju sa naših prostora najčešće su podstanari. Za prevoz najviše odvajaju stanovnici BiH i ta izdavanja su oko deset posto od mjesečnog budžeta, dok za tu uslugu najmanje izdvajaju ispitanici iz dijaspore. Na hranu se mjesečno najviše troši u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU i BiH, oko trećina budžeta, a četvrtina budžeta kod ispitanika iz dijaspore. Ovdje se nameće pitanje da li stanovnici zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU kupuju više hrane ili je hrana skuplja, pa zbog toga troše više novca od ispitanika iz zemalja koje su u EU. Izdvajanja iz porodičnog budžeta za školovanje je najveće u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU i BiH, a nešto manje u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i dijaspori. Interesantna je korelacija između zadovoljstva životom i školovanja, koja je negativna kod stanovnika BiH i dijaspore, a pozitivna kod ispitanika iz Hrvatske, Slovenije, Srbije, Crne Gore i Makedonije. Izgleda da naše školovanje i nije toliko besplatno, kako se ističe među našim političarima. Kada se govori o zdravstvu, za zdravlje se skoro podjednako izdvaja, između 6% i 7%, bez obzira na to iz kojeg regiona ispitanici do-

laze. Za kredit stanovnici BiH odvajaju petinu svog mjesečnog budžeta, dok je taj iznos kod dijaspore nešto više od 13%. Kao što vidimo, stanovnici BiH su najviše opterećeni kreditima, ali moramo imati u vidu da su to najčešće potrošački krediti. Iako imaju male plate i veliku nezaposlenost, na zabavu mjesečno najviše izdvajaju ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU, a slijede stanovnici BiH, pa zemalja iz Jugoslavije koje su u EU i dijaspora. Među ispitanicima najveće štedište su ispitanici iz dijaspore koji uspiju da uštede nešto manje od petine mjesečnih primanja, a slijede ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU, zemalja iz Jugoslavije koje su u EU i BiH.

Od ukupnog broja ispitanika, njih oko polovina novčano pomaže porodicu i rodbinu. U tome prednjače ispitanici iz dijaspore, a slijede ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, a potom stanovnici BiH i oni iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU. Što ispitanici šalju više novca to su sretniji, ali ovo veza je značajna za cjelokupni uzorak i kod ispitanika iz Srbije, Crne Gore i Makedonije ova korelacija je negativna. Možemo reći da su ovi rezultati samo donekle u skladu sa istraživanjima u svijetu (Dunn, Akin i Norton, 2008) koja pokazuju da trošenje novca na druge ljude čine sretnim. Izgleda da finansijsko pomaganje porodici i rodbini ljude čini srećnima samo u situaciji kada oni koji pomažu nemaju finansijskih problema.

Izgleda da naša društva nisu toliko tradicionalna koliko mi mislimo, jer u tradicionalnim društvima brak se veoma cijeni i samim tim ljude čini srećnim, dok u liberalnim društvima brak ne utiče u velikoj mjeri na sreću pojedinca (Vanassche, Swicegood, Matthijs, 2013). Naše istraživanje je pokazalo da ljude brak ne čini srećnim.

Prije svega moramo naglasiti da prosječna porodica, bez obzira na to iz kojeg regiona dolazi, ima 3 člana. Kada se govori o poveznosti veličine porodice i indeksa zadovoljstva životom nalazimo statistički značajnu, veoma nisku i pozitivnu korelaciju između ukupnog broja članova porodice i indeksa zadovoljstva životom kod uzorka svih ispitanika i stanovnika BiH.

Rezultati dobijeni u svijetu jasno pokazuju da djeca ljude ne čine sretnijima (Stanc, 2012; Hansen, 2012; Clark i Georgellis, 2013), ovo je pokazalo i naše istraživanje. To se može objasniti na dva načina – sa

djecom dolaze briga, stres, umor, nedostatak sna, ekonomski problemi, prekid karijere, a roditelji su često primorani da prihvataju neke životne uloge koje nisu željeli i koje ih ne čine sretnima.

Kad se govori o pripadnosti građana određenim organizacijama, možemo reći da se ispitanici iz regiona međusobno ne razlikuju značajno. Nismo našli značajnu povezanost između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i članstva u organizacijama. Kada pogledamo neka istraživanja u svijetu vidimo da naši nalazi odstupaju od njih (Elgar i sar., 2011; Rodriguez- Pose i von Berlepsch, 2014).

Rezultati koje smo dobili pokazuju nam da ispitanici bez obzira na to gdje žive svoje slobodno vrijeme provode veoma slično: korištenjem interneta, druženjem sa porodicom, odmaranjem kod kuće, slušanjem muzike i gledanjem TV-a. Internet najviše upotrebljavaju ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, dok oni uz ispitanike iz BiH najviše gledaju televiziju. Muziku najviše slušaju ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU, a najmanje ispitanici iz BiH. Najviše čitaju ispitanici iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU. Sa prijateljima se više druže ispitanici koji žive u nekoj od država bivše Jugoslavije nego oni koji žive u dijaspori. Sportske aktivnosti najviše upražnjavaju ispitanici iz dijaspore.

U BiH zadovoljstvo životom raste sa druženjem sa prijateljima, rodbinom i porodicom, ali i kod bavljenja sportom, izlascima i upražnjavanja religije, dok gledanje televizije to zadovoljstvo smanjuje. Kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU indeks zadovoljstva životom raste sa porastom druženja sa prijateljima, odlaskom na izlete u prirodu, gledanjem TV-a i bavljenja sportom, a opada sa porastom političkih i društvenih aktivnosti. Među ispitanicima iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koje ne žive u EU nalazimo pozitivnu vezu između druženja sa porodicom i zadovoljstva životom, dok gledanje TV-a i upotreba interneta na njega negativno utiču. Što ispitanici iz dijaspore više gledaju TV, putuju, idu u kino i muzeje, to je njihovo zadovoljstvo životom manje.

Na osnovu svega predloženog možemo reći da druženje sa prijateljima, rodbinom i porodicom, te upražnjavanje sporta i nekog hobija naše ljude čini sretnima. Ovi rezultati su u skladu sa nalazima istraživa-

nja socijalne distance Rodriguez- Posea i von Berlepscha (2014) koji nalaze da druženje sa porodicom i prijateljima ljude čini sretnima.

U predikciji zadovoljstva životom dobra se pokazala varijabla „lijekovi za smirenje”, što ih ispitanici više koriste, to su manje zadovoljni životom. Samo u BiH je u 2017. godini kupljeno 1 117 840 pakovanja neke vrste antidepresiva i potrošeno oko 9 miliona KM. Ništa bolja situacija nije ni u Srbiji ili Hrvatskoj . Kada pogledamo korelacije indeksa zadovoljstva životom i konzumiranja štetnih supstanci, kod svih ispitanika vidimo da sa porastom konzumiranja vina, žestokih alkoholnih i gaziranih pića raste i indeks zadovoljstva životom, dok to zadovoljstvo opada kod većeg konzumiranja lijekova za smirenje i cigareta. Izgleda da umjereno konzumiranje vina, žestokih alkoholnih i gaziranih pića naše ljude čini sretnima i to jeste i glavna uloga ovih supstanci. Ne smijemo ovdje zaboraviti i tradiciju, tj. kako se u našem društvu gleda na opijanje, onda ovi rezultati i ne iznenađuju. Problem nastaje kada se izgubi kontrola i postajemo zavisni, što pokazuju istraživanja kod nas i u svijetu (Smith i Larson, 2003–; Pasareanu, Vederhus, Opsal, Kristensen i Clausen, 2015; Beč, 2013).

Kada se govori o zadovoljstvu pojedinim aspektima društva u kojima ispitanici žive, nalazimo ogromne razlike. Političkom situacijom je zadovoljno 70.3% ispitanika iz dijaspore, dok je taj procenat drastično niži u ostalim kategorijama ispitanika. Svaki deseti ispitanik iz Slovenije i Hrvatske zadovoljan je političkom situacijom kod njih dok je taj procenat u Srbiji, Crnoj Gori i Makedoniji 3.7% . U BiH je 0.7% ispitanika zadovoljno trenutnom političkom situacijom. Nešto je bolja slika kod zadovoljstva zdravstvenim sistemom, ali je to daleko od zadovoljavajućeg. Najveće zadovoljstvo zdravstvenim sistemom nalazimo kod ispitanika iz dijaspore (84.1%), dok je taj procenat znatno niži u ostalim kategorijama ispitanika. Svaki peti ispitanik iz Slovenije i Hrvatske zadovoljan je zdravstvenim sistemom u njegovoj zemlji i 6.1% onih iz zemalja koje nisu u EU. U BiH je 3.7% ispitanika zadovoljno kako danas funkcioniše zdravstveni sistem u zemlji. Obrazovnim sistemom najviše su zadovoljni ispitanici iz dijaspore, njih dvije trećine. U BiH je obrazovanjem zadovoljna petina ispitanika, dok je taj proce-

nat kod ispitanika iz Slovenije i Hrvatske 13.3%, a kod zemalja koje nisu u EU 2.7%.

Sasvim je jasno da stanovnici zemalja bivše Jugoslavije nisu zadovoljni društvom u kojem žive. Nezadovoljni su političkom situacijom, zdravstvom i školstvom, a ranija istraživanja pokazuju da su nezadovoljni i radom instirucija (Turjačanin, Dušanić, Lakić, 2017; Šalaj, Grebenar, Puhalo, 2019). Imamo li u vidu ekonomske faktore, sasvim je jasno da sve to u određenoj mjeri utiče na nezadovoljstvo životom ispitanika. To je u skladu i sa istraživanjima u drugim zemljama (Habibov i Afandi, 2015) koja pokazuju da sa opadanjem povjerenja u institucije sistema opada i zadovoljstvo životom. Ono što je zabrinjavajuće kod nas je da ne postoji želja vlasti da povrate to povjerenje kod građana.

Nezadovoljstvo društvenom situacijom ne utiče samo na lično nezadovoljstvo, već može da bude i jedan od okidača za odlazak iz zemlje. U prilog ovoj tezi ide i činjenica da o promjeni grada u kojem žive razmišlja 42.7% stanovnika BiH, 38.3% ispitanika iz Srbije, Crne Gore, Makedonije i 24.0% ispitanika iz Slovenije i Hrvatske. Najmanji procenat ispitanika koji razmišljaju da promijene grad u kojem trenutno borave nalazimo kod dijaspore (16.5%).

Polovina stanovnika BiH, Srbije, Crne Gore i Makedonije razmišlja o napuštanju države. Svaki peti ispitanik iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji živi u EU razmišlja da napusti zemlju, kao i svaki deseti stanovnik dijaspore. Što su ispitanici manje zadovoljni životom to više razmišljaju da napuste zemlju u kojoj žive.

Kada se radi o religioznosti i zadovoljstvu životom, istraživanja u svijetu daju suprotstavljene rezultate. Istraživanje Gebauera, Nehrlicha, Sedikidesa i Nebericha iz 2013. godine pokazuje da u društvima koja su visoko religiozna najviši nivo subjektivnog blagostanja imaju religiozne osobe sa niskim primanjima, dok u bogatim društvima, u kojima je religioznost niska, najviši nivo blagostanja imaju bogate osobe, bez obzira na njihovu religioznost. Naše istraživanje pokazuje da na vjerske obrede najčešće odlaze ispitanici iz BiH, Hrvatske i Slovenije, a slijede ispitanici iz dijaspore i zemlja bivše Jugoslavije koje

nisu u EU. Kada interpretiramo ove rezultate moramo imati na umu da je naše pitanje bilo „koliko često odlazite na vjerske obrede?“, a mislimanski vjernici imaju obavezu klanjanja u džamijama, ako su u mogućnosti, za razliku od hrišćana koji svoje crkve najčešće posjećuju nedjeljom. Ali, ako pogledamo kako vjernici sebe opisuju, onda vidimo rezultate slične vjerskom ponašanju. Najviše osoba koje sebe opisuju kao vjernike nalazimo u BiH, Hrvatskoj i Sloveniji. Analiziramo li korelacije, vidimo da su ispitanici koji češće odlaze na vjerske obrede i koji sebe opisuju kao veće vjernike zadovoljniji svojim životom, ali samo na uzorku svih ispitanika i stanovnika BiH.

Dobijeni rezultati pokazuju da sa porastom godina (starosti) opada indeks zadovoljstva životom. Ova veza važi ne samo na uzorku svih ispitanika nego i za svaki region posebno. Interesantno je da je ta veza posebno izražena kod ispitanika koji žive u BiH, Srbiji, Crnoj Gori i Makedoniji. Naši nalazi ne podržavaju nalaze koji podupiru teoriju stabilnog nivoa subjektivnog blagostanja (Costa et al, 1987; Myers, 2000), ali ni nalaze koji govore o U- distribuciji subjektivnog blagostanja (Blanchflower i Oswald, 2008; Di Tella, MacCulloch i Oswald, 2003). Rezultate slične našima dobio je Jovanović et al. (2016) u Srbiji.

Kada se govori o povezanosti obrazovanja sa zadovoljstvom životom, tu nalazimo nisku i pozitivnu korelaciju kod svih ispitanika, ali i u BiH, u zemljama bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU i u dijaspori. Ovi rezultati su u skladu sa nalazima dobijenim u drugim istraživanjima (Schultz, 1960; Becker, 1964) i tu moramo voditi računa da pored toga što obrazovaniji više zarađuju, pa samim tim imaju i veće mogućnosti da zadovolje svoja želje, oni vrlo često uživaju i veći ugled, status i moć u društvu, što svakako pozitivno utiče na njihovu percepciju zadovoljstva životom.

Zadovoljstvo životom je veće ako ispitanik živi u većem gradu. Ova korelacija je veoma slaba, ali značajna, i važi samo za uzorak svih ispitanika, ali ne i za regije. Imajući u vidu da istraživanja u svijetu daju oprečne rezultate bilo bi interesantno nastaviti istraživati razloge zašto je to tako, tj. koji to faktori utiču na to da se gradska populacija osjeća sretnije od stanovnika manjih gradova i sela.

Razlike u zadovoljstvu životom s obzirom na pol nalazimo na cjelokupnom uzorku, i u BiH, i tu vidimo da su muškarci zadovoljniji svojim životom od žena. Ovaj rezultat moramo uzeti sa rezervom jer je veličina uzorka glavni razlog postojanja tih razlika. Naši nalazi se donekle razlikuju od rezultata dobijenih u svijetu, koja ni sama nisu konzistentna i u nekom od njih nalazimo da su muškarci neznatno zadovoljniji od žena (Haring, Stock i Okun, 1984), a negdje žene od muškaraca (Wood, Rhodes i Whelan, 1989). Naravno, postoje i istraživanja gdje se ispitanici nisu razlikovali od ispitanica u stepenu zadovoljstva životom (Michalos, 1987). Teško je objasniti zašto su u našem istraživanju muškarci zadovoljniji svojim životom od žena, moramo imati u vidu uticaj ekonomskih, društvenih, političkih i socijalnih faktora na naše društvo.

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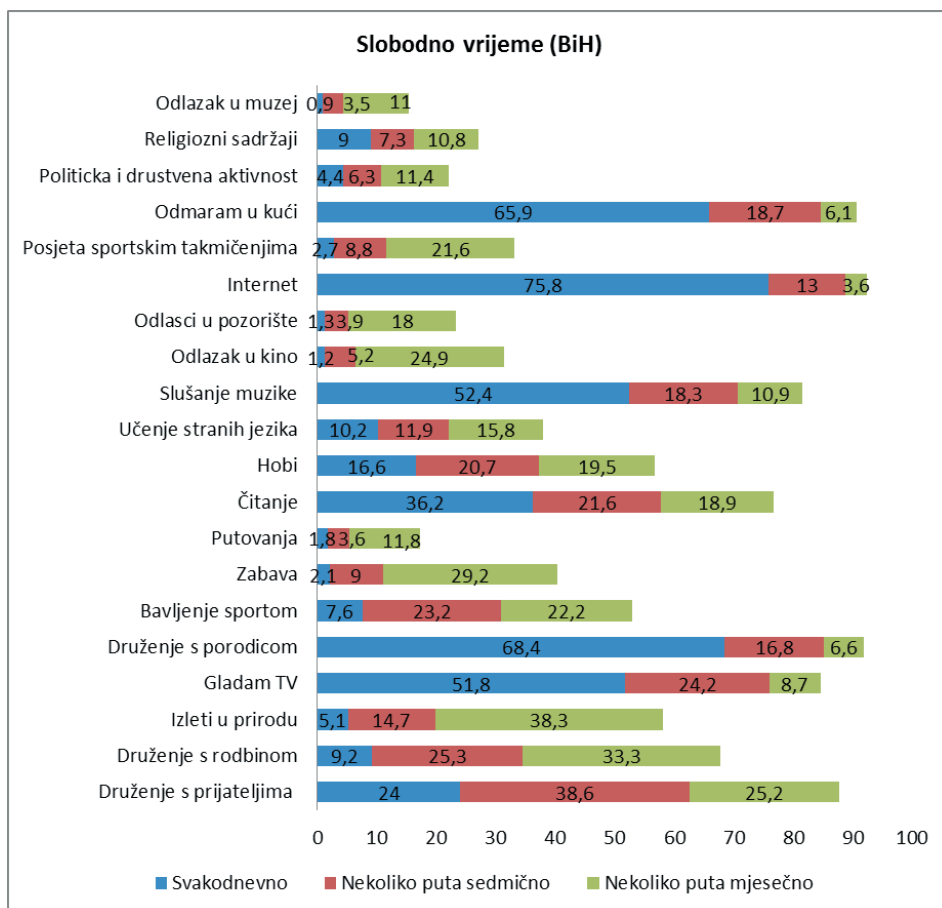
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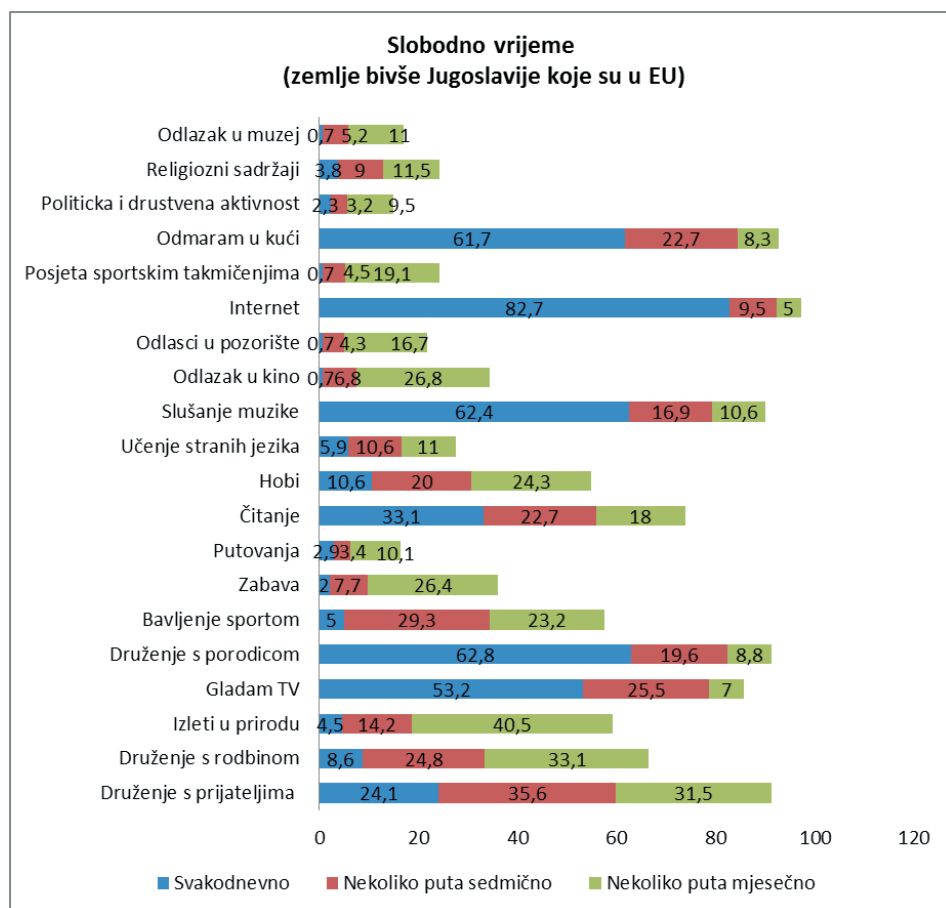
Dodatak 1

Način provođenja slobodnog vremena

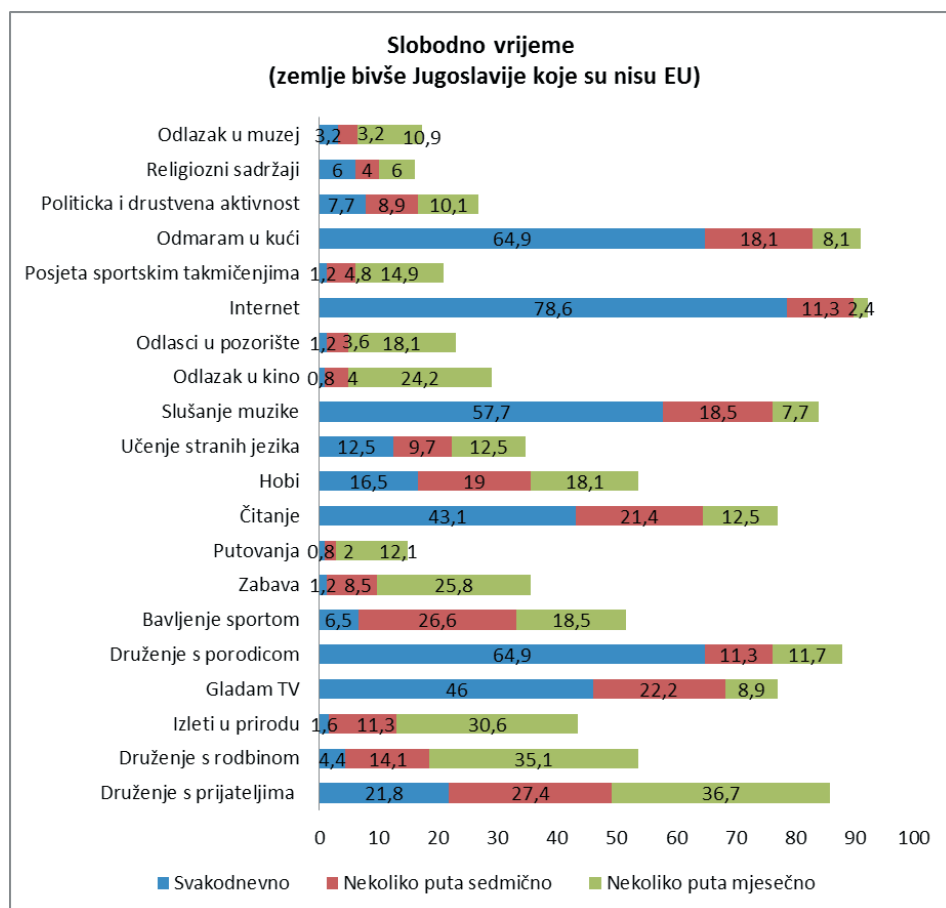
Po regionima



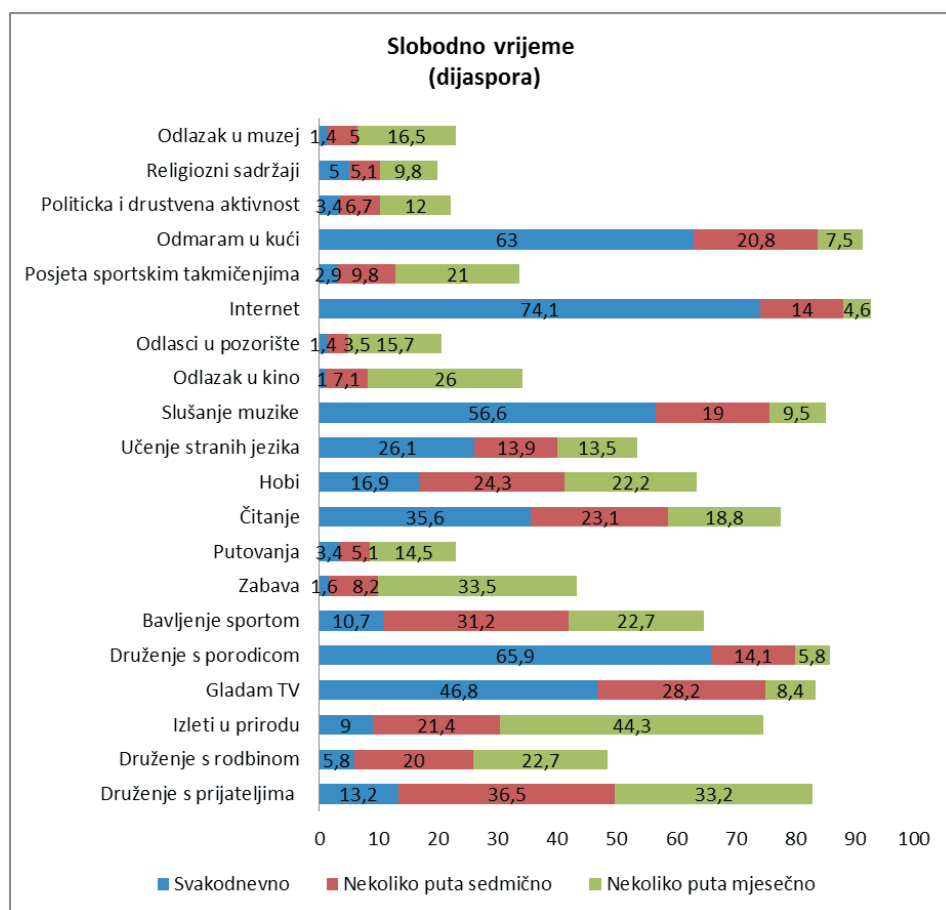
Grafikon 2



Grafikon 3



Grafikon 4



Grafikon 5

Dodatak 2

Konзумiranje štetnih supstanci po regionima

Tabela 75. Pivo

		Zemlja kategorije			Dijaspora	Total
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU		
Nikad ne koristim	N	1507	147	97	296	2047
	%	45,0	34,1	40,1	40,0	43,0
Nekoliko puta godišnje	N	803	144	54	167	1168
	%	24,0	33,4	22,3	22,6	24,5
Nekoliko puta mjesečno	N	662	101	59	170	992
	%	19,8	23,4	24,4	23,0	20,8
Nekoliko puta sedmično	N	310	31	28	88	457
	%	9,3	7,2	11,6	11,9	9,6
Svakodnevno	N	69	8	4	19	100
	%	2,1	1,9	1,7	2,6	2,1
Total	N	3351	431	242	740	4764
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Tabela 75.1 Chi-Square Tests

V	df	p
44,513	12	,000

Tabela 76. *Vino*

		Zemlja kategorije			Dijaspora	Total
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU		
Nikad ne koristim	N	1431	90	76	262	1859
	%	43,0	21,1	31,4	35,2	39,2
Nekoliko puta godišnje	N	1171	169	93	259	1692
	%	35,2	39,6	38,4	34,8	35,7
Nekoliko puta mjesečno	N	555	122	53	153	883
	%	16,7	28,6	21,9	20,6	18,6
Nekoliko puta sedmično	N	147	36	20	64	267
	%	4,4	8,4	8,3	8,6	5,6
Svakodnevno	N	23	10	0	6	39
	%	0,7	2,3	0,0	0,8	0,8
Total	N	3327	427	242	744	4740
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Tabela 76.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
133,803	12	,000

Tabela 77. *Žestoka alkoholna pića*

		Zemlja kategorije			Dijaspora	Total
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU		
Nikad ne koristim	N	1989	131	108	369	2597
	%	59,9	30,8	45,0	49,9	54,9
Nekoliko puta godišnje	N	932	204	89	253	1478
	%	28,1	47,9	37,1	34,2	31,3
Nekoliko puta mjesečno	N	300	84	35	91	510
	%	9,0	19,7	14,6	12,3	10,8
Nekoliko puta sedmično	N	80	6	6	19	111
	%	2,4	1,4	2,5	2,6	2,3
Svakodnevno	N	21	1	2	8	32
	%	0,6	0,2	0,8	1,1	0,7
Total	N	3322	426	240	740	4728
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Tabela 77.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
171,913	12	,000

Tabela 78. *Energetska pića*

		Zemlja kategorije			Dijaspora	Total
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU		
Nikad ne koristim	N	2288	337	192	479	3296
	%	69,4	78,6	80,3	64,6	70,0
Nekoliko puta godišnje	N	674	66	30	129	899
	%	20,4	15,4	12,6	17,4	19,1
Nekoliko puta mjesečno	N	223	16	11	84	334
	%	6,8	3,7	4,6	11,3	7,1
Nekoliko puta sedmično	N	84	8	2	29	123
	%	2,5	1,9	0,8	3,9	2,6
Svakodnevno	N	29	2	4	21	56
	%	0,9	0,5	1,7	2,8	1,2
Total	N	3298	429	239	742	4708
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Tabela 78.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
82,730	12	,000

Tabela 79. Gazirana pića

		Zemlja kategorije			Dijaspora	Total
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU		
Nikad ne koristim	N	695	93	61	170	1019
	%	20,9	21,6	25,3	22,8	21,5
Nekoliko puta godišnje	N	982	132	62	192	1368
	%	29,5	30,6	25,7	25,8	28,8
Nekoliko puta mjesečno	N	1079	159	69	231	1538
	%	32,4	36,9	28,6	31,0	32,4
Nekoliko puta sedmično	N	424	37	33	102	596
	%	12,7	8,6	13,7	13,7	12,6
Svakodnevno	N	147	10	16	50	223
	%	4,4	2,3	6,6	6,7	4,7
Total	N	3327	431	241	745	4744
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Tabela 79.1 Chi-Square Tests

V	df	p
31,851	12	,001

Tabela 80. Lijekove za smirenje

		Zemlja kategorije			Dijaspora	Total
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU		
Nikad ne koristim	N	2218	325	159	624	3326
	%	67,0	75,8	66,0	84,6	70,5
Nekoliko puta godišnje	N	638	64	35	71	808
	%	19,3	14,9	14,5	9,6	17,1
Nekoliko puta mjesečno	N	268	21	25	27	341
	%	8,1	4,9	10,4	3,7	7,2
Nekoliko puta sedmično	N	96	6	7	7	116
	%	2,9	1,4	2,9	0,9	2,5
Svakodnevno	N	90	13	15	9	127
	%	2,7	3,0	6,2	1,2	2,7
Total	N	3310	429	241	738	4718
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Tabela 80.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
116,079	12	,000

Tabela 81. *Cigarete*

		Zemlja kategorije			Dijaspora	Total
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU		
Nikad ne koristim	N	1877	238	130	451	2696
	%	56,2	55,1	53,9	60,9	56,7
Nekoliko puta godišnje	N	96	21	4	29	150
	%	2,9	4,9	1,7	3,9	3,2
Nekoliko puta mjesečno	N	193	30	14	42	279
	%	5,8	6,9	5,8	5,7	5,9
Nekoliko puta sedmično	N	119	15	4	23	161
	%	3,6	3,5	1,7	3,1	3,4
Svakodnevno	N	1055	128	89	195	1467
	%	31,6	29,6	36,9	26,4	30,9
Total	N	3340	432	241	740	4753
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Tabela 81.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
23,001	12	,028

Tabela 82. *Marihuana*

		Zemlja kategorije			Dijaspora	Total
		BiH	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU		
Nikad ne koristim	N	2848	384	210	628	4070
	%	86,3	90,6	87,5	85,8	86,6
Nekoliko puta godišnje	N	257	31	17	71	376
	%	7,8	7,3	7,1	9,7	8,0
Nekoliko puta mjesечно	N	95	4	6	13	118
	%	2,9	0,9	2,5	1,8	2,5
Nekoliko puta sedmično	N	40	1	4	9	54
	%	1,2	0,2	1,7	1,2	1,1
Svakodnevno	N	62	4	3	11	80
	%	1,9	0,9	1,3	1,5	1,7
Total	N	3302	424	240	732	4698
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Tabela 82.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
17,995	12	,116

Bilješka o autorima

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Srđan Puhalo
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LIFE SATISFACTION
OF THE RESIDENTS OF THE
FORMER YUGOSLAVIA

Sarajevo
2020

1. Introduction

People are leaving Bosnia and Herzegovina, but they are also leaving other Balkan countries. Young people are leaving, middle-aged people are leaving, unemployed and employed people are leaving, individuals are leaving, but also entire families. At times, it seems that the countries of the Western Balkans will very quickly become a major geriatric center.

There are no precise statistics on how many people have left these areas, but the estimates are frightening. According to the OSCE, 650,000⁴⁴ people have left Serbia since 2000, and some NGO estimates show that 178,000⁴⁵ people have left Bosnia and Herzegovina in the last six years. According to unofficial data, 145,000⁴⁶ people left Montenegro from 1993 to 2018, while according to some estimates, 520,000⁴⁷ people left Northern Macedonia. Since joining the European Union, 102,000 people have left Croatia, but some believe that the number is much higher and goes up to 300,000⁴⁸.

According to Eurostat data, 228,000 citizens of the Western Balkan countries - Montenegro, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Albania, Northern Macedonia, Serbia, and Kosovo* - legally immigrated to the European Union in 2018. 62,000 citizens emigrated to Albania from the EU, 24,300 from Northern Macedonia, and 34,500 from Kosovo. Last year, 53,500 people left Bosnia and Herzegovina, 51,000 people left Serbia, and 3,000 left Montenegro⁴⁹.

⁴⁴ <http://rs.n1info.com/Vesti/a459503/Srbiju-napustaju-radnici-svih-profila-drzava-reaguje-koordinacionim-telom.html>

⁴⁵ <https://www.dw.com/bs/egzodus-iz-bosne-i-hercegovine/a-49486241>

⁴⁶ <https://portalanalitika.me/clanak/338037/sve-vise-mladih-odlazi-niko-za-to-ne-haje>

⁴⁷ <http://www.novosti.rs/vesti/planeta.300.html:642969-Makedonija-se-ubrzanoprazni>

⁴⁸ <https://www.tportal.hr/biznis/clanak/konacno-znamo-koliko-ljudi-se-iselilo-iz-hrvatske-brojka-je-golema-ali-u-stvarnosti-je-duplo-gore-foto-20181218>

⁴⁹ <http://radio101.hr/228-tisuca-gradana-zemalja-zapadnog-balkana-lani-se-uselilo-u-eu/>

Of course, these data should be taken with a grain of salt, because none of the above-mentioned countries has a developed methodology, which would accurately monitor the migration of its inhabitants outside the country, which again speaks of their attitude towards this problem.

What is even more worrying are the attitudes of the inhabitants of these countries about leaving the country. In a survey entitled „Why do people leave Serbia?“⁵⁰, the non-governmental organization Serbia 21 showed that 22% of people want to move out of Serbia, mostly young people between the ages of 18 and 29, as many as 34%. The survey also states that 41% of respondents from the diaspora do not plan to return to Serbia, while every third respondent (35%) wants to return when they retire, however, the vast majority, as many as 90% of those living outside Serbia do not see a future for their children in Serbia.

A study by the Friedrich Ebert Foundation on youth⁵¹ in Southeast European countries showed that the strongest desire to leave the country exists among young people from Macedonia (35%), Kosovo* (34%), Serbia (29%), Bosnia and Herzegovina (27%), Montenegro (26%) and Croatia (11%).

The reasons for leaving the Western Balkans are varied, but almost always the same whether you live in Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Montenegro, Macedonia or Kosovo*. People leave because they do not have a job, because they have low salaries, because they are sick of corruption, nepotism, partocracy. Among them, there are those who have reached their peak in their careers and want to further develop and progress. Some are afraid of the outbreak of a new war, some no longer want to wait for a better future, and a good part of them are leaving because they do not want their children to live in such a society.

What is especially worrying is the desire of young people to either permanently or for a long period of time leave the country in which they live.

⁵⁰ <https://www.vice.com/rs/article/ywkk5y/pitali-smo-srbe-u-dijaspori-sta-treba-da-se-promeni-da-bi-se-vratili-u-zemlju>

⁵¹ <http://library.fes.de/pdf-files/bueros/belgrad/15293.pdf>

All of them want a better life, but the question is what is a good life and how satisfied are the citizens of Croatia, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Serbia, Montenegro, Macedonia and Kosovo* today with their lives, as well as the inhabitants of those countries living abroad today?

2. What is quality of life?

Interest in quality of life began in the middle of the 20th century, when economists began to deal with it, connecting it with the standard of living. They explained to us that with the improvement of economic parameters (increase in GDP, income level, reduction of the unemployment rate and poverty rate, reduction of the length of the working hours, etc.), living conditions improve, and thus people become happier. Following this logic, if the parameters of the standard of living in a country were to increase several times and the perception of the quality of life would increase as much, which was not in line with the findings. Socio-demographic factors such as income, health, education, marital status explained a relatively small percentage of variance in subjective well-being (usually between 8% and 20%), which means that material conditions alone were not good enough indicators of subjective well-being (Diener, Oishi & Lucas, 2003; Diener et al., 1999; Lyubomirsky, Sheldon & Schkade, 2005). At the end of the 1960s, sociologists began to research the quality of life, and they began to distinguish between the objective and subjective components, that is, objective and subjective indicators of personal quality of life. During the 70s of the last century, the attention of researchers was increasingly focused on subjective indicators of quality of life. The individual becomes the center of research, and his subjective experience of his own life now depends not only on objective parameters, but also on his personality traits through which reality is refracted, and specific life experience. Psychology is slowly but surely taking precedence over this type of research, and life satisfaction is a term that is increasingly used.

3. What is the difference between well-being, life satisfaction and quality of life?

In the previous chapter, we showed how over time the concept of quality of life has evolved into the concept of life satisfaction. Yet there is still considerable confusion among researchers in various fields.

What are the differences, and are there any, between the terms well-being, life satisfaction and quality of life?

Prosperity encompasses various objective and subjective aspects of life. Within the objective we find the following indicators: living conditions, education, social order, political stability, financial situation, etc., while the subjective aspects consist of subjective, psychological and social well-being indicators.

Quality of life is a construct that is very often equated with well-being. Here is how quality of life is defined by Cuminns (according to Jovanović, 2016) „Quality of life has an objective and subjective axis, and each represents a set of seven domains: material well-being, health, productivity, intimacy, security, community and emotional well-being.”

Both of these concepts, within their definitions, take into account the conditions in which the individual lives, but also his subjective perception of his life and work.

Life satisfaction is an integral part of well-being and quality of life and implies an affective and cognitive evaluation of one's own life (Diener, 2000).

4. Quality of life

Life satisfaction is a cognitive component of subjective well-being and is most often defined as a person's subjective evaluation of how good their life is in relation to their own standards and criteria that they

consider important (Pavot & Diener, 1993). From this definition of life satisfaction, the emphasis is on subjective assessment, which makes the objective parameters of life (GDP, employment rate, salary, etc.) less important and the criteria we set ourselves when comparing. As a result, we have situations where the inhabitants of both, very rich and very poor countries describe themselves as happy.

When we talk about life satisfaction, we must keep in mind that this subjective assessment does not annul the objective parameters, ie. the conditions in which the individual lives. It is very important for people to have some basic needs met: availability of food and water, safety, health or a good relationship with other people. On the other hand, life satisfaction is largely subject to cultural influence. The environment in which an individual lives largely determines what individuals from different cultures will value as important (Suh, Diener, Oishi & Triandis, 1998). What is socially desirable behavior in Britain does not have to be in China.

When measuring life satisfaction, we must keep in mind that it is a very complex process and can vary over time, in which the individual takes into account many factors. Some of them are short-lived and depend on the current situation the person is in (currently we have the flu and we are unemployed), some factors are permanent but prone to change (current good mood) and permanent factors (personality traits, satisfaction with family life, how we estimate our success at work, etc.).

In our research, we will deal only with the cognitive aspect of life satisfaction, but not the affective one. We are aware that we are neglecting a very important aspect of subjective well-being, but let it remain the subject of some research in the future.

5. Determinants of life satisfaction

Under the influence of economists, gross domestic product and similar economic measures of the country have long been considered the

main indicators of quality of life, however, they have proved insufficient because research has shown that this correlation is not linear. This connection stands out in societies that are extremely poor and where its members cannot meet basic living needs, but with the increase in living standards this connection is lost. Also, these parameters could not explain the findings of research that show that residents of a country that is not at war and residents of a country in which a war is currently going on are equally satisfied with life (Hagopian et al. 2013).

An objective approach to studying quality of life is more traditional and is based on a series of assumptions about what makes life good, and is predominantly focused on identifying external conditions that lead to life improvement. Objective social indicators of quality of life include: GDP, poverty rate, employment and unemployment, productivity, money (salary), but also the degree of drug addiction, alcoholism and crime in one society. Lately, ecology has also been taken as an important aspect of quality of life. Based on these indicators, conclusions about the quality of life of the inhabitants of a society are then indirectly drawn.

Today, it is quite clear that the quality of life is determined by a combination of objective and subjective indicators. This connection between subjective and objective indicators would imply that a person's subjective sense of life satisfaction is greatly influenced by objective factors.

5.1 Gross domestic product

Gross domestic product (GDP) is „hard”, ie. an external measure of the social and economic development of a state. Very often, GDP is used as one of the most important indicators of the living standard of society, but not the only one, because we must not neglect the influence of other factors such as: employment rate, inflation, balance of payments, etc. In addition to these economic factors, one must always

take into account non-economic factors such as: leisure time, quality of the environment, level of health and education, etc.

In the 1930s, the most important economic indicator of living standards was GDP as a definition of the achievement of economic and social development, because economic growth was equated with GDP growth. This position was deviated from after the outbreak of the economic crisis in 2008, which turned into a crisis of values (Murgaš & Bohm, 2014). Today, gross domestic product is not presented as a measure of long-term social, economic development and prosperity, because its growth does not mean growth of life satisfaction, but we often use it in combination with other factors when it comes to explaining some aspects of life satisfaction.

Simply put, GDP growth means nothing in one society if the whole society does not benefit from that wealth. This claim is supported by the results of research by Bleys (2005) and Stiglitz et al. (2009).

Gross domestic product is an important indicator of the economic condition of a society. When we talk about migrations of people in the world, we cannot ignore the fact that the inhabitants of countries with lower GDP per capita migrate to countries with relatively high GDP per capita⁵². During 2017, 2.24 million people from other countries immigrated to the EU⁵³. We are fully aware that it is wrong to reduce migration only to economic parameters, but we must not neglect them in any way.

For the purposes of this research, we will show where the countries of the former Yugoslavia are in relation to the EU or individual countries from this union through the measure of purchasing power standards (PPS), and it is obtained by dividing the total GDP by popu-

⁵² https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Migration_and_migrant_population_statistics/hr#Migracijski_tokovi:_U_EU_je_2017._uselilo_2.2C4_milijuna_osoba_iz_dr.C5.BEava_koje_nisu_.C4.8Dlance_EU-a

⁵³ https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Migration_and_migrant_population_statistics/hr#Migracijski_tokovi:_U_EU_je_2017._uselilo_2.2C4_milijuna_osoba_iz_dr.C5.BEava_koje_nisu_.C4.8Dlance_EU-a

lation adjusted to prices. If the value of PPS has a value of 100, then values above that number indicate that the value of that country's GDP is above average, and if the value is below 100 then the value of GDP is below average. According to Eurostat⁵⁴ data for 2018, BiH has a value of 31, Northern Macedonia 38, Serbia 40, Montenegro 48, Croatia 63, Slovenia 88. As we can see, the countries of the former Yugoslavia are below the EU average when it comes to the PPS measure, but it is important to emphasize that in the countries that are in the EU the situation is somewhat better (Croatia and Slovenia), compared to the countries waiting to join the EU (Montenegro, Serbia, Northern Macedonia, BiH). Countries to which residents of the countries of the former Yugoslavia most often emigrate have PPS above average, for example Austria (128), Germany (123), Italy (97), Denmark (129) or Sweden (121).

The question is whether people in countries where PPS is above average are happier than residents of countries with lower PPS? They seem to be, but difference in happiness is not as great as the difference in purchasing power standards.

If we look at the *Life Satisfaction Survey*, Eurostat from 2016⁵⁵, we will see that respondents from Bulgaria (5.6), Greece (5.3), Albania (4.9), Turkey (6) are the least satisfied with their lives, followed by the countries of the former Yugoslavia. Macedonia, Montenegro and Serbia (6.3), Croatia (6.5), Italy (6.6), Slovenia (6.9), Germany (7.3) and Austria (7.9). The highest average score is found in the population of Denmark (8.2), Finland (7.9) and Sweden (7.9).

Money seems to be important for perceiving our own happiness only to the extent that it allows us to meet basic biological needs, and when we cross that limit, then its importance decreases, which is again in line with the findings of previous studies (Easterlin, 1995; Diener, Tay & Oishi, 2013).

⁵⁴ <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/databrowser/view/tec00114/default/table?lang=en>

⁵⁵ <https://www.eurofound.europa.eu/hr/surveys/european-quality-of-life-surveys/european-quality-of-life-survey-2016>

5.2 The level of poverty

The term „poverty” has long implied only a lack of income to purchase basic life necessities (goods and services). Today, however, the definition of poverty is defined as a situation where basic opportunities for a dignified life are lacking⁵⁶.

Poverty manifests itself in various ways: hunger and malnutrition, poor health, limited or no access to education, increased mortality, homelessness and inadequate housing conditions, insecure environment, and social discrimination and isolation⁵⁷. In addition, non-participation in the political, social and cultural life of society are characteristics of dissatisfaction with basic human rights, which can be caused by poverty.

Poverty can be absolute and relative. Absolute poverty implies starvation and lack of basic living conditions, while relative poverty includes deprivation of higher living needs, related to living standards and lifestyles such as travel, going out to restaurants etc. (Šućur, 2001).

When we look at the data on the level of poverty in our country and in the region, we see that about 19.5% of the population of BiH lives below the general poverty line (approximately 25% in RS and 16% in FBiH)⁵⁸. In Serbia, the rate of risk of poverty or social exclusion (these persons are at risk of poverty, or are extremely materially deprived, or live in households with very low labor intensity) in 2019 was 34.3%⁵⁹. In Croatia, the at-risk-of-poverty rate was 20% of the total population, while in Slovenia 13.3%. In the countries where our people most often emigrate, the rate is slightly lower, in Germany 16.1%,

⁵⁶ https://www.esiweb.org/pdf/bridges/bosnia/PRSP_PregledSiromastva.pdf

⁵⁷ Bosnia and Herzegovina: Poverty Assessment, Svjetska banka, Izvještaj br. 25343-BIH.

⁵⁸ Bosnia and Herzegovina: Poverty Assessment, Svjetska banka, Izvještaj br. 25343-BiH, str. 6.

⁵⁹ <https://www.stat.gov.rs/sr-latn/vesti/20191015-siromastvo-i-socijalna-nejednakost-2018/?s=0102>

in Austria 14.4%. If we look at the EU as a whole, the at-risk-of-poverty rate was 16.9% according to 2017 data⁶⁰.

Of the total number of poor in BiH, about 56% of them live in families with children. Children are particularly vulnerable in the RS, where about half of them live in poor families, while in the FBiH this is the case for about a third. About 13% of children live in the poorest families, and 29% of them in households on the poverty line. Poverty of families with children is most pronounced where none of the members of the household are employed⁶¹.

According to Eurostat research, in countries with a lower level of poverty risk, it does not mean that people are more satisfied with their financial situation. For example, the Czech Republic is the country with the lowest percentage of the population at risk of poverty, but more than 40% of respondents are not satisfied with their financial situation⁶².

Although at first glance we can expect that the amount of money will affect the level of happiness of an individual, we should be careful. Research by Diener, Taya & Oishia (2013) has shown that with increasing household income, life satisfaction also changes. Similar results were obtained by Stevenson and Wolfers (2008) analyzing the results of multiple studies. The only exception was the United States. This led the authors to conclude that high GDP alone does not mean much if that wealth is not properly distributed. However, there are other findings, Esterlin's research from 1974 is known, in which he shows that when GDP doubles, the perception of happiness remains the same or slightly increases.

The debate over how wealth affects subjective well-being is not over yet and its end is not in sight. Still, there are some regularities we can talk about. The poorer a society is, the greater the influence of personal income on the perception of personal happiness, but that

⁶⁰ https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Income_poverty_statistics/hr&oldid=469037

⁶¹ Bosnia and Herzegovina: Poverty Assessment, Svjetska banka, Izvještaj br. 25343-BIH

⁶² Eurostata „Quality of life in Europe — facts and views”, 2015.godina.

influence becomes weaker as the society becomes richer. Also, this influence is best seen in the cognitive aspects of personal well-being, but significantly less so in the affective components (Diener, Ng, Harter & Aurora, 2010).

5.3 Money (salary)

Can money buy happiness?

Esterlin (1995) said no. In an analysis conducted in the United States, Japan, Belgium, Denmark, France, Greece, the Netherlands, Ireland, Italy, Germany and the United Kingdom, he showed that although GDP has doubled and wages have risen, the subjective level of well-being is remained the same or slightly increased or decreased. Since then, this paradox has been called by his name.

However, one should be careful with this conclusion.

Diener and Seligman (2004) state that money brings only small increases in well-being, after a certain threshold is crossed. Clark, Frijters and Shields (2008) state that greater economic prosperity at some point ceases to buy more happiness, a similar claim is made by Di Tella and MacCulloch (2008) who say „Once basic needs are met, there is a complete change in further economic growth”. Frey and Stutzer (2002) argue that „income provides happiness at low levels of development, but when the threshold is reached (set at about \$10,000 in America), the average income level in a country has little impact on life satisfaction”.

According to research conducted in Croatia (Vuletić et al., 2011), for most respondents money is a means to meet basic needs for life, only a few members of the younger age group mentioned the desire for wealth and perceived money as an important factor in achieving a higher quality of life.

Taking into account the conclusions reached by Dunn, Aknin and Norton, in a paper published in 2008, we can say that money can buy happiness, but only as a means by which we can reach things that make us happy, and that money itself does not significantly increase

the feeling of satisfaction and happiness. According to a survey they conducted in America, it was concluded that it is more satisfying to spend money on others than on yourself.

5.4 (Un)employment

Unemployment is defined as a condition when a part of the working age population cannot find employment adequate to their abilities and financial needs. In addition, the group of unemployed includes all residents who are partially employed, but their labor force is not fully utilized, i.e. they do not work full time and accordingly do not have sufficient financial compensation for work, necessary for normal functioning in society (Bejaković, 2003).

According to the official statistical data of the Agency for Statistics of BiH, in January 2020 the number of unemployed in BiH was 402,888⁶³. In the fourth quarter of 2019, the number of unemployed in Serbia was 314,100⁶⁴, in Croatia 124,000, in Slovenia 39,000 for the same period. When it comes to Austria, that figure for 2019 was 198,000, and for Germany 1,390,000, while in the EU it is 15,240,000⁶⁵.

Greve (2012) emphasizes that 80% of the differences in happiness between countries and individuals can be explained by six factors: divorce, unemployment, trust, membership in religious organizations, faith in God, and the quality of government. Research in Croatia (Dobrotić et al., 2007) shows that unemployed people are more dissatisfied with their lives, as well as those who suffer from chronic diseases, and single people. Andersen (2009) in his research at the EU level finds that life satisfaction decreases among unemployed people. Di Tella, MacCulloch, Oswald (2003) and Volfers (2003) analyzed the effects of the unemployment rate at the macro level, on the level of happiness of the individual. They state that an increase in the unemployment rate at the macro level reduces the happiness of an individual. Volfers further reveals that fluctuations in the unemployment rate also

⁶³ http://bhas.gov.ba/data/Publikacije/Saopštenja/2020/LAB_03_2020_02_0_BS.pdf

⁶⁴ <https://www.stat.gov.rs/sr-latn/vesti/20200228-kretanja-na-trzistu-rada-u-cetvrtom-kvartalu-2019/?s=2400>

⁶⁵ https://appsso.eurostat.ec.europa.eu/nui/show.do?dataset=une_rt_a&lang=en

negatively affect the level of happiness. One study from Japan (Ohtake, 2012) shows that 43% of respondents who are unemployed answered that they were unhappy and dissatisfied with their lives, and only 8% of other respondents gave the same answer. Similar results are shown by a survey conducted in Germany, which shows that people's level of satisfaction increases after finding a job, and that only 5% of the unemployed said they were happy (Winkelmann, 2014).

However, we must keep in mind that job loss does not affect all people the same way. Research by Clark and Oswald (1994) showed that job loss is most difficult for people aged 30 to 50 and that it is harder for men to accept job loss than it is for women. Research also shows that job loss affects not only those who lose their jobs, but also people from their business environment, because they also have a fear of losing their job (Clark, Knabe & Rätzl, 2009). People who are generally less satisfied with life find it harder to bear the loss of a job (Binder & Coad, 2014).

In the same way that unemployment harms the individual (Lucas et al., 2004), employment can also be of great benefit (Binder & Coad, 2010). This refers in part to the steady income that a job provides to an individual, but also because of the sense of meaning it can provide, social validation, and other psychological factors (Layard et al., 2013). These non-monetary factors should play a key role in job satisfaction, and could also be understood as encouraging insight that it is often preferable to be employed rather than unemployed, in terms of individual well-being (Gruen et al., 2010). However, there are certain jobs that are better than others in some characteristics - for example, those that offer individuals a high level of self-determination and autonomy and that provide greater non-property benefits and increase job satisfaction (Benz & Frey, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 2000). Self-determination theory says that individuals value autonomy in their jobs because it satisfies an innate psychological need (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Frey, 1997). Therefore, we can assume that workplace autonomy will be one of the important determinants of workplace well-being and job satisfaction.

When it comes to job satisfaction, according to Eurostat⁶⁶ data from 2013, 19.4% of workers in the EU are dissatisfied with the work they do, while 55.8% said they are moderately satisfied with their jobs. Greater dissatisfaction is present in countries with a more difficult political and economic situation, which is very much the cause of insecurity of survival at

⁶⁶ <https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/3217494/6856423/KS-05-14-073-EN-N/742aee45-4085-4dac-9e2e-9ed7e9501f23>

the workplace. Job satisfaction is influenced by many factors such as the number of working hours, the distance of the work place from home, the work environment, motivation, etc.

In 1983, Chaco used the frequencies of change in job satisfaction and life satisfaction. The study concluded that there was a causal, continuous relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction. Some studies have found that job satisfaction or dissatisfaction directly affects family conflicts, marital satisfaction, and life satisfaction in general. The results also showed that the respondents' life satisfaction was influenced by their level of job satisfaction and marital satisfaction. In their study, Panos and Theodossior (2007) studied and found that job satisfaction is actually a major factor in overall life satisfaction. This is a more important factor than satisfaction with family, leisure time, health, finances and social life. They also found that highly educated individuals have a higher level of job satisfaction and concluded that the link between career fulfillment and life satisfaction should not be underestimated and deserves attention. In conclusion, most research to date on the correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction have indicated a close, causal relationship that may be inversely proportional, depending on what individuals actually consider to be important factors in measuring life satisfaction.

5.5 Productivity

The term productivity mainly refers to the achieved results of invested labor in production or some other activity of human labor. Labor productivity is considered to be a key driver of economic growth and competitiveness⁶⁷.

The increase in productivity is very important for the further development of the community. The position of a country on the market also depends on the level of productivity, the low productivity of any branch of the economy is reflected in the level of development of that country as a whole, and the standard of living indirectly depends on it as well. Countries with high productivity have high GDP, which is largely reflected in the high living standards.

⁶⁷ file:///C:/Users/PC/Downloads/Produktivnost%20rada%20u%20Federaciji%20BiH%20(1).pdf

Productivity can be affected by various factors (technical equipment, worker structure, working conditions, distribution of work results, production range and integration). All factors on which productivity depends can be classified into three groups: general factors, technical organizational factors and human factors.

Labor productivity is best measured as GDP per hour worked and is one of the most commonly used indicators of productivity, but since data on the number of hours is not available for every country, another indicator is used, which is the number of employees.

When it comes to the EU and the surrounding countries through a unique methodological approach, efforts were made to ensure the international comparability of the obtained data, and for this purpose the key EUROSTAT indicators of labor productivity are used, as follows:

- ❖ GDP per employee
- ❖ GDP per hour worked
- ❖ Real unit labor costs⁶⁸

In the period 2011-2015, productivity in BiH had a continuous slight growth trend, from 37,792 KM per employee in 2011, to 39,586 KM per employee in 2015. In Croatia, labor productivity indicators are better, but without a growth trend. BiH lags behind the EU member states and productivity is at the level of 31% of the EU average in 2015⁶⁹.

5.6 *Environmental quality*

Ecology is a scientific discipline that studies the distribution of living organisms and the biological interactions between organisms and their environment. The impact of society on nature was most pronounced during the industrial revolution when little attention was paid

⁶⁸ <https://www.gea.ba/wp-content/uploads/2015/12/Analiza-o-produktivnosti-rada-LAT.pdf>

⁶⁹ [file:///C:/Users/PC/Downloads/Produktivnost%20rada%20u%20Federaciji%20BiH%20\(1\).pdf](file:///C:/Users/PC/Downloads/Produktivnost%20rada%20u%20Federaciji%20BiH%20(1).pdf)

to preserving the environment, and the goal was to efficiently conquer and exploit natural resources, without thinking about how it would affect human lives and lives of other living beings (Ujević, 1991). At that time, such a trend was perceived as high technological and social development and was a precondition for the progress of civilization.

However, some economists have questioned the increase in industrial production and quality of life. Environmental catastrophes and a sharp decline in natural resources have led to the emergence of a new paradigm of society development that has sparked new debates on sustainable development. It is a development that takes care not only of our well-being, but also of the well-being of our children and grandchildren. Today, GDP is no longer the most important indicator of a society's development, but the terms environmental sustainability index (ESI) and environmental performance index (EPI) are being introduced⁷⁰. The ESI assesses a country's ability to protect its environment over the next few decades. The EPI index appeared in 2005 and it measures a country's total contribution to environmental protection, taking into account global environmental problems and how individual countries face them.

When we look at the EPI ranking of countries, we see that the best are Switzerland, France, Denmark, Malta, Sweden, Great Britain, Luxembourg, Austria, and at the end of this list are Angola, Central African Republic, Nigeria, Lesotho, Haiti, Madagascar, Nepal, India, DR Congo, Bangladesh and Burundi. Bosnia and Herzegovina ranks 158th, Croatia 41st, Slovenia 34th, Serbia 84th, Montenegro 65th and Macedonia 68th⁷¹.

It is quite clear that today the quality of life of an individual is also affected by the quality of air, water, soil, and the cleanliness of the environment in which he/she is. The environment, in addition to economic factors, can have a crucial impact on an individual when making a decision about where to live. Man is a part of nature, and as such is influenced by events that occur in that nature. Man cannot live in

⁷⁰ <https://epi.envirocenter.yale.edu/>

⁷¹ <https://epi.envirocenter.yale.edu/>

prosperity if nature is not kind to him and if his life is negatively affected by pollution and natural disasters.

Having in mind these factors, we can conclude that environmental conditions play a significant role in determining ones quality of life. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), 24% of diseases, and 23% of diseases that end fatally occur as a result of an unfavorable environmental conditions (Yagudin, Fakhrutdinova, Kolesnikova, & Pshenichnyi, 2014).

In terms of the living environment, urban development can have a very detrimental effect on its ecosystems, by building on sensitive and fertile soils, as well as by improper disposal of urban and industrial waste. Environmental hazards also come from natural sources, such as earthquakes, floods, then human sources, such as environmental disasters caused by industry, traffic, fires... Environmental risks can also be caused by global environmental problems such as the greenhouse effect, rising sea levels, climate change, and international water pollution (Leitman, 1999). All these factors affect ones quality of life and life satisfaction (Keles, 2012).

Climate change has the greatest impact on many less developed countries, within which individuals with unfavorable financial status are most affected.

The quality of the environment is a key factor in human well-being, because the quality of life is affected by health which is conditioned by the physical environment (Holman & Coan, 2008; Kahn, 2002). Extreme environmental events such as natural disasters (earthquakes, floods, droughts and volcanic eruptions) and epidemics can also cause increased mortality, injury and disease.

In the long run, drastic climate change in the environment can impair human health (Ahmad & Yamano, 2011).

In addition to affecting human health, the environment in which people live is very important to them because they pay great attention to the beauty and health of the place where they reside, and because they care about the depletion of the planet's natural resources (Balestra & Dottori, 2011; Kahn & Matsusaka, 1997). The benefits that people have directly from environmental goods, such as water, clean

air, land, forests and access to green areas, are also unquestionable, because they enable people to satisfy their basic but also higher needs (Balestra & Sultan, 2012).

5.7 *The size of settlement*

The issue that is partially explored in the literature concerns the relationship between urbanization and life satisfaction (Morrison, 2014; Tomaney, 2015; Piper, 2015). This topic is particularly relevant in the case of countries in transition and developing countries, and is characterized by huge differences in the economic growth rates of urban and rural areas. The importance of geographical location for individual life satisfaction has been clearly demonstrated by many scientists (Oswald & Wu, 2010; Glaeser et al., 2016; Morrison, 2011). Some research has highlighted lower levels of happiness and satisfaction in cities compared to rural areas (Knight & Gunatilaka, 2010; Hayo, 2007; Sørensen, 2014); others, however, reported an increase in welfare with increasing size of the settlement (Appleton & Song, 2008; Reh-danz & Maddison, 2005; Rodr'iguez-Pose & Maslauskaitė, 2012). Moreover, some authors suggest that the level of economic development affects the link between urbanization and life satisfaction, and rural areas are disadvantaged compared to urban ones, especially in poorer countries (Shucksmith et al., 2009; Easterlin et al., 2011; Berry & Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2011; Requena, 2015).

Recently, most scholars have focused on studying the relationship between urbanization and life satisfaction (Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2015). The research results show a discrepancy between empirical findings and theoretical expectations; while cities are the place where the most intensive processes of economic growth take place (Glaeser et al., 1991), urbanization is mainly associated with lower levels of life satisfaction (Graham, 2012). Such results led to the identification of urban and rural divisions; living outside the city is likely to lead to greater life satisfaction than living in urban areas.

Research that analyzed the relationship between urbanization and life satisfaction have been focusing on understanding the impact of the urban living environment on higher or lower levels of individual happiness. Most research results show that urbanization or urban life has led to lower levels of happiness and life satisfaction than living in rural areas (Hayo, 2007; Knight & Gunatilaka, 2010; Okulicz-Kozaryn, 2012; Sørensen, 2014). Scientists have interpreted and explained this result as a consequence of the impact of the economy and the rise in living standards in the urban environment. However, the dualism between rural and urban areas based on the approach of most of these contributions is oversimplified for at least two reasons. First, because cities are not all equal, and each of them provides very different types of benefits and, therefore, external values for the population. Secondly, because rural areas are not all the same, and each of them is able to „capture” to a different extent the external values that we find in cities.

5.8 Crime

One of the important factors that affect the quality of life is the crime rate. Crime is a term used to describes all activities that violate the political and moral norms of a society, especially when it comes to the norms behind the legal sanction of the state⁷².

The social security is very important when it comes to the quality of life, and the fear of crime can have a direct impact on our well-being. Data collected in 2010/11 under the ESS (European Social Survey) show that countries differ not only in the extent to which their citizens fear crime, but also in the extent to which this fear leads to a decrease sense of well-being. For example, in Greece and Lithuania, two out of five people think that their well-being is affected by their fear of crime, while in Norway the ratio is around one to ten⁷³.

⁷² Crime. Oxford English Dictionary Second Edition on CD-ROM. Oxford: Oxford University Press. 2009

⁷³ https://www.europeansocialsurvey.org/docs/findings/ESS1_5_select_findings_ba.pdf

A major impact on the growth of crime is the unstable state system, the lack of a value system in society, and a low standard of living (Smailhodžić, 2018).

According to Eurostat data from 2013, as many as 46.4% of EU residents said they did not feel safe walking alone at night. It is interesting to note that almost the same number of respondents belonging to both the male and female population answered this question equally, ie that they did not feel safe at night. On the other hand, despite this high percentage, only 25.3% of the EU population reported being exposed to low levels of physical insecurity, while 14.5% claimed to have been exposed to violence, crime or vandalism. We can draw a conclusion that such high level of uncertainty is more subjective experience of the environment⁷⁴.

When it comes to the experience of victimization, Hanslmaier (2013) points to the significant impact of victimization on life satisfaction. Stauble, Killias, and Frei (2014) examine the impact of different types of victimization on life satisfaction and conclude that there is a „negative association between life satisfaction and property crime such as burglary, consumer fraud, and crimes against persons such as assault, threat, robbery, or sexual influences” (Møller, 2005; Powdthavee, 2005). According to Hanslmaier (2013), victimization could affect happiness precisely through fear of crime. Nevertheless, his data show a direct impact of both victimization and fear of crime on life satisfaction. Adams and Serpe (2000) in turn found that fear of crime indirectly affects life satisfaction by reducing human control over their lives.⁷⁵

According to research conducted by *Inter-American Development Bank* (Di Tella, MacCulloch, Ñopo, 2008), it has been found that the well-being of residents in Latin America, but also in the rest of the world, is negatively affected by crime, as well as their perception of

⁷⁴ https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/statistics-explained/index.php?title=Archive:Quality_of_life_in_Europe_-_facts_and_views_-_economic_and_physical_safety&oldid=400085

⁷⁵ https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324607062_Life_satisfaction_and_happiness_discussing_the_impact_of_fear_of_crime_and_victimization

corruption. In addition, corruption in government negatively affects attitudes about economic mobility and corruption in private business. Finally, it is concluded that crime, threats, money theft, robbery, the presence of drug dealers in the neighborhood / environment, increases the likelihood that an individual will feel anger, physical pain, worry, sadness, boredom and depression.

The second study (Krulichová, 2018) confirmed the already mentioned results from the previous study. The association between the indicators of subjective well-being and fear of crime was confirmed, which gave statistically significant results. Respondents who fear crime are less satisfied and happy than those whose fear of crime is relatively low.

5.9 Drug addiction and alcoholism

high levels of life satisfaction are associated with positive outcomes in the intrapersonal, vocational, health and educational settings, while low levels of life satisfaction similarly predict a number of negative outcomes, including various high-risk behaviors (e.g. drug and alcohol abuse and aggressive/violent behavior), psychopathological symptoms (depression, anxiety, low self-esteem, low self-efficacy, loneliness), and physical health indices (e.g., obesity) (Ye et al., 2014).

Some addictions such as drug addiction and / or alcoholism represent a mental disorder because there are pathological processes that changes the way the brain functions (Brlas and Gorjanac, 2015). The WHO⁷⁶ has defined drug addiction as: „a condition of periodic or chronic intoxication caused by repeated drug intake.” When it comes to alcoholism, the definition of the WHO is: „An alcoholic is a person who has become addicted to alcohol (mentally, physically or in both ways) through prolonged drinking and has developed health (mental or physical) impairments and social difficulties accessible to classical medical and social diagnostic procedures. These symptoms must be

⁷⁶ <http://www.batut.org.rs/download/MKB102010Knjiga1.pdf>

identified, not merely presumed, and concluded on the basis of anamnestic data on excessive drinking that the patient is suffering from alcoholism.”

Problems with addiction to certain substances are not only harmful consequences for the individual who is a consumer, but also have a negative impact on the environment of the individual. According to the research of the Medical Faculty in Osijek, 80% of respondents, members of the families of addicts, rated their attitude towards the quality of life as neither good nor bad (Tutić, 2016).

In general, the greater the number of chronic diseases a person has, the greater the risk of functional impairment of all dimensions related to quality of life (Thommasen & Zhang, 2006). Research has shown that alcohol and drug addicts are less satisfied with the quality of life than respondents who do not consume opiates (Smith & Larson, 2003). However, drug abuse impairs an individual's life functionality to a greater extent than alcohol abuse (Smith and Larson, 2003). Research shows that after rehabilitation, life satisfaction increased among respondents (Laudet and Stanick, 2010). A large number of patients who agreed to rehabilitation have improved their quality of life. Namely, 58% of patients experienced a positive change in terms of quality of life according to the research (Pasareanu, Vederhus, Opsal, Kristensen & Clausen, 2015). A survey in Croatia (Vienna, 2013) conducted among different categories of addicts showed that 35.29% of respondents are dissatisfied with their lives in the last year, 23.53% are satisfied, and 41.18% of those who are neither satisfied nor dissatisfied. Almost half of the addicts (47.06%) were not satisfied with their lives at the time of the survey.

5.10 Leisure time (free time)

Time use studies collect information from people about how they use their time. Collection methods vary, as do group labels. But essential differences for group separation have so far been standard (Goodin et al., 2005; Bonke & Jensen, 2012). The first group is „time spent on paid

work". The second group is „time spent in unpaid household work” - cooking, cleaning, babysitting and physical child care, shopping, etc. The third group is „time spent in personal care” - eating, sleeping, caring, etc. These groups are now completely conventional in time use studies, and we simply take them as days. The time spent in these three groups — paid working time, unpaid domestic work time, and personal care time — together make up time devoted to what might be called „mandatory” activities. The rest of the time is conventionally called „leisure time”. This „leisure time” is simply the „remaining time” after the activities performed in the other three groups (Goodin et al., 2005)

Unlike the time required for physiological needs or working hours, the amount and nature of leisure time are not predetermined and may vary depending on the characteristics and preferences of the individual. In particular, since the daily life of older adults consists mainly of leisure time, in addition to the time required for physiological needs, their quality of life can vary significantly depending on the way they use their free time (Lee J et al., 2012). In addition to having much more leisure time to manage, the ways in which older adults use it are significantly different from those of young people who often use it to „recharge their batteries” and recover from physical and mental fatigue (Kwon & Cho, 2000).

For older adults, participating in leisure activities can help resolve the loneliness that results from losing roles and can contribute to greater life satisfaction and happiness by providing opportunities to improve their self-esteem and self-realization. Life satisfaction values reflect an individual’s subjective level of satisfaction in achieving the goals and expectations experienced in everyday life (Lee & Hong, 2011). Leisure activities are crucial because they are closely related to the life satisfaction and quality of life of both older and younger people in the modern age (Lee & Yeong, 2012). As the period spent in old age increases, there are growing concerns about strategies for successful aging and improving the quality of life for older adults (Dupuis & Alzheimer, 2008). Numerous life satisfaction studies for older adults

have reported that participation in leisure activities contributes to maintaining and improving their physical health as well as psychological and mental health and helps maintain and increase quality of life by providing them with good opportunities for positive interaction with family and others in society (Chiang et al., 2011).

5.11 *Belonging to groups*

Researchers and scientists from a number of disciplines (psychology, sociology and anthropology) largely accept the theory that membership in social groups is a vital element in affirming and maintaining personal well-being and life satisfaction (Tuomela, 2007). People are born in groups (e.g., tribe, family, community) and usually spend their lives as members of a huge and dynamic array of different collectives (e.g., work groups, sports groups, religious groups, hobby groups, etc.). Various authors have suggested that group membership is an integral part of the human condition and that a lack of such members can have very detrimental consequences on people's mental and physical health (Putnam, 2000; Jetten et al., 2012).

Much of the early research in this domain has studied the relationship between well-being and social integration of participants: the number of social groups or connections they possess, or the amount of engagement with those groups / connections (Brissette et al., 2000). Through numerous studies, researchers have shown that individuals who are more socially integrated have happier, healthier, and longer lives (Berkman & Syme, 1979; Cohen et al., 1997; Glass et al., 2006; Wilson et al., 2007). Proponents argue that social integration affirms well-being by providing individuals with a sense of meaning, purpose, and security, as well as a source of social support in times of stress or crisis (Cohen, 2004).

Although these are very important conclusions, the concept of social integration is not without its limitations. Perhaps the most important thing is to focus on the idea that a high level of social contact (e.g., frequent meetings with members of social groups or regular par-

ticipation in group activities) is key to the well-being of the individual. This quantitative focus on the amount of contact means that it is easy to ignore an important fact about group membership that also has a qualitative dimension. For example, sometimes we can think about what it is like to be a member of a particular group: is the group important to me and my life? Do I enjoy spending time with other group members? Do I feel part of this group? Thinking about issues like these allows us to assess the extent of our identification in the group (Tajfel & Turner, 1986): our sense of belonging to the group, along with our sense of community with members (Sani et al., 2015). Group membership and group identification are not synonymous: it is quite possible to be a member of a group (and, in addition, to have a high level of contact with that group and its members), but to feel very little sense of actual identification in the group (Haslam et al., 2015).

5.12 Religion

According to the results of many previous studies, it is difficult to draw a clear conclusion about the influence of religion and spirituality on people's life satisfaction. As early as 1969, Sanau determined that there was no reliable evidence that religiosity improved mental health. We will also add the analysis of Batson et al. (1993) who analyzed 47 studies on the relationship between religiosity and mental health and found a negative, but low, correlation in 37 studies. In 1980, Ellis found a connection between religiosity and emotional distress. On the other hand, some research shows that spirituality and religiosity are positive predictors of subjective well-being (Kim-Prieto & Miller, 2018). As for the cognitive dimension of subjective well-being, multiple studies have found a positive relationship between spirituality as well as religiosity and life satisfaction (Yoon & Lee, 2004). To explain these findings, it has been suggested that people who have a greater connection to, and guidance from, a higher power, or people who show high religious and spiritual involvement, tend to give a more positive assessment of their lives (Vishkin et al., 2016; Ramsay et

al., 2019). The feeling that you are in a relationship with a higher power, with others, and with life in general, is an effective way to maintain a positive assessment of someone's life, despite all the possible negative circumstances that someone may encounter. In addition, religious and spiritual inclusion can benefit the lives of individuals through the empowerment of both internal (e.g., self-esteem) and social (e.g., sense of belonging) resources (Lim & Putnam, 2010).

Holding firm beliefs, whether related to the existence or non-existence of God, can in itself have a saving effect and improve an individual's well-being by reducing cognitive dissonance. In the absence of subjective certainty, people could experience a state of psychological tension that they are motivated to reduce (Kahneman et al., 1982; Kitchens & Phillips, 2018).

To better understand the role of religiosity in subjective well-being, it is also important to consider how religiosity is conceived within a specific background culture. For example, Graham & Crown (2014) used a large-scale data set involving about 160 nations and found an overall positive relationship between religiosity and life satisfaction moderated by culture. In particular, in cultures with a high degree of religiosity, religiosity had a greater impact on life satisfaction compared to cultures with a low level of religiosity. The same result was found by Stavrova, Fetchenhauer & Schlosser (2013): using data from European and world value research, the authors found that the predictive power of religiosity about life satisfaction was higher in highly religious cultures, while the ratio was negative in cultures that valued atheism.

5.13 Gender

When talking about the relationship between gender and life satisfaction, one should be careful, that is, we must keep in mind that the position of men and women in our country, but also in the countries of the region, differs with regard to biological, psychological and socio-demographic differences. We will take BiH⁷⁷ as an example in

⁷⁷ http://bhas.gov.ba/data/Publikacije/Bilteni/2020/FAM_00_2019_TB_0_BS.pdf

which, according to the 2013 census, live 49.1 % men and 50.9% women. Women in BiH live an average of 5 years longer than men, and men die more violent deaths than women. A higher percentage of women describe their health as average, poor or very poor. Men are more educated than women, although at the faculties in BiH we have more female students than male students. Women drop out of school more often than men. It is interesting that among women we find more of those who have a master's degree, as opposed to doctoral studies that are more completed by men. In elementary schools and high schools we find more women teachers and professors, while in higher education men are dominate. The employment rate is higher for men than for women. When it comes to the legislature and the executive, men dominate.

We must also keep in mind that a higher percentage of women in BiH are victims of violence than men. According to the data of the institutions of the Federation of BiH and the Republika Srpska (RS), women call the SOS help line for persons victims of violence more often, while in the Safe Houses the largest number of users are women.

The research of the Helsinki Parliament of citizens from Banja Luka on gender-based discrimination at work in BiH shows that women are more often exposed to discrimination when applying for a job. Also, women are less represented in management positions in public institutions in BiH and the entities. In 2017, 39% of women and 60.9% of men were in management positions⁷⁸. This research shows that within the population working for a salary or per diem between the ages of 15 and 64, gender differences in the hourly rate are estimated at 9% of the average hourly wage of male workers (3.9 KM for men and 3.5 KM for women).

International research shows that women are more prone to depression and anxiety, which can certainly affect the perception of life satisfaction. The epidemiological data that depression is twice as common in females is consistent (Bromet, Andrade, Hwang et al., 2011), which is particularly pronounced between female of 18 and 64 years

⁷⁸ <https://hcabl.org/istrazivanje-rodno-zasnovana-diskriminacija-na-rad-u-bo-sni-i-hercegovini/>

of age (Waraich, Goldner, Somers & Hsu). A study by Jacobi et al showed that the lifetime prevalence of depression was about 23.3% in women versus 11.1% in men, while the annual prevalence was 7.5% in men and 14.0% in women (Jacobi, Wittchen, Holting, Hofler et al., 2004). However, there are studies that indicate that this ratio is decreasing, which is attributed to the relative reduction in the prevalence of depression in women due to better opportunities for education, employment, birth control and other factors affecting gender equality (Seedat, Scott, Angermeyer, Berglund, Bromet, Brugha et al.). When we talk about anxiety disorders they are present in a third of women and a fifth of men (McLean, Asnaani, Litz & Hofmann, 2011).

Given all of the above, it would be expected that there is a difference between men and women when it comes to life satisfaction (Okun, Stock & Haring, 1984) although research around the world shows that these differences are not large, and where they are present, they mostly refer to the affective component (Lucas & Gohm, 2000).

5.14 Age

Research in the world that deals with the influence of age and subjective well-being gives different results, which lead us to contradictory conclusions. On the one hand, we have research that is in line with the Stable Level Theory, ie. show that an individual's level of happiness is almost unchanged at different ages (Costa et al., 1987; Diener & Suh, 1998; Myers, 2000). Long-term research (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2008; Di Tella, MacCulloch & Oswald, 2003) shows that subjective well-being grows until the 30s, when it declines until the age of 50, and then slowly increases. Some research shows that subjective life satisfaction increases until a certain period and then decreases (Easterlin, 2006).

Obtaining inconsistent results have forced scientists to ponder why this is so. Research showing that subjective happiness is a constant and enduring value is most often of the correlation type, which could have influenced obtaining such results, some longitudinal research has questioned the stability of subjective well-being. Research

that has been given the Happiness Curve criticizes the control of social-demographic factors and that it is in fact the result of statistical procedures that are applied. It has also been shown that longitudinal studies do not give such results. Some research has shown that the U-distribution of personal happiness is obtained only in countries that are economically developed and politically stable (Deaton, 2008).

It is quite clear that the relationship between age and personal happiness is extremely complex and will continue to be the subject of research by scientists around the world.

5.15 Education

Standard economic theory generally assumes that individual life satisfaction depends on absolute levels of income and consumption. The theory that education is a form of well-being that is often understood as an equilibrium between investment and profit for consumption, or as it is often said in our people, „As you sow, so shall you reap” is generally accepted in the economic literature. Thus, investing in education is an investment, but one that pays off, that is for personal benefit.

But is that really so?

The approaches on which human capital is based explain education as an increase in ability, and thus an increase in an individual's productivity (Schultz, 1960; Becker, 1964). As a result of educational training and productivity growth, there is a belief in society that an increase in income is inevitable, as well as greater life opportunities or greater achievements in the labor market. Success in the labor market will then depend not only on the level of education achieved, but also on how much and how that level will be compared to the success of other individuals. In both cases, the possible income or end result of education is what motivates an individual to invest in education as a way to increase the quality and well-being of life, regardless of whether that education is really a means of production or a signaling mechanism.

On the other hand, education can also be seen as a consumption that contributes to the personal satisfaction of the individual. Many scholars

view education as a source of personal satisfaction or satisfaction that fulfills those intrinsic values. In this case, education would be an activity that still requires effort and investment, but effort and investment that is not compensated by any financial enjoyment; compensation would take the form of an increase in a sense of greater value, and the education process would not always be understood as an investment cost.

Thus, education can be considered as a partial positional good, the value of which depends on the absolute and relevant level of spending. As with other consumer products, education can be subject to position. Individuals may see education as a way to gain social status, provided their level of education is higher than that of others; education would then be considered an instrument of status credibility (Collins, 1979). In a similar way that education could be a signaling mechanism for increasing income, it can also serve as a screen for filtering individuals into challenging and privileged occupations (Duncan, 1976; Ranson, 1993).

Since education also contributes to a higher probability of employment and the enjoyment of increased earnings, these are indirect channels through which education can contribute to individual satisfaction. The same happens with health, which seems to be conditioned by the level of education of individuals and which has a positive effect on subjective well-being (Leigh, 1983). Many studies that have examined the contribution of education to life satisfaction and general well-being have shown that education causes a significant increase in life satisfaction regardless of its impact on income.

5.16 *Marital status*

Over the last few decades, extensive empirical research has also focused on the relationship between marital status and subjective well-being and life satisfaction in general. Different models of marriage have different implications for women and men participation in the labor market, for income inequality, and for population growth (Becker 1973; Stack & Eshleman 1998). For example, married women are

less likely to enter the labor market to raise children, while the presence (absence) of children also has a positive (negative) effect on population growth. In addition, people who marry generally live longer and are less likely to engage in alcohol abuse, risky behavior, and suicidal behavior (Coombs, 1991).

One is sure; the results of the correlation between marital status and life satisfaction suggest that married individuals are on average happier and more satisfied with their lives (Stack & Eshleman, 1998). However; the marriage is not limited to subjective well-being. Some scholars who have studied this topic have enumerated other aspects in which people in marital communities felt better than others, including a lower incidence of mental illness, better physical health, and a lower risk of institutionalization (Gove et al. 1990). The fact that marriage can provide an increase in life satisfaction over other types of relationships is not surprising, given that marriage provides several benefits and incentives, such as lower mortality risk, sharing of common household goods and the possibility of combined accumulation of property and wealth (Waite, 1995). Some scholars argue that marriage is positively associated with an individual's well-being because marriage provides an additional source of self-esteem (Stutzer & Frey, 2006). People in marital communities are also more likely to be less lonely, which confirms the theory that living in a community can provide increased life satisfaction (Stutzer & Frey 2006).

Theoretically, this empirically positive relationship between marriage and subjective well-being is attributed to either social choice or social causality. Social selection suggests that more satisfied individuals are more likely to marry (and remain married) than less satisfied people, because those more satisfied may have more attractive personalities. Social causality suggests that marriage makes people happier because of the protective emotional and relational factors that usually link them to marriage (Gove et al. 1990). In addition, people in marital relationships are generally healthier (Waite 1995; Stack & Eshleman 1998; Zimmermann & Easterlin 2006) and earn significantly higher incomes than people from other marital status groups (Rindfuss & Van den Heuvel 1990; Schoeni 1995; Zimmermann & Easterlin 2006).

6. Subject of research

As expected, as with all other issues, the issue of human happiness was first addressed by philosophers, Socrates, Plato, Aristotle, through Kant, Descartes, Hegel, Nietzsche to Sartre (McMann, 2007), and thus, in the middle of the 20th century, began to deal with economists and psychologists. They did not only think, but also started doing analyzes and research on the connection between an individual's happiness and other factors. Today, in addition to the above-mentioned areas, many other scientific fields are exploring life satisfaction.

In the sixties of the 20th century, a new direction in psychology called humanistic psychology appeared, and its promoters were Karl Rogers and Abraham Maslov. They focused their interests primarily on human growth, development and the positive potentials of man, which later influenced many psychologists, who until then dealt only with the negative aspects of the human psyche. At the beginning of the 21st century, under the influence of the American psychologist Martin Seligman, a movement of positive psychology developed which began to explore the factors and conditions that lead to the happiness of the individual and his civic engagement.

In the late 1960s and early 1970s, the American economist Richard Easterlin considered the influence of various factors on an individual's happiness. He showed that there is no connection between the degree of economic growth and the overall level of happiness. This is called the Easterlin paradox, which tells us that the value of income is reflected not only in the various goods and services that people will be able to buy (absolute income), but also in their position and reputation in society (relative income). Furthermore, once people reach a certain level of income, an absolute increase in income alone will not contribute to greater subjective well-being. On the other hand, the relative increase in income that is manifested in comparison with others, will have a positive impact on subjective well-being "(Frajman-Ivković, 2012).

Today, the concern for people's happiness is ubiquitous, we have international welfare research and a ranking of happy nations⁷⁹, happiness is discussed in Davos and TED⁸⁰ conferences. There are cities that track the life satisfaction of their inhabitants (Davis, 2017). We are flooded with books on positive psychology, we have apps on mobile phones that measure our happiness⁸¹, and life coaches sell us their instructions for happiness.

This search for happiness has been very present in the last few years in the countries of the former Yugoslavia, and is reflected in the large departure of the working population, and it is important to consider the phenomenon of life satisfaction of both, people who remained in this area and those who left the country.

Therefore, we believe that it is important to see how satisfied our people are today with their lives in general and its individual segments, and what impact some objective and subjective factors have on that satisfaction.

7. Research objectives

In this research we want to find answers to the following questions:

- ❖ How satisfied with life and certain aspects of life are the citizens of the countries of the former Yugoslavia, as well as those living outside them?
- ❖ How satisfied are they with the work they do and how is it related to their life satisfaction?
- ❖ How much time do they spend at work, what is their income, and how is it related to life satisfaction?
- ❖ Do they do the job they were educated for and how do they assess the possibility of advancement at work and the connection of these factors with life satisfaction?

⁷⁹ https://worlddatabaseofhappiness.eur.nl/hap_nat/nat_fp.php?mode=8

⁸⁰ https://www.ted.com/talks/matthieu_ricard_the_habits_of_happiness?language=sr

⁸¹ <https://dnevnik.hr/vijesti/zanimljivosti/moze-li-se-sreca-izmjeriti-3-aplikacije-koje-ce-vam-pomoci-izmjeriti-koliko-ste-sretni---559081.html>

- ❖ What is the total monthly income of all family members and how is it related to life satisfaction?
- ❖ What are their monthly expenses and how are these expenses related to life satisfaction?
- ❖ Do they, and how much do they set aside per month to help family or relatives, and to what extent are these allocations related to life satisfaction?
- ❖ Does marital status affect life satisfaction?
- ❖ Do family size and number of children affect life satisfaction?
- ❖ Does membership in organizations affect life satisfaction?
- ❖ How do they spend their leisure time and how much is it related to life satisfaction?
- ❖ How much do they consume harmful substances and how much is it related to life satisfaction?
- ❖ How satisfied are they with the society in which they live?
- ❖ How religious are they, and to what extent is religiosity related to life satisfaction?
- ❖ Relationship of some socio-demographic variables (age, education, size of place and gender) with life satisfaction?

8. Research method

The research was conducted from June 4 to **July**, 6 2019. on a sample of 4971 adults, who independently and voluntarily filled out a questionnaire posted on the Google platform. The link of the survey was posted on social networks (Facebook and Twitter) and anyone who knew the Serbo-Croatian language could fill it out and share it on their Facebook page or send it to friends and acquaintances.

For the purposes of our research, we created four categories of respondents and the first group consists of residents of BiH, the second respondents from the former Yugoslavia in the EU (Croatia and Slovenia), the third respondents from the former Yugoslavia not in the EU (Serbia, Montenegro, Macedonia) and respondents located in one of the countries that were not part of the former Yugoslavia.

9. Questionnaire

The questionnaire consists of several parts:

The first part consists of data on respondents, ie. their sociodemographic characteristics:

- ❖ Gender;
- ❖ Age;
- ❖ Education;
- ❖ The size of the settlement in which the respondents live;
- ❖ Marital status;
- ❖ Work status and occupation;
- ❖ Household size and number of children;
- ❖ Total monthly family income and its distribution;
- ❖ Regularity of income;
- ❖ Ethnicity;
- ❖ The country in which they currently live.

The second part consists of questions dealing with:

- ❖ Type of work performed, job advancement and weekly working hours;
- ❖ Membership in organizations;
- ❖ The way of spending leisure time;
- ❖ Satisfaction with the situation in society;
- ❖ Changing the place of residence;
- ❖ Financial assistance to family members Using illicit drugs (alcohol, cigarettes, sedatives, marijuana).

The third part of the questionnaire consists of two scales:

Job satisfaction was measured by a scale by Cooper, Sloan & Williams (1987) consisting of 22 items to which respondents were able to give answers on a scale from 1 (I am completely dissatisfied) to 6 (I am completely satisfied) . Within the scale, we measured the possibility for advancement, the reward system and the amount of salary, the climate of the organization, job security, the level of responsibility, the possibility for self-realization and fulfillment of our business ambitions. The higher the score on the job satisfaction scale, the more

satisfied the respondent is with the job in general or in certain aspects of the job.

Life satisfaction was measured by the Personal Welfare Index (PWI-A, 2001) which consists of 8 items to which respondents were able to give answers on a scale from 0 (not at all satisfied) to 10 (completely satisfied). The first item measures general life satisfaction, while the other seven items measure life satisfaction in certain aspects of life (standard of living, health, achievement in life, relationship with other people, sense of security, belonging to the local community, sense of security).

The higher the score on the scale of life satisfaction, it means that the respondent is more satisfied with life in general or in certain aspects of life.

10. Reliability of the scale

If we keep in mind that adult citizens of Bosnia and Herzegovina participated in the research, reliability is satisfactory, especially job satisfaction with an alpha coefficient of 0.98 and general life satisfaction of 0.90.

11. Sample

Within this chapter, we will present the structure of the sample with all respondents, in a table, while for each geographical category we will give a sample descriptively. We believe that it is important to present the sample in such detail in order to further analyze the obtained data.

Table 1. *Gender of respondents*

	N	%
Male	2051	41,3
Female	2900	58,3
Refused to answer	20	,4
Total	4971	100,0

Within our sample, we find 58.3% of women and 41.3% of men, while 0.4% of respondents did not give an answer to this question.

Table 2. *Age of respondents*

	N	%
Up to 31 years	1163	23,4
From 32 to 38 years	1280	25,7
From 39 to 47 years	1497	30,1
More than 48 years	905	18,2
Refused to answer	126	2,5
Total	4971	100,0

Among the respondents, the highest percentage is aged 39 to 47 (30.1%), followed by respondents aged 32 to 38 (25.7%), younger than 31 (23.4%) and older than 48 (18.2%). 2.5% of respondents refused to provide this information.

Table 3. *Education of respondents?*

	N	%
Refused to answer	21	,4
Completed elementary school	46	1,0
Completed high school - third degree	288	5,8
Completed high school - fourth degree	1344	27,0
Graduated from high school	410	8,2
Graduated from college	1930	38,8
Completed master's or doctorate	932	18,7
Total	4971	100,0

Within the sample, we find 38.8% of highly educated respondents, followed by respondents with completed elementary school - fourth degree (27%), with completed master's or doctorate (18.7%), higher education (8.2%), while the craft has 5.8% of respondents. 1% of respondents have completed elementary school, while 0.4% did not want to provide information about their education.

Table 4. *Size of the settlement in which you currently live*

	N	%
Up to 1000 inhabitants	407	8,2
From 1001 to 5000 inhabitants	427	8,6
From 5001 to 10,000 inhabitants	338	6,8
From 10,001 to 25,000 inhabitants	500	10,1
From 25,001 to 50,000 inhabitants	462	9,3
From 50,001 to 200,000 inhabitants	1129	22,7
More than 200,001 inhabitants	1683	33,8
Refused to answer	25	,5
Total	4971	100,0

The largest number of respondents live in places with over 200,001 inhabitants (33.8%), followed by respondents living in places with 50,001 to 200,000 inhabitants (22.7%). Every tenth respondent (10.1%) lives in a settlement of 10,001 to 25,000 inhabitants. 23.6% of our respondents live in places smaller than 10,000 respondents, while 9.3% live in places with a size of 25,001 to 50,001 inhabitants (9.3%). This question was not answered by 0.5% of respondents.

Table 5. *Marital status of respondents*

	N	%
Single	1177	23,7
Married	3283	66,0
Divorced	319	6,4
Widow / widower	56	1,1
Spouse disappeared in the war	2	,0
Refused to answer	134	2,4
Total	4971	100,0

Within the sample, two thirds of respondents were married (66.0%), followed by singles (23.7%), divorced (6.4%) and widowers 1.1%. 2.4% of respondents did not answer this question.

Table 6. *How many people live in your household?*

	N	%
One	515	10,4
Two	987	19,9
Three	1327	26,7
Four	1512	30,4
Five	437	8,8
More than 6 people	134	3,9
Total	4971	100,0

Among the respondents, the highest percentage is families with four members (30.4%), followed by three members (26.7%), two members (19.9%) and singles (10.4%). 12.7% of respondents have families with five or more members.

Within our sample, we find 20.4% of respondents who have one child under the age of 6 within their families, while 6.2% have two children and 1% more than three children. One child aged 7 to 10 has 16.9% of respondents and 1.9% two children. The sample also includes 17.1% of families with one child aged 10 to 17, 5.8% of families with two children and 1% more than three children.

Table 7. *Religious beliefs of the respondents?*

	N	%
I am not religious	1023	20,6
Free religious beliefs	1499	30,2
Moderate religious beliefs	1904	38,3
Conservative religious beliefs	169	3,4
Fundamentalist religious beliefs	78	1,6
I do not know	151	3,0
Refused to answer	146	3,0
Other	1	,0
Total	4971	100,0

The largest number of respondents describe themselves as a moderate believers (38.3%), followed by respondents with free religious beliefs (30.2%) and those who are not believers (20.6%). 3.4% of re-

spondents have conservative religious beliefs, while 1.6% describe themselves as fundamentalists. This question was not answered by 6% of respondents.

Table 8. *How often do respondents go to religious ceremonies?*

	N	%
Several times a week	450	9,1
Once a week	397	8,0
Once a month	151	3,0
Several times a year	959	19,3
Once a year or less often	857	17,2
Never	1891	38,0
I do not know	109	2,2
Refused to answer	157	3,2
Total	4971	100,0

9.1% of respondents practice religious rites several times a week, while 8% do it once a week. 3% of respondents go to religious ceremonies once a month, and 19.3% several times a year. 17.2% go to religious ceremonies once a year or less often, while 38% of respondents never do so. 5.4% of respondents did not agree on this question.

Table 9. *Nationality of respondents?*

	N	%
Croat	770	15,5
Bosniak	2072	41,7
Serb	607	12,2
Montenegrin	27	,5
Slovenian	9	,2
Macedonian	4	,1
Albanian	10	,2
Bosnian	1230	24,7
Yugoslav	182	3,7
Refused to answer	60	1,2
Total	4971	100,0

Within our sample, most are Bosniaks (41.7%), followed by Bosnians (24.7%), Croats (15.5%), Serbs (12.2%), 3.7% Yugoslavs, 0.5% Montenegrins, 0.2% of Slovenes and Albanians, 0.1% of Macedonians, while 1.2% refused to vote.

Respondents come from over 40 countries and most of them live in BiH (70.1%), followed by 7.9% in Croatia, Germany (5.1%), Serbia (4.1%), Austria (2.4%)., Sweden (1.9%) and Slovenia (1%).

12. Structure of life satisfaction and satisfaction index variables

Before we start with the analysis of the obtained data, in order to better understand the nature of the phenomena we measure, we will have to get acquainted with the ways in which we measure them. This especially refers to the scales of the Index of personal well-being and job satisfaction, where we reduced a larger number of indicators to a smaller number of factors by factor analysis.

12.1 *Factor analysis of the personal welfare index (pwi)*

As we said earlier in our study, we used the Personal Welfare Index (PWI) scale, which consisted of 8 items that are in our study on the entire sample, as well as on four subsamples, showed large and significant correlations with each other, so we did a factorial analysis in order to see whether the items will be grouped together into individual factors and thus facilitate the interpretation of the data themselves.

Exploratory data reduction was done by the principal component analysis method, with promax component rotation. Using the criterion of separating components with eigenvalue over 1, we obtained a solution with one component, which explains 68% of the variance of the results of our 8 items and we will call it the *life satisfaction index*.

Table 10. Percentages of explained variance

Components	Initial eigenvalue			Rotated sum of squared saturations
	Total	% Variance	Cumulative %	Total
1	5.446	68.074	68.074	5.446

Table 10.1 Component saturations

	Components
General life satisfaction	.634
Satisfaction with living standards	.857
Satisfaction with their health	.793
Satisfaction with what they achieve in life	.904
Satisfaction with their relationships with other people	.832
Satisfaction with their sense of security	.894
Satisfaction with their sense of belonging in the local community	.829
Satisfaction with their sense of security in the future	.827

12.3 Factor analysis of job satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured by a 22-item scale by Cooper, Sloan & Williams (1987). Within the scale, we measured job satisfaction, opportunity for advancement, reward system and salary, climate in the organization, job security, level of responsibility, opportunity for self-realization and fulfillment of our business ambitions. By factor analysis, we wanted to see if the items would be grouped together into individual factors, which would greatly help us with the interpretation of the data itself.

Exploratory data reduction was done by the principal component analysis method, with promax component rotation. Using the criterion of separating components with an eigenvalue over 1, we obtained a solution with one component, which explains 75% of the variance in the results of our 22 items, and we will call it *job satisfaction*.

Table 11. Percentages of explained variance

Components	Initial eigenvalue			Rotated sum of squared saturations
	Total	% Variance	Cumulative%	Total
1	16.492	74.963	74.963	16.492

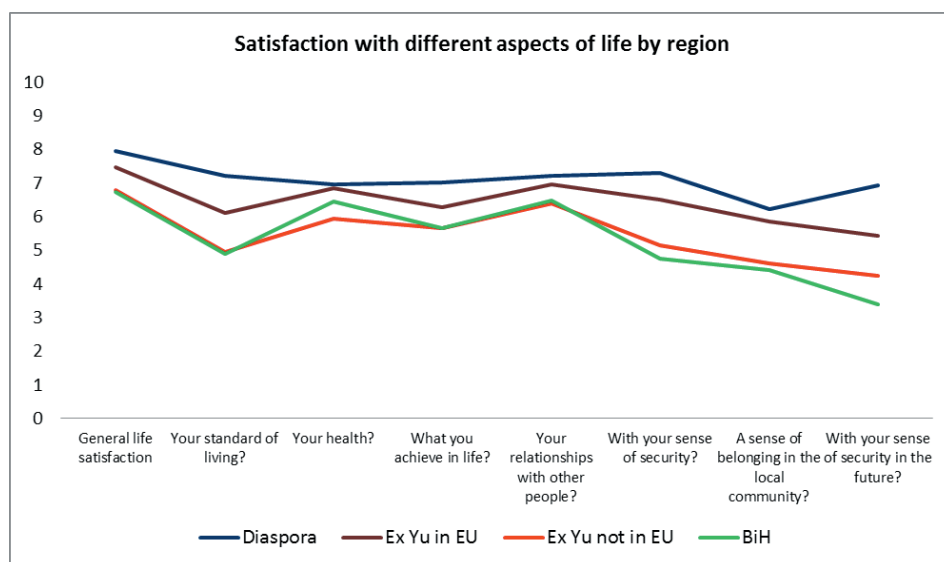
Table 11.2 Component saturations

	Components
Communication and the way information is transmitted in your organization	.834
The relationships you have with other employees	.818
A way of valuing you and your efforts	.880
By business itself	.859
By how much your job motivates you to work	.876
The opportunity to advance in your business	.861
The security that your job gives you	.793
The degree to which you can identify with the reputation and goals of your organization	.893
By the method of control carried out by your superiors	.879
By the way changes and innovations are applied	.864
The type of tasks you are engaged in	.902
The possibility of training and personal advancement in business	.895
The way conflicts are resolved in the organization in which you work	.868
The opportunities that your job provides for the realization of personal aspirations and ambitions	.905
Opportunity to participate in making important decisions	.879
The degree to which the job suits your abilities	.874
The degree of freedom and flexibility you have in doing your job	.873
Psychological climate and atmosphere in the organization	.880
The amount of salary in relation to your work experience	.816
The way your company is organized	.880
The amount of work you do (whether it's a lot or a little)	.844
The extent to which your business „enriches” you	.866

13. Life satisfaction

In this chapter, we will see how satisfied the residents of certain regions are with their lives in general, but also how satisfied they are with certain aspects of their lives. It is important to emphasize once again that an 11-point scale was used here where 0 indicated that the respondent was not at all satisfied and 10 was completely satisfied.

We must also distinguish between the terms „general life satisfaction” and the „life satisfaction index”. General life satisfaction is the answer of the respondents to the question „How satisfied are they with their life in general?” which is within the scale of the Personal Welfare Index (PWI), and the life satisfaction index is the result of a factor analysis of all eight items from the scale of the Personal Welfare Index.



Graph 1.

From graph 1, we can see that in all aspects of life, respondents living in the diaspora are most satisfied, followed by respondents living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU. We

find the least satisfaction with respondents living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not part of the EU (Serbia, Montenegro, Macedonia, BiH).

Table 12. *Satisfaction with different aspects of life by regions*

		N	M	SD	SE	F	p	n ²
General life satisfaction	BiH	3286	6.72	2.072	.036	88.807	< .001	0.054
	Ex Yu in EU	415	7.46	1.678	.082			
	Ex Yu not in EU	228	6.80	1.962	.130			
	Diaspora	726	7.96	1.507	.056			
Your standard of living?	BiH	3378	4.90	3.067	.053	132.432	< .001	0.076
	Ex Yu in EU	437	6.10	2.711	.130			
	Ex Yu not in EU	243	4.95	3.008	.193			
	Diaspora	746	7.21	2.693	.099			
Your health?	BiH	3365	6.46	2.945	.051	106.17	< .001	0.007
	Ex Yu in EU	435	6.84	2.696	.129			
	Ex Yu not in EU	244	5.94	2.852	.183			
	Diaspora	740	6.95	2.820	.104			
What do you achieve in life?	BiH	3337	5.66	2.871	.050	48.580	< .001	0.030
	Ex Yu in EU	435	6.28	2.582	.124			
	Ex Yu not in EU	243	5.65	2.815	.181			
	Diaspora	739	7.00	2.716	.100			
Your relationships with other people?	BiH	3357	6.48	2.775	.048	17.121	< .001	0.011
	Ex Yu in EU	437	6.95	2.448	.117			
	Ex Yu not in EU	244	6.40	2.619	.168			
	Diaspora	744	7.20	2.666	.098			
With your sense of security?	BiH	3353	4.76	3.061	.053	170.569	< .001	0.097
	Ex Yu in EU	438	6.50	2.724	.130			
	Ex Yu not in EU	242	5.15	2.927	.188			
	Diaspora	736	7.30	2.806	.103			
A sense of belonging in the local community?	BiH	3337	4.41	3.100	.054	89.554	< .001	0.054
	Ex Yu in EU	436	5.84	2.894	.139			
	Ex Yu not in EU	243	4.60	2.963	.190			
	Diaspora	736	6.23	2.942	.108			

With your sense of security in the future?	BiH	3343	3.39	2.970	.051	317.233	<.001	0.167
	Ex Yu in EU	433	5.42	2.894	.139			
	Ex Yu not in EU	240	4.23	2.932	.189			
	Diaspora	737	6.92	2.942	.108			

As we can see from Table 12, there is a statistically significant difference, between the four categories of respondents, in all aspects of life satisfaction.

In general, the diaspora is most satisfied with their lives (7.96), followed by respondents from the former Yugoslavia living in the EU (7.46), respondents from the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (6.80) and residents of BiH (6.72).

The situation is similar in the assessment of living standards, the most satisfied with their standard are residents of the diaspora (7.21), followed by respondents from the former Yugoslavia living in the EU (6.10), while in third place are residents from the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (4.95) and least residents from BiH (4.9).

People in the diaspora are most satisfied with their health (6.95), followed by respondents from the former Yugoslavia living in the EU (6.84), residents of BiH (6.46) and least satisfied respondents from the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (5.94).

Respondents living in the diaspora are most satisfied with what they achieve in their lives (7.0), followed by respondents from the former Yugoslavia living in the EU (6.28) and equally respondents from the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (5.65) and BiH (5.66).

Diaspora respondents (7.2) are most satisfied with their relationship with other people, followed by respondents from the former Yugoslavia living in the EU (6.95), respondents living in BiH (6.48) and respondents from the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (6.40).

Respondents from the diaspora feel most secure (7.3), followed by respondents from the former Yugoslavia living in the EU (6.5), respondents from non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia (5.15) and residents of BiH (4.76).

Citizens living in the diaspora are most satisfied with belonging to the local community (6.23), followed by respondents from the former

Yugoslavia living in the EU (5.84), respondents from the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (4.60) and respondents living in BiH (4.41).

Feelings of security in the future are most present among respondents from the diaspora (6.92), followed by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia living in the EU (5.42), respondents from the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (4.23) and BiH residents (3.39).).

When we look at the analysis of differences between individual categories (Table 12.1) we see that there are differences in almost all items but we will analyze only those in which Cohen's *d* is greater than 0.5, because this difference is high enough intensity to be considered.

When it comes to general life satisfaction, we see that there is a difference between the diaspora and respondents in BiH (Cohen's *d* = -0.625) and the diaspora and respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU (Cohen's *d* = -0.710).

The situation is similar with satisfaction with living standards, where the diaspora differs from BiH (Cohen's *d* = -0.766) and respondents from non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia (Cohen's *d* = -0.814).

Table 12.1 *Post Hoc Tests*

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's <i>d</i>	<i>p</i> _{tukey}
General life satisfaction	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-0.739	0.102	-7.251	-0.364	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.084	0.134	-0.624	-0.040	0.925
		Dijaspora	-1.238	0.080	-15.439	-0.625	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.655	0.161	4.064	0.367	< .001
		Dijaspora	0.499	0.120	-4.150	-0.318	< .001
	Ex Yu not in EU	Dijaspora	-1.155	0.148	-7.777	-0.710	< .001
Your standard of living?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-1.197	0.151	-7.906	-0.395	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.043	0.198	-0.216	-0.014	0.996
		Dijaspora	-2.301	0.120	-19.103	-0.766	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	1.154	0.238	4.843	0.409	< .001
		Dijaspora	-1.104	0.179	-6.156	-0.409	< .001
	Ex Yu not in EU	Dijaspora	-2.259	0.220	-10.268	-0.814	< .001

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
Your health?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-0.373	0.148	-2.528	-0.128	0.056
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.521	0.192	2.708	0.177	0.034
		Dijaspora	-0.484	0.118	-4.111	-0.166	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.894	0.232	3.856	0.325	< .001
		Dijaspora	-0.111	0.175	-0.631	-0.040	0.922
	Ex Yu not in EU	Dijaspora	-1.005	0.214	-4.694	-0.355	< .001
What do you achieve in life?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-0.623	0.144	-4.332	-0.219	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.014	0.187	0.075	0.005	1.000
		Dijaspora	-1.337	0.115	-11.666	-0.470	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.637	0.226	2.820	0.239	0.025
		Dijaspora	-0.715	0.170	-4.194	-0.268	< .001
	Ex Yu not in EU	Dijaspora	-1.351	0.208	-6.481	-0.493	< .001
Your relationship with other people?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-0.470	0.138	-3.397	-0.172	0.004
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.076	0.180	0.419	0.027	0.975
		Dijaspora	-0.727	0.110	-6.593	-0.264	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	0.546	0.218	2.509	0.217	0.059
		Dijaspora	-0.257	0.164	-1.566	-0.099	0.398
	Ex Yu not in EU	Dijaspora	-0.803	0.201	-3.997	-0.302	< .001
With your sense of security?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-1.747	0.152	-11.514	-0.578	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.396	0.199	-1.990	-0.130	0.192
		Dijaspora	-2.542	0.122	-20.905	-0.842	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	1.352	0.239	5.650	0.483	< .001
		Dijaspora	-0.794	0.180	-4.407	-0.286	< .001
	Ex Yu not in EU	Dijaspora	-2.146	0.221	-9.696	-0.757	< .001
A sense of belonging in the local community?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-1.437	0.155	-9.247	-0.467	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.196	0.203	-0.965	-0.063	0.769
		Dijaspora	-1.823	0.124	-14.675	-0.593	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	1.241	0.244	5.081	0.425	< .001
		Dijaspora	-0.387	0.184	-2.096	-0.132	0.154
	Ex Yu not in EU	Dijaspora	-1.627	0.226	-7.210	-0.552	< .001
With your sense of security in the future?	BiH	Ex Yu u EU	-2.038	0.151	-13.493	-0.688	< .001
		Ex Yu nisu u EU	-0.846	0.198	-4.282	-0.285	< .001
		Dijaspora	-3.537	0.120	-29.393	-1.193	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu nisu u EU	1.192	0.238	5.007	0.410	< .001
		Dijaspora	-1.499	0.179	-8.372	-0.513	< .001
	Ex Yu not in EU	Dijaspora	-2.691	0.220	-12.243	-0.915	< .001

Residents of BiH differ significantly in the degree of sense of security in relation to the other three categories of respondents, from the diaspora (Cohen's $d = -0.842$), from non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia (Cohen's $d = -0.757$) and from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in EU (Cohen's $d = -0.578$).

When it comes to belonging to the local community, we find statistically significant differences between respondents living in the diaspora and BiH (Cohen's $d = -0.593$) and respondents living in non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia (Cohen's $d = -0.552$).

When analyzing the sense of security in the future, we find significant differences between respondents living in the diaspora and respondents living in non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia (Cohen's $d = -0.915$) and residents of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU today (Cohen's $d = -0.513$). There is also a difference between the inhabitants of BiH and the inhabitants of the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU today (Cohen's $d = -0.688$).

13.1 Discussion of findings

Respondents living in the diaspora are most satisfied with their lives in general, as well as with its individual aspects, followed by respondents living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU, and least satisfied with respondents living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not part of the EU (Serbia, Montenegro, Macedonia, BiH).

It is interesting that the general satisfaction, in all categories of respondents, is higher than their special segments.

When we look at certain aspects of life satisfaction, we see that these differences between certain categories are greatest in items with a sense of security in the future, a sense of security and a sense of belonging in the local community, and the smallest difference in relationships with other people and their health.

Respondents from the diaspora are most concerned about their health and sense of belonging to the local community. These results

can be explained by the fact that the current diaspora consists not only of young people who recently left our area, but also people who left Yugoslavia in the 90s and they are now in years when health, to a greater or lesser extent, is weak. and becomes very important in their life priorities. When we talk about belonging to the local community, we must keep in mind that within the diaspora sample we find 39% of respondents under the age of 38 and 57.4% over the age of 49. The question is whether the respondents who recently came from BiH had enough time to adjust to life in local communities and be accepted by the natives? On the other hand, we must keep in mind that the respondents who left Yugoslavia during the wars did not plan to do so and did not leave voluntarily, which can negatively affect their sense of belonging to the environment in which they currently live. This thesis is supported by the fact that within the sample of the diaspora we have 32.5% Bosnians and Herzegovinians and 6.4% Yugoslavs.

Respondents living and working in the countries of the former Yugoslavia are most satisfied with their health and relationships with people, and least with their safety in the future, belonging to the local community and living standards.

We see almost identical tendencies among respondents from BiH and the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU. They are most satisfied with their health and relationship with people, and the least with a sense of security in the future, a sense of belonging to the local community, living standards and a sense of security, with this satisfaction being least among BiH residents.

For us, the relationship of satisfaction with certain aspects of life in BiH is especially interesting, where we see that the fear of an uncertain future, the feeling of not belonging to the local community and uncertainty are just as important as a poor standard of living.

14. Job satisfaction and life satisfaction

In this chapter, we will see how satisfied residents from individual regions are with the work they perform as well as the relationship be-

tween job satisfaction and the life satisfaction index of all respondents and by individual regions. It is important to emphasize once again that a 6-point scale was used here where 1 indicated that the respondent was completely dissatisfied and 6 was completely satisfied.

Table 13. *Job satisfaction by regions*

	N	M	SD	SE	F	p	η^2
BiH	2457	3.3203	1.26560	.02553	0.991	0.396	0.001
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	355	3.6137	1.24007	.06582			
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	178	3.5102	1.26379	.09472			
Diaspora	562	3.6965	1.62522	.06856			

In Table 13 we see that respondents from the diaspora are most satisfied with their work (3.69), followed by respondents living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are EU members (3.61), residents of the former Yugoslavia not part of the EU (3.51) and least residents of BiH (3.32).).

It is important to emphasize that this difference in job satisfaction between individual regions is not statistically significant ($p = 0.396$).

Table 14. *Correlation of the index of life satisfaction and job satisfaction in the sample of all respondents*

	Job satisfaction
Life satisfaction index	.373**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

In Table 14, we see that the correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is positive, low and significant in all respondents ($r = .373$; $p < .01$).

The situation is similar in some regions (Table 15) where the correlation between these two variables is positive, low and significant, BiH ($r = .389$; $p < .01$), the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU ($r = .312$; $p < .01$), non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia ($r = .260$; $p < .01$) and diaspora ($r = .313$; $p < .01$).

Table 15. *Correlation of the index of life satisfaction and job satisfaction among respondents from different regions*

		Job satisfaction
BiH	Life satisfaction index	.389**
Ex Yu in EU	Life satisfaction index	.312**
Ex Yu not in EU	Life satisfaction index	.260**
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	.313**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .0$

*** correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

14.1 Discussion of findings

When it comes to job satisfaction, we can say that respondents from certain regions do not significantly differ, although it is most pronounced among respondents from the diaspora, and then among respondents living in the countries of former Yugoslavia that are in the EU, residents of countries of former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU and least BiH residents.

When it comes to the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, we see that it is low, positive and statistically significant in the sample of all respondents and in all four regions.

We can say that our findings are similar to other findings (Turner, Barling, & Zacharatos, 2002), which show that job satisfaction is directly related to mental health and life satisfaction. Warr's (1999) research showed that experiencing positive emotions greatly affects job satisfaction. The findings of Isen (2002) tell us that if we are satisfied with the work we do then we are more creative, we have better relationships with others and we make better decisions and solve problems.

However, there are differences between jobs as well. Jobs that offer individuals a high level of self-determination and autonomy and that provide greater non-property benefits and increase job satisfaction (Benz & Frey, 2008; Deci & Ryan, 2000). The theory of self-determination says that individuals value autonomy in their jobs because it satisfies their innate psychological needs (Deci & Ryan, 2000; Frey, 1997).

15. Time spent at work, income and life satisfaction

In this chapter, we will see how many respondents, from different regions, spend hours at work and what is their regular income. After that, we will see the connection between the life satisfaction index and the number of working hours in the week and the regularity of income.

Table 16. *Number of working hours in one typical working week by region? (if you are employed)*

		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
Less than 20 hours	N	132	11	8	34	185
	%	4.3	2.7	3.6	4.9	4.2
20-40 hours	N	1231	169	85	363	1848
	%	39.9	41.6	38.3	51.8	41.8
More than 40 hours	N	1508	210	110	284	2112
	%	48.8	51.7	49.5	40.5	47.8
I do not know	N	127	10	11	14	162
	%	4.1	2.5	5.0	2.0	3.7
I refuse to answer	N	91	6	8	6	111
	%	2.9	1.5	3.6	0.9	2.5
Total	N	3089	406	222	701	4418
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 16.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	Df	p
55.510	12	.000

If we look at Table 16, we can see that 4.9% of respondents from the diaspora, 4.3% from BiH, 3.6% of respondents from non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia and 2.7% of respondents from the former Yugoslav countries who are in the EU work for 20 hours per week. Between 20 and 40 hours per week were spent at work by 51.8% of respondents from the diaspora, and about 40% of respondents from other categories, while 40.5% of respondents from the diaspora and about 50% from other categories worked more than 40 hours per week.

Table 17. *Correlation between the life satisfaction index and the number of working hours per week in the sample of all respondents*

	Number of hours in one typical work week
Life satisfaction index	-.069**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

The obtained result, on the sample of all respondents, shows a negative, very low correlation, but which is statistically significant ($r = -.069$, $p = < .01$).

The situation is similar with respondents from BiH ($r = -.062$, $p = < .01$) and respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU ($r = -.067$, $p = < .01$).

Table 18. *Correlation between life satisfaction index and number of working hours in respondents from different regions*

		Number of hours in one typical work week
BiH	Life satisfaction index	-.062**
Ex Yu in EU	Life satisfaction index	-.067**
Ex Yu not in EU	Life satisfaction index	-.011
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	-.002

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

The highest percentage of regular salaries is received by respondents from the diaspora (92.6%) and those living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU (91.1%), while the percentage of respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU was 79.3%. 72.9% of respondents from BiH received it (Table 19).

Delays in the payment of salaries are greatest in BiH and the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU.

Table 19. *Regularity of monthly incomes by regions?*

		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
On time	N	2278	378	176	666	3498
	%	72.9	91.1	79.3	92.6	78.0
With a delay of a week or less	N	266	13	10	9	298
	%	8.5	3.1	4.5	1.3	6.6
With a delay of at least a week, but no more than a month	N	186	3	4	5	198
	%	6.0	0.7	1.8	0.7	4.4
With a delay between a month and three months	N	63	1	2	1	67
	%	2.0	0.2	0.9	0.1	1.5
With a delay of between three and six months	N	16	1	2	0	19
	%	0.5	0.2	0.9	0.0	0.4
With more than six months of delay	N	10	0	1	1	12
	%	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.1	0.3
Unemployed or not paid	N	207	14	17	30	268
	%	6.6	3.4	7.7	4.2	6.0
I do not know	N	42	1	4	3	50
	%	1.3	0.2	1.8	0.4	1.1
I refuse to answer	N	58	4	6	4	72
	%	1.9	1.0	2.7	0.6	1.6
Total	N	3126	415	222	719	4482
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 19.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
207.626	24	.000

Table 20. *Correlation between life satisfaction index and regular monthly income in the sample of all respondents*

	Regular monthly income
Life satisfaction index	-.049**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

As we can see in Table 20, the correlation, in the sample of all respondents, is negative, very weak, but statistically significant ($r = -.049$. $P = < .01$).

When we look at the correlations between regular pay and life satisfaction by region, we find a negative, very weak and statistically significant correlation only among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU ($r = -.116$. $P = < .05$).

Table 21. *Correlation between the life satisfaction index and regular monthly income of respondents from different regions*

		Regular monthly income
BiH	Life satisfaction index	-.026
Ex Yu in EU	Life satisfaction index	-.116*
Ex Yu not in EU	Life satisfaction index	-.001
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	.056

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

15.1 Discussion of findings

When it comes to time spent at work, we see that about 5% of respondents work up to 20 hours a week and there is the highest percentage of respondents from the diaspora, and the lowest among respondents

from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU. About 20% of respondents work between 20 and 40 hours a week, but half of the respondents from the diaspora and about 40% of respondents in other regions have such working hours. The situation changes when the weekly working hours are extended over 40 hours, which is done by half of the respondents from BiH, the countries of the former Yugoslavia, regardless of whether they are in the EU or not, while this is the case with 40% of respondents in the diaspora.

When we look at the relationship between the time spent at work and life satisfaction, we see that it is low, negative but statistically significant for all respondents in BiH and those living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU.

The highest percentage of regular salaries is received by respondents from the diaspora and those who lived in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU (over 90%), while this is the case with 80% of respondents from non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia. 73% of respondents from BiH received a regular salary.

The obtained results show that the more regular the income, the greater the satisfaction with life, but this is true when we analyze the answers of all respondents and respondents from the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU. We can say that money can buy happiness, but only as a means by which we can get to things that make us happy, but that money alone does not significantly increase feelings of contentment and happiness (Dunn, Aknin & Norton, 2008; Diener & Seligman (2004).

16. Qualifications and promotion at work

Now we will see to what extent our respondents from different regions perform the jobs for which they are qualified and whether they expect to progress in the coming years.

Table 22. *Doing the job for which you are qualified by region?*

		Country category				
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
Yes	N	2032	299	157	435	2923
	%	65.3	72.9	69.8	60.8	65.5
No	N	1079	111	68	281	1539
	%	34.7	27.1	30.2	39.2	34.5
Total	N	3111	410	225	716	4462
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 22.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
19.014	3	.000

The results we see in Table 22 tell us that most workers who do the work for which they are qualified are found among respondents living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU (72.9%), followed by the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU (69.8%), BiH (65.3%) and the least respondents from the diaspora (60.8%).

Note 23. *Possibility of advancement at work in the next two years by regions*

		Country category				
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
Yes	N	1374	187	99	489	2149
	%	43.8	45.2	44.6	68.4	47.9
No	N	1764	227	123	226	2340
	%	56.2	54.8	55.4	31.6	52.1
Total	N	3138	414	222	715	4489
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 23.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
143.803	3	.000

When it comes to the expected advancement at work (Table 23), we see that 68.4% of respondents from the diaspora expect this in the next two years, unlike the other three categories of respondents where this percentage is about 44%.

16.1 Discussion of findings

Most of the workers who do the work for which they are qualified are found among the respondents who live in the countries of the former Yugoslavia and who are in the EU, followed by the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU, BiH and the least respondents from the diaspora. It is difficult to say why this is so, but we must keep in mind the trend that employers from Croatia and Slovenia, in the last few years, have been coming for a certain workforce, that is by the professions they need. On the other hand, the fact that in the diaspora is the smallest percentage of those who do the work for which they are qualified can be interpreted in different ways. Our people who go abroad do not care so much what jobs they do because their priority is to leave, and it is very likely that for some time there are no formal opportunities to get a job in accordance with the education and profession for which they are qualified.

However, it is important to keep in mind the earlier finding that respondents from individual regions do not differ from each other when it comes to job satisfaction, regardless of whether they are doing the job for which they are qualified or not. We must not neglect that the respondents from the diaspora, to a greater extent than the others, expect that they will advance in their work in the coming period. Various research (Robbins, 1993; Spector, 2008) shows that the possibility of advancement at work is also an important aspect of job

satisfaction. Advancement enables personal growth and development, more responsibilities and an increase in social status, which can lead to a greater degree of personal happiness.

17. Total monthly income of all household members and life satisfaction

In the next chapter, we will see how different respondents from different categories differ when it comes to the total monthly income of all household members, as well as how they relate to the life satisfaction index for all respondents and for individual regions.

Table 24. *Total monthly income of all household members by region (in euros)*

	N	M	SD	SE	F	p	n ²
BiH	3122	1338.02	1009.103	18.060	793.758	< .001	0.352
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje su u EU	387	2155.44	1367.307	69.504			
Zemlje bivše Jugoslavije koje nisu u EU	223	1480.99	1023.045	68.508			
Dijaspورا	649	4631.97	3215.995	126.239			

The results shown in Table 24 are quite expected, as the highest total incomes have respondents from the diaspora (4632 euros), followed by residents of the former Yugoslav countries that are in the EU (2155.4 euros), countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU (1481 euros) and BiH (1338 euros). This difference in average earnings is statistically significant (Table 24.1).

Table 24.1 *Post Hoc Tests*

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
Total monthly income of all household members	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	-817.429	84.787	-9.641	-0.775	< .001
		Ex Yu not in EU	-142.976	109.053	-1.311	-0.142	0.556
		Diaspora	-3293.955	67.873	-48.531	-2.034	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	674.453	132.271	5.099	0.538	< .001
		Diaspora	-2476.526	101.044	-24.509	-0.924	< .001
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	-3150.980	122.121	-25.802	-1.116	< .001

When we look at the differences within certain categories, we see that the inhabitants of BiH differ significantly in relation to the inhabitants of the former Yugoslavia who are now in the EU (Cohen's $d = -0.775$) and the diaspora (Cohen's $d = -2.034$). We also find a statistically significant difference between respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are now in the EU and their former fellow citizens who are not in the EU (Cohen's $d = 0.538$) and the diaspora (Cohen's $d = -0.924$). There is also a difference between respondents from the diaspora and those living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia, but not in the EU (Cohen's $d = -1.116$).

Table 25. *Correlation of life satisfaction index and total monthly income in the sample of all respondents*

	Total monthly income
Life satisfaction index	.259**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

In Table 25, we see that the correlation between job satisfaction and total monthly household income, for all respondents, is positive, low and significant ($r = .259$; $p < .01$).

The situation is similar in some geographical categories (Table 26) where the correlation between these two variables is positive, low and significant, BiH ($r = .219$; $p < .01$), the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU ($r = .206$; $p < .01$), countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU ($r = .350$; $p < .01$), while in the diaspora this connection is not significant.

Table 26. *Correlation of life satisfaction index and total monthly income of respondents from different regions*

		Total monthly income
BiH	Life satisfaction index	.219**
Ex Yu in EU	Life satisfaction index	.206**
Ex Yu not in EU	Life satisfaction index	.350**
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	.003

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

17.1 Discussion of findings

It is quite expected that the highest monthly income is found in respondents from the diaspora, followed by respondents living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU, while the income of residents of BiH and countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU do not differ significantly. When we look at the relationship between the job satisfaction index and total monthly income, we find a low, positive and significant correlation in the sample of all respondents as well as for respondents living in BiH and the countries of the former Yugoslavia. This connection is greatest with respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU. As we said earlier, the diaspora has the highest incomes, compared to other regions, but we do not find a significant correlation between income and the life satisfaction index.

Our results are somewhat consistent with the results in the world, Diener & Biswas (2002) in a meta-analysis of 11 studies find positive correlations of 0.15 to 0.25 between income and subjective assessment of happiness. Similar results are obtained by Lucas & Schimack (2009) in Germany where the correlation varies from 0.17 to 0.20. It is interesting to find that the value of the relationship between income and life satisfaction varies depending on the economic development of a society. The richer the society, the weaker the correlation (around 0.20), and the poorer the correlation (over 0.40). As a good illustration of these tendencies, we will look at the correlations between Serbia, Rwanda, Switzerland and Norway (Jovanović. 2016). The correlation between income and life satisfaction in Serbia was 0.48, and in Runada (0.40), while that relationship in Switzerland was 0.2, and in Norway 0.21.

In our research, the correlation is between 0.219 in BiH and 0.35 in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU, while among respondents from the diaspora this correlation is very low and not significant. How to explain these results for the diaspora? Money seems to be important for the perception of our own happiness only to the extent that allows us to meet basic biological needs, and when we cross that limit, then its importance declines. With the income of 4631.97 euros of all household members, it seems that the diaspora has crossed that border and now it is not such an important precondition for their happiness.

18. Monthly expenditure management and life satisfaction

In the previous chapter, we saw how total monthly income affects the happiness of our people. It will be interesting to see what the cost structure of the respondents is within our four categories of respondents, ie. how much money they spend on housing, transportation, food, education, health, entertainment, loan repayments and how much they save per month. We will also see if there is a correlation

between the life satisfaction index and the type of expenditure of all respondents and within individual categories.

Table 27. *Monthly expenditures in percentages and savings of respondents from different regions*

		N	M	SD	SE	F	p	η^2
Housing (rent, water, electricity, building maintenance, etc.)	BiH	2976	19.51	10.943	.201	47.354	< .001	0.032
	Countries of Ex Yu that re in EU	400	21.67	12.034	.602			
	Countries of Ex Yu that are not in EU	217	21.84	12.502	.849			
	Diaspora	681	25.13	12.195	.467			
Transport (petrol, tickets for city and intercity transport, etc.)	BiH	2822	10.71	6.548	.123	61.880	< .001	0.044
	Countries of Ex Yu that re in EU	386	10.08	6.207	.316			
	Countries of Ex Yu that are not in EU	199	9.75	5.493	.389			
	Diaspora	658	7.00	5.383	.210			
Nutrition	BiH	3010	30.16	12.134	.221	170.248	< .001	0.106
	Countries of Ex Yu that re in EU	404	25.57	10.578	.526			
	Countries of Ex Yu that are not in EU	221	32.19	14.021	.943			
	Diaspora	687	19.49	9.415	.359			
Education	BiH	1918	11.33	8.140	.186	24.940	< .001	0.027
	Countries of Ex Yu that re in EU	255	9.59	7.264	.455			
	Countries of Ex Yu that are not in EU	128	12.52	9.290	.821			
	Diaspora	383	7.82	6.620	.338			
Health services	BiH	2209	7.16	5.875	.125	1.925	0.123	0.002
	Countries of Ex Yu that re in EU	296	5.64	5.165	.300			
	Countries of Ex Yu that are not in EU	153	6.68	4.788	.387			
	Diaspora	429	6.17	6.089	.294			

Fun	BiH	2460	9.27	7.432	.150	3.783	0.010	0.003
	Countries of Ex Yu that re in EU	360	9.17	7.059	.372			
	Countries of Ex Yu that are not in EU	186	10.91	10.747	.788			
	Diaspora	610	8.81	6.725	.272			
Credit	BiH	1793	21.61	12.149	.287	1.177	0.317	0.001
	Countries of Ex Yu that re in EU	243	18.95	11.460	.735			
	Countries of Ex Yu that are not in EU	101	17.01	10.770	1.072			
	Diaspora	386	13.42	10.405	.530			
Savings	BiH	1344	13.44	12.466	.340	14.594	< .001	0.020
	Countries of Ex Yu that re in EU	220	13.75	13.561	.914			
	Countries of Ex Yu that are not in EU	99	15.80	14.853	1.493			
	Diaspora	542	17.75	13.927	.598			

When it comes to housing costs, we see that they are the highest in the diaspora (25.1%) of total monthly income, followed by the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and that are not in the EU (about 22%), while the percentage in BiH is 19.5 %. It is important to emphasize that the difference between these categories of respondents is statistically significant (Table 27.1) and we can say that the intensity of this difference between the inhabitants of the diaspora and BiH (Cohen's $d = -0.503$) is quite large.

Out of the total monthly income for transportation, the residents of BiH (10.7%) and the inhabitants of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU (10.0%) allocate the most, followed by the citizens of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (9.7%) and the diaspora (7.0%). The difference between these groups is statistically significant (Table 27.1), and the differences are intense between the diaspora and BiH (Cohen's $d = 0.584$), respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are now in the EU (Cohen's $d = 0.541$) and respondents

from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not now in the EU (Cohen's $d = 0.508$).

Respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU (32.1%) and BiH (30.1%) spend the most on food, followed by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU (25.5%) and the diaspora (19.4%). Here, too, we find a statistically significant difference (Table 27.1), and here we find a rather intense difference between the diaspora and respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are now in the EU (Cohen's $d = 0.617$), BiH (0.914) and from respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia in the EU (Cohen's $d = 1.186$). We also find an intense difference between respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU and those who are not in the EU (Cohen's $d = -0.556$).

When it comes to health services, we do not find statistically significant differences between respondents who belong to these categories (Table 27.1).

Allocations from the family budget for education are highest in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU (12.5%) and BiH (11.3%), and slightly less in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU (9.5%) and the diaspora (7.8%). The difference between these groups is statistically significant (Table 27.1) and there is a quite intense difference between the diaspora and the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU (Cohen's $d = 0.637$).

Respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU stand out the most (10.9%), followed by residents of BiH (9.2%), Yugoslav countries in the EU (9.1%) and the diaspora (8.8%), although statistical analyzes show that the difference between these categories is statistically significant, the cause of which is primarily the size of the sample (table 27.1).

When we talk about loans, we do not find statistically significant differences between respondents who belong to these categories (Table 27.1).

Among the respondents who manage to save some, most are from the diaspora (17.7%), followed by respondents from the countries of

the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU (15.8%), countries from Yugoslavia that are in the EU (13.7%) and BiH (13.4%).), although statistical analysis shows that the differences between these categories are small but statistically significant (Table 27.1).

Table 27.1 *Post Hoc Tests*

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
Housing	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	-2.162	0.604	-3.581	-0.195	0.002
		Ex Yu not in EU	-2.333	0.797	-2.927	-0.211	0.018
		Diaspora	-5.624	0.482	-11.677	-0.503	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	-0.171	0.956	-0.179	-0.014	0.998
		Diaspora	-3.462	0.714	-4.847	-0.285	< .001
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	-3.291	0.884	-3.723	-0.268	0.001
Transportation	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	0.624	0.341	1.827	0.096	0.261
		Ex Yu not in EU	0.958	0.462	2.076	0.148	0.161
		Diaspora	3.708	0.272	13.611	0.584	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	0.334	0.549	0.609	0.056	0.929
		Diaspora	3.084	0.403	7.644	0.541	< .001
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	2.750	0.509	5.401	0.508	< .001
Nutrition	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	4.589	0.620	7.395	0.384	< .001
		Ex Yu not in EU	-2.032	0.816	-2.489	-0.166	0.062
		Diaspora	10.675	0.495	21.560	0.914	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	-6.620	0.980	-6.757	-0.556	< .001
		Diaspora	6.086	0.734	8.290	0.617	< .001
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	12.707	0.906	14.031	1.186	< .001
Education	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	1.746	0.528	3.308	0.217	0.005
		Ex Yu not in EU	-1.181	0.723	-1.633	-0.144	0.360
		Diaspora	3.519	0.443	7.937	0.445	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	-2.927	0.858	-3.412	-0.366	0.004
		Diaspora	1.772	0.640	2.768	0.257	0.029
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	4.699	0.809	5.812	0.637	< .001

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
Health services	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	0.610	0.369	1.653	0.103	0.349
		Ex Yu not in EU	-0.250	0.496	-0.504	-0.041	0.958
		Diaspora	0.511	0.288	1.775	0.087	0.286
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	-0.860	0.593	-1.451	-0.157	0.468
		Diaspora	-0.099	0.434	-0.229	-0.020	0.996
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	0.761	0.546	1.394	0.144	0.503
Entertainment	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	0.100	0.423	0.238	0.014	0.995
		Ex Yu not in EU	-1.647	0.570	-2.892	-0.214	0.020
		Diaspora	0.459	0.339	1.355	0.063	0.528
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	-1.747	0.676	-2.584	-0.206	0.048
		Diaspora	0.358	0.498	0.720	0.052	0.889
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	2.106	0.627	3.357	0.268	0.004
Loans	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	-1.591	0.874	-1.820	-0.131	0.264
		Ex Yu not in EU	0.179	1.172	0.153	0.015	0.999
		Diaspora	0.080	0.664	0.121	0.007	0.999
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	1.770	1.404	1.260	0.141	0.588
		Diaspora	1.671	1.020	1.638	0.139	0.357
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	-0.099	1.284	-0.077	-0.008	1.000
Savings	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	-0.312	0.950	-0.328	-0.025	0.988
		Ex Yu not in EU	-2.355	1.360	-1.731	-0.186	0.308
		Diaspora	-4.306	0.665	-6.479	-0.334	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	-2.043	1.581	-1.293	-0.146	0.568
		Diaspora	-3.995	1.044	-3.825	-0.289	< .001
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	-1.951	1.428	-1.367	-0.139	0.521

Table 28. Correlation between the life satisfaction index and monthly expenditures on a sample of all respondents

	Housing	Transportation	Nutrition	Education	Health services	Entertainment	Loans	Savings
Life satisfaction index	-.129**	-.078**	-.220**	-.098**	-.140**	.079**	-.130**	.100**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

As we can see from Table 28, the life satisfaction index is negative and very weakly correlated, but statistically significant, with housing expenditures ($r = -.129$; $p < .01$), transportation ($r = -.078$; $p < .01$), nutrition ($r = -.220$; $p < .01$), education ($r = -.098$; $p < .01$), health ($r = -.140$; $p < .01$) and loans ($r = -.130$; $p < .01$), while the correlation is positive and very weak for entertainment expenditures ($r = .079$; $p < .01$) and savings ($r = .100$; $p < .01$).

The situation is similar in some geographical categories (Table 29) where the correlation between variables, when significant, is usually negative and low. In BiH, we find a negative and low correlation between job satisfaction and allocation for housing ($r = -.198$; $p < .01$), nutrition ($r = -.152$; $p < .01$), education ($r = -.082$; $p < .01$), health services ($r = -.146$; $p < .01$) and loans ($r = -.057$; $p < .05$), while there is a low and positive correlation in entertainment ($r = .095$; $p < .01$). In the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are part of the EU, we find a negative and low correlation between the index of life satisfaction and housing costs ($r = -.107$; $p < .05$) and food ($r = -.106$; $p < .05$), while correlation positive with entertainment ($r = .126$; $p < .05$). In the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU, we find a negative and low correlation between the index of life satisfaction and allocation for housing ($r = -.228$; $p < .01$) and health services ($r = -.206$; $p < .01$) and a positive and low correlation with savings ($r = .286$; $p < .01$). When it comes to the diaspora, we find a low and negative correlation between

the index of life satisfaction and the cost of housing ($r = -.168$; $p < .01$), transportation ($r = -.185$; $p < .01$) and food ($r = -.169$; $p < .01$).

Table 29. *Correlation between the life satisfaction index and monthly expenditures of respondents from different regions*

	BiH	Countries of Ex Yu that re in EU	Countries of Ex Yu that are not in EU	Diaspora
	Life satisfaction index	Life satisfaction index	Life satisfaction index	Life satisfaction index
Housing	-.198**	-.107*	-.228**	-.168**
Transportation	-.006	.063	-.037	-.185**
Nutrition	-.152**	-.106*	-.054	-.169**
Education	-.082**	.019	.144	-.073
Health services	-.146**	-.074	-.206*	-.048
Entertainment	.095**	.126*	.091	.047
Loans	-.057*	-.065	-.169	-.091
Savings	.049	.035	.286**	.079

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

18.2 Discussion of findings

When it comes to rent, the results show that respondents from the diaspora spend the most money on it, which is approximately a quarter of the total monthly income, while respondents in BiH spend about a fifth of their income on rent. It is also interesting to note that the respondents, in general, but also by regions, are less satisfied with life, the higher their rent expenses. This correlation is greatest among respondents from non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia.

Residents of BiH spend the most on transportation, and those allocations are about ten percent of the monthly budget, while respondents from the diaspora spend the least on this service. When we look

at the relationship between transportation allocations and the life satisfaction index, we see that there is a negative and low correlation in the sample of all respondents and those from the diaspora. It is important to emphasize that this correlation is higher in diaspora respondents than in the whole sample. This information is interesting because the diaspora spends the least on transportation, and only with them does it negatively affect life satisfaction.

On food is mostly spent per month in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU and BiH, about a third of the budget, and a quarter of the budget for respondents from the diaspora. It is interesting that the more respondents spend on food, the less satisfied they are with life, and this rule applies to the sample of all respondents, as well as to respondents from BiH, the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU and the diaspora. The correlations are low, but they are significant.

Allocations from the family budget for education are highest in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU and BiH, and somewhat less in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and the diaspora. When we look at the connection between the allocation for schooling and the life satisfaction index, we see that it is negative and significant for all respondents and among respondents from BiH. In practice, this means that the more money is set aside for schooling, the lower the life satisfaction index.

When it comes to health services, health is almost equally allocated, between 6% and 7%, regardless of which region the respondents come from. The more money is set aside for health, the less satisfied respondents are with their lives. This connection is important for the sample of all respondents, as well as for the population of BiH, where this connection is very weak and respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU, where it is low.

For loan repayment, respondents set aside 13% to 21% of their monthly income, but these differences are not significant between regions. BiH residents set aside a fifth of their monthly budget for the loan, while the amount in the diaspora is slightly more than 13%.

Quite expectedly, the more money is set aside to repay the loan, the less satisfied the respondents are with life. This correlation is significant, but low, in the sample of all respondents and in the population of BiH.

Respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU spend the most on entertainment per month, followed by residents of BiH, countries from Yugoslavia that are in the EU and the diaspora, about 9%. Although statistical analyzes show that the difference between these categories is statistically significant, the cause seems to be the sample size. In the sample of all respondents, as well as in the population of BiH, we find a low and positive correlation between the allocation of money for entertainment and the index of life satisfaction. Practically, this means that the satisfaction with life grows, the more respondents are willing to spend more money on entertainment.

Among the respondents, the biggest savers are respondents from the diaspora who manage to save a little less than a fifth of their monthly income, followed by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU, countries from Yugoslavia that are in the EU and BiH. Although the differences between them are statistically significant, it seems that the cause of this significance is primarily the sample size. The correlation between the possibilities of savings is positive and very weak when it comes to the sample of all respondents, and low for respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU.

When we look at the overall results we can say that they are quite expected. Life satisfaction to some extent depends on how the household budget is spent. Of course, there are regional differences here as well, but we find the greatest impact of expenditures on happiness among the inhabitants of BiH. It is also interesting that the costs are the ones that affect the satisfaction of life to a greater extent, than entertainment and savings.

19. Monthly allocation for helping family / relatives and life satisfaction

In this chapter, we will see whether and to what extent respondents from certain regions allocate money to help family or relatives, and whether and to what extent this is related to their life satisfaction index.

First of all, it is important to know that 44.8% of our respondents claim that they help their family and relatives by sending money.

Table 30. *Monthly allocation of money to help family and relatives of respondents from different regions (in euros)*

	N	M	SD	SE	F	p	η^2
BiH	1485	129.667	154.631	4.013	44.295	< .001	0.057
Countries of Ex Yu that re in EU	162	215.062	358.194	28.142			
Countries of Ex Yu that are not in EU	92	111.467	95.251	9.931			
Diaspora	481	250.208	298.736	13.621			

The results shown in Table 30 show that the diaspora allocates the most money to help family or relatives (250 euros), followed by residents of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU (215 euros), BiH (129 euros) and people from the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (111 euros). This difference in the average allocation for assistance is statistically significant, but also expected if we know that people living in the diaspora have the highest incomes.

When we look at the differences within certain categories (Table 30.1) we see that the differences between the inhabitants of BiH are quite intense in relation to the diaspora (Cohen's $d = -0.604$). The difference is intense (Cohen's $d = -0.502$) between respondents from the diaspora and those living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia, but not in the EU.

Table 30.1 *Post Hoc Tests*

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
Total monthly income of all household members	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	-85.394	17.559	-4.863	-0.462	< .001
		Ex Yu not in EU	18.200	22.801	0.798	0.120	0.855
		Diaspora	-120.541	11.134	-10.827	-0.604	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	103.594	27.705	3.739	0.355	0.001
		Diaspora	-35.146	19.278	-1.823	-0.112	0.263
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	-138.741	24.149	-5.745	-0.502	< .001

Table 31. *Correlation of the life satisfaction index and allocation of money to help family and relatives in the sample of all respondents*

	Allocation of money to help family and relatives
Life satisfaction index	.074**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

In Table 31, we see that the correlation between life satisfaction and allocating money to help family / relatives is positive, low and significant ($r = .074$; $p < .01$).

When we look at the correlations by regions, we see that there is a low and negative relationship between the allocation of money to help family and relatives and general life satisfaction among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU ($r = -.187$; $p < .01$). We also find a positive and low correlation between respondents from the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU, and between the allocation of money to help friends and relatives and the life satisfaction index, but this difference is not statistically significant ($r = .183$).

Table 32. *Correlation of the life satisfaction index and allocation of money to help family and relatives of respondents from different regions*

		Allocation of money to help family and relatives
BiH	Life satisfaction index	.041
Ex Yu in EU	Life satisfaction index	- .187**
Ex Yu not in EU	Life satisfaction index	.183
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	.023

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

19.1 Discussion of findings

Of the total number of respondents, 45% are financially supporting their families and relatives. As expected, respondents from the diaspora spend the most money on aid, because they have the highest incomes, followed by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU, followed by residents of BiH and those from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU.

When we look at the entire sample, all respondents, we see that with the increase in the amount of money sent to family and relatives, the index of life satisfaction also grows. True, this connection is weak, but it is significant. A 2008 U.S. study by Dunn, Akin, & Norton found that spending money on other people increases the level of happiness among respondents who spend money. It is interesting to find a negative but low correlation between these two variables among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia, which practically means that the more money respondents spend on helping their family and relatives, the lower their life satisfaction. The question remains as to why this is so, whether it is a great financial burden for them or whether it is something else that should be further investigated.

28. Marital status and life satisfaction

In this chapter we will see whether married respondents or those who are not are more satisfied with their lives? We will also see if this difference exists in certain regions.

Table 33. *Index of life satisfaction of all respondents with regard to whether they are married or not*

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	P	Cohen's d
Single	1364	5.522	2.369	0.064	-3.710	4326.000	< .001	-0.121
Married	2964	5.812	2.401	0.044				

As we can see in the table, 33 married people have a more pronounced index of life satisfaction compared to singles. This difference is statistically significant, but we must take this with great reserve if we keep in mind that Cohen's d is of low intensity.

Table 34. *Life satisfaction of respondents from different regions with regard to whether they are married or not*

		N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
BiH	Single	1013	5.2556	2.34649	.07373	-1.445	3038	.149
	Married	2027	5.3846	2.30862	.05128			
Ex Yu in EU	Single	125	6.2680	2.04724	.18311	-1.050	388	.294
	Married	265	6.5108	2.16975	.13329			
Ex Yu not in EU	Single	76	5.2434	2.24999	.25809	-1.076	208	.283
	Married	134	5.5886	2.22352	.19208			
Diaspora	Single	143	6.9274	2.17588	.18196	-1.072	668	.284
	Married	527	7.1599	2.33170	.10157			

From Table 34 we can see that married people do not differ from non-married people, regardless of the region they come from, in the degree of life satisfaction index.

20.1 Discussion of findings

The obtained results showed that persons who are married are not different from each other in life satisfaction, regardless of whether the result applies to all respondents or to individual regions.

The results we obtained in our research partially coincide with the research in the world. Why partially? Because researchers around the world find statistically significant differences between married people and singles (Diener, Suh, Lucas, Smith, 1999; Verbakel, 2012). It is interesting to mention the research from Serbia which showed that single people and people in cohabitation are most satisfied with their lives, while married people were more satisfied only than those who lost their spouse (Jovanović, 2016). Depending on how society perceives marriage, its influence on the satisfaction of the individual also depends. In traditional societies where marriage is seen as something important, married men and married women are more satisfied with their lives than single people, while in societies that view marriage liberally, this difference is not found (Vannasche, Swicegood, Matthijs, 2013). Research by Lucas & Clark (2006) shows that life satisfaction grows until marriage, only to return to pre-marriage levels.

29. Family size and life satisfaction

We will now see how many family members respondents from different categories have and how this is related to life satisfaction.

Table 35. Number of family members among respondents from different regions

		N	M	SD	SE	F	p	n ²
How many people live in your household?	BiH	3485	3.27	.082	.022	6.683	< .001	0.004
	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	444	3.20	.047	.067			
	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	248	3.10	.019	.082			
	Diaspora	765	3.05	.018	.047			
How many are children under 6 years of age?	BiH	993	1.29	.077	.018	0.300	0.826	0.001
	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	110	1.27	.037	.059			
	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	51	1.31	.015	.077			
	Diaspora	206	1.33	.031	.037			
How many children are aged 6 to 10?	BiH	652	1.17	.056	.031	0.682	0.563	0.002
	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	106	1.14	.041	.034			
	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	30	1.10	.023	.056			
	Diaspora	157	1.14	.022	.041			
And how many children are between the ages of 10 and 17?	BiH	786	1.30	.059	.022	1.427	0.233	0.004
	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	115	1.39	.061	.058			
	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	64	1.25	.020	.059			
	Diaspora	204	1.38	.866	.061			

If we look at Table 35 we can see that there is a statistically significant difference between the respondents between individual categories.

ries only in the total number of persons in the household. We find the families with the most members in BiH, followed by families from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are members of the EU and those that are not members of the EU. Families in the diaspora have the fewest members.

It is interesting that the post-hoc analysis finds significant differences between respondents from the diaspora and BiH, but given that the intensity of Cohen's $d = 0.169$ is low, we will not consider them in more detail.

Table 35.1 *Post Hoc Tests*

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
How many people live in your household?	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	0.071	0.066	1.071	0.054	0.708
		Ex Yu not in EU	0.166	0.086	1.922	0.127	0.219
		Diaspora	0.221	0.052	4.213	0.169	< .001
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	0.095	0.104	0.913	0.069	0.798
		Diaspora	0.150	0.078	1.915	0.112	0.222
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	0.055	0.096	0.573	0.043	0.940
How many are children under 6 years of age?	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	0.017	0.057	0.306	0.030	0.990
		Ex Yu not in EU	-0.024	0.081	-0.293	-0.042	0.991
		Diaspora	-0.035	0.043	-0.816	-0.063	0.847
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	-0.041	0.095	-0.430	-0.069	0.973
		Diaspora	-0.053	0.067	-0.789	-0.093	0.859
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	-0.012	0.088	-0.131	-0.021	0.999

			MD	SE	t	Cohen's d	p _{tukey}
How many children are aged 6 to 10?	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	0.073	0.077	0.948	0.102	0.779
		Ex Yu not in EU	0.110	0.110	0.995	0.150	0.752
		Diaspora	0.050	0.064	0.773	0.066	0.867
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	0.037	0.129	0.283	0.124	0.992
		Diaspora	-0.024	0.093	-0.256	-0.040	0.994
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	-0.060	0.122	-0.496	-0.094	0.960
How many children are between the ages of 10 and 17?	BiH	Ex Yu in EU	-0.089	0.067	-1.325	-0.141	0.547
		Ex Yu not in EU	0.053	0.087	0.607	0.085	0.930
		Diaspora	-0.080	0.053	-1.513	-0.116	0.430
	Ex Yu in EU	Ex Yu not in EU	0.141	0.104	1.354	0.248	0.528
		Diaspora	0.009	0.078	0.115	0.011	0.999
	Ex Yu not in EU	Diaspora	-0.132	0.096	-1.381	-0.167	0.512

Table 36. Correlation of the life satisfaction index and the number of family members in the sample of all respondents

	Total number of family members	Children up to 6 years	Children from 7 to 10 years	Children from 11 up to 17 years
Life satisfaction index	.034*	-.003	.012	.019

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

In Table 36, we see that there is a very weak and positive correlation between the life satisfaction index and family size ($r = .034$; $p < .05$). When we look at the correlations by regions, we find a very

weak and positive relationship between the life satisfaction index and the total number of family members in BiH ($r = .068$; $p < .01$).

Table 37. *Correlation of life satisfaction index and number of family members of respondents from different geographical regions*

		Total number of family members	Children up to 6 years	Children from 7 to 10 years	Children from 11 to 17 years
BiH	Life satisfaction index	.068**	.014	.059	-.033
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Life satisfaction index	-.063	.004	-.108	-.053
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Life satisfaction index	.052	-.057	-.103	.108
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	.018	-.091	-.146	.121

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

21.1 Discussion of findings

First of all, we must emphasize that the average family, regardless of which region it comes from, has about 3 members. When it comes to the relationship between family size and life satisfaction index, we find a statistically significant, very low and positive correlation between the total number of family members and the life satisfaction index, in a sample of all respondents and residents of BiH.

When looking at the correlations between the number of children and life satisfaction, we do not find statistically significant differences, which is in line with the findings obtained in other studies. The

results obtained in the world clearly show that children do not make people happy anymore. Stanc's analysis from 2012 shows that people without children are more satisfied with life than people with children. These results were also obtained by Hansen (2012) and Clark & Georgellis (2013). Researchers usually explain these results in two ways, first, that the birth of children causes increased anxiety, stress, fatigue, lack of sleep, economic problems, career breakdown, etc. On the other hand, parents are forced to accept some life roles that they did not want and that do not make them happy.

30. Membership in organizations and life satisfaction

In this chapter, we will see how many respondents from different regions are members of some organizations and whether they differ from each other. Respondents were offered membership in seven organizations, but were also given an eighth option as an open opportunity to enroll themselves as members of an organization not mentioned. In addition to the frequencies we will analyze, we will see if respondents differ from each other in the average number of affiliations. Finally, we will see if there is a connection between life satisfaction and belonging to organizations.

When we analyze the membership of respondents in political parties, we see that in BiH the largest percentage of respondents are members of political parties (13.4%), followed by respondents from non-EU countries (9.6%), followed by diaspora (7.4%) and respondents from countries of the former Yugoslavia that are members of the EU (6.6%). When we talk about environmental organizations, we see that every tenth respondent from the diaspora (11.9%) and BiH (9.3%) is a member of this organization. Among the respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who do not live in the EU, we find 8.9% of ecologists, and among those who live in the EU, we find 6.2% of them. Membership in humanitarian organizations is most present

among respondents living outside the territory of the former Yugoslavia (36.6%), followed by residents of BiH (24.5%) and respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are or are not in the EU (about 20%). Members of sports associations are found in the largest percentage in the diaspora (29%), followed by BiH (20.8%), the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU (18.9%) and the least in those that are not in the EU (13.6%). When it comes to cultural and artistic societies,

approximately every tenth respondent from each of the four regions is a member. Members of religious associations are mostly in the diaspora (12.5%) and BiH (10%), and the least in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU (7.4%) and the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU (5.1%). When it comes to members of hunting and fishing associations, we can say that the percentage of their members is quite small and that the percentage for the diaspora is 5.2%, the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU BiH 4.3% and BiH 3.6%. These differences are statistically significant for all categories, except cultural and artistic societies (Table 38).

Table 38. Membership in any of the organizations of respondents from different regions? (only „Yes” answers)

		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	V	df	p
Political parties	N	442	28	23	54	48.867	6	.000
	%	13.4	6.6	9.6	7.4			
Environmental organizations	N	292	26	21	85	13.529	6	.035
	%	9.3	6.2	8.9	11.9			
Humanitarian organizations	N	775	86	51	266	63.245	6	.000
	%	24.5	20.5	21.6	36.6			

Sports societies	N	653	79	32	207	36.528	6	.000
	%	20.8	18.9	13.6	29.0			
Cultural and artistic society	N	333	42	20	83	4.164	6	.655
	%	10.8	10.0	8.5	11.7			
Religious Association	N	311	31	12	89	17.883	6	.007
	%	10.0	7.4	5.1	12.5			
Hunting or fishing society	N	111	4	10	37	16.858	6	.010
	%	3.6	1.0	4.3	5.2			

Table 39. Average number of memberships in organizations among respondents from different regions

	N	M	SD	SE	F	p	n ²
BiH	392	2.714	.12730	.00643	.784	< .503	0.004
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	52	2.788	.13008	.01804			
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	27	2.639	.16013	.03082			
Diaspora	59	3.114	.16637	.02166			

When we talk about the affiliation of the respondents to an organization, we see that this difference is not statistically significant (Table 39). Membership in organizations is least present among respondents living in non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia (2.63), followed by BiH (2.71) and those in the EU (2.78). The most engaged are citizens from the diaspora (3.11).

Table 40. Correlation of the life satisfaction index and membership in organizations on a sample of all respondents

	Membership in organizations
Life satisfaction index	.077

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

The correlation between the satisfaction index and membership in organizations, in all respondents, is positive, low and not statistically significant (Table 40).

When we look at the correlations by regions, we do not find statistically significant differences either (Table 41).

Table 41. *Correlation of the life satisfaction index and membership in organizations among respondents from different regions*

		Membership in organizations
BiH	Life satisfaction index	.038
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Life satisfaction index	.166
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Life satisfaction index	.041
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	.007

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

22.1 Discussion of findings

when it comes to the affiliation of citizens to certain organizations, we can say that the respondents from the region do not differ significantly from each other, although we find most of them in the diaspora. However, there is a difference in the membership structure in individual organizations. Respondents from the diaspora are mostly members of environmental, humanitarian and sports associations, while in BiH we find the most members of political parties. That the people of BiH „like” membership in political parties was also shown by Bert Šalaj’s research from 2009, which showed that 18% of the country’s inhabitants are members of a political party, which can be related to clientelism and partocracy, which is largely present in BiH.

We did not find a significant correlation between the life satisfaction index and membership in organizations, but this correlation is positive and most present among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU.

Belonging to groups is an integral part of human existence and the lack of such relationships can have very detrimental consequences on people's mental and physical health (Putnam, 2000; Jetten et al., 2012). Through numerous studies, researchers have shown that individuals who are more socially integrated are more likely to live happier, healthier, and longer lives (Berkman & Syme, 1979; Cohen et al., 1997; Glass et al., 2006; Wilson et al., 2007). Research that deals with the personal happiness and social capital shows its positive impact on personal happiness, but we must be careful when talking about certain segments of social capital, as well as happiness. Research (Rodriguez-Pose & von Berlepsch, 2014) finds a link, to a greater or lesser extent, between social capital and life satisfaction, but not in membership in political parties. At the same time Elgar et al. (2011) find a positive and strong correlation between belonging to organizations and groups and life satisfaction and this connection was stronger in societies with lower social capital. Nevertheless, the impact of social capital seems to be much greater in richer societies, while in poorer societies incomes are more important for individual happiness (Bjørnskov, 2003).

23. Leisure time and life satisfaction

As part of our analysis, we will show how respondents from certain regions most often spend their leisure time. Also, we will see the connection between the way of using the leisure time of all respondents, by individual geographical areas and the index of life satisfaction.

When we look at the obtained results (Table 42), we see that the respondents, regardless of the region in which they live, spend their leisure time almost identically.

Table 42. *The five most common ways in which respondents from the region spend their leisure time every day in %*

	BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora
Using the internet	75.8	82.7	78.6	74.1
Hanging out with family	68.4	62.8	64.9	65.9
Resting at home	65.9	61.7	64.9	63.0
Listening to music	52.4	62.4	57.7	56.6
Watching TV	51.8	53.2	46.0	46.8

We find differences between regions in intensity, ie. percentage of practicing certain activities, so that the Internet is mostly used by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU, while they, together with respondents from BiH, mostly watch television. Music is mostly listened to by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU, and least by respondents from BiH.

Respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU read the most. Respondents who live in one of the countries of the former Yugoslavia hang out with friends more than those who live in the diaspora. Sports activities are mostly practiced by respondents from the diaspora (Appendix 1).

If we look at the connections between the life satisfaction index and individual ways of using leisure time of all respondents (Table 43), we see that the correlations are low but significant. We find positive correlations between the index of life satisfaction and hanging out with friends ($r = .055$; $p < .01$), nature trips ($r = .053$; $p < .01$), playing sports ($r = .109$; $p < .01$), entertainment ($r = .036$; $p < .05$) and practicing religious content ($r = .046$; $p < .01$). We find a negative correlation between life satisfaction and watching TV ($r = -.058$; $p < .01$), reading ($r = -.031$; $p < .05$) and going to the theater ($r = .036$; $p < .05$).

When it comes to the correlation between the index of life satisfaction and the use of leisure time among BiH respondents (Table 44), we find a low and positive correlation when hanging out with friends ($r = .099$; $p < .01$), hanging out with relatives ($r = .055$; $p < .01$), socializing with family ($r = .047$; $p < .01$), playing sports ($r = .088$; $p < .01$), entertainment ($r = .054$; $p < .01$) and practicing religion ($r = .110$; $p < .01$), while a negative correlation is found when watching TV ($r = -.063$; $p < .01$).

Among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are now in the EU (Table 45), we find a positive correlation between the life satisfaction index and socializing with friends ($r = .155$; $p < .01$), nature trips ($r = .130$; $p < .05$), watching TV ($r = .107$; $p < .05$) and playing sports ($r = .137$; $p < .01$). Low and negative correlation is present in political and social activities ($r = -.103$; $p < .05$). Kod ispitanika iz zemalja bivše Jugoslavije koji nisu u EU (tabela 46.) nalazimo pozitivne korelacije između indeksa zadovoljstva životom i druženja sa porodicom ($r = .159$; $p < .05$), dok nisku i negativna korelaciju nalazimo kod gledanja TV-a ($r = -.161$; $p < .05$) i korištenja interneta ($r = -.177$; $p < .01$). Among respondents from the diaspora (Table 47), we find low, negative, but significant, correlations between the life satisfaction index and TV viewing ($r = -.085$; $p < .05$), travel ($r = -.186$; $p < .01$), going to the cinema ($r = -.091$; $p < .05$) and going to the museum ($r = -.97$; $p < .05$).

Table 43. *Correlation of life satisfaction index and leisure time use code in the sample of all respondents*

	Life satisfaction index
Hanging out with friends	.055**
Hanging out with relatives	.002
Nature trips	.053**
Watching TV	-.058**
Hanging out with family	.027
Playing sports	.109**
Entertainment	.036*
Traveling	.020

Reading	-.031 [*]
Pursuing a hobby	-.001
Learning foreign languages	.024
Listening to music	-.002
Going to the movies	.028
Going to the theatre	-.036 [*]
Internet (facebook, games, etc.)	.004
Attending sports competitions	.004
Resting at home	-.006
Political and social activity	-.005
Religious contents	.046 ^{**}
Going to the museum	.009

Tabela 44. *Correlation between the index of life satisfaction and the use of leisure time among respondents from BiH*

	Life satisfaction index
Hanging out with friends	.099 ^{**}
Hanging out with relatives	.055 ^{**}
Nature trips	.011
Watching TV	-.063 ^{**}
Hanging out with family	.047 ^{**}
Playing sports	.088 ^{**}
Entertainment	.054 ^{**}
Traveling	.027
Reading	-.029
Pursuing a hobby	-.028
Learning foreign languages	-.018
Listening to music	-.034
Going to the movies	.024
Going to the theatre	-.027
Internet (facebook, games, etc.)	.005
Attending sports competitions	.001
Resting at home	-.014
Political and social activity	.032
Religious contents	.11 ^{**}
Going to the museum	-.004

Table 45. *Correlation between the index of life satisfaction and the use of leisure time among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU*

	Life satisfaction index
Hanging out with friends	.155**
Hanging out with relatives	.070
Nature trips	.130*
Watching TV	.107*
Hanging out with family	-.026
Playing sports	.137**
Entertainment	.015
Traveling	.012
Reading	-.020
Pursuing a hobby	.091
Learning foreign languages	.008
Listening to music	.046
Going to the movies	.081
Going to the theatre	.035
Internet (facebook, games, etc.)	.071
Attending sports competitions	-.007
Resting at home	.070
Political and social activity	-.103*
Religious contents	.025
Going to the museum	-.064

Table 46. *Correlation between the index of life satisfaction and the use of leisure time in respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU*

	Life satisfaction index
Hanging out with friends	.118
Hanging out with relatives	.011
Nature trips	.048
Watching TV	-.161*
Hanging out with family	.159*
Playing sports	.089
Entertainment	.041
Traveling	.035

Reading	-.088
Pursuing a hobby	.006
Learning foreign languages	-.017
Listening to music	.017
Going to the movies	.005
Going to the theatre	-.121
Internet (facebook, games, etc.)	-.177**
Attending sports competitions	.019
Resting at home	-.024
Political and social activity	-.079
Religious contents	-.054
Going to the museum	-.107

Tabela 47. Diaspora

	Life satisfaction index
Hanging out with friends	-.004
Hanging out with relatives	-.074
Nature trips	-.060
Watching TV	-.085*
Hanging out with family	.025
Playing sports	.044
Entertainment	-.076
Traveling	-.186**
Reading	-.029
Pursuing a hobby	.002
Learning foreign languages	-.033
Listening to music	.009
Going to the movies	-.091*
Going to the theatre	-.073
Internet (facebook, games, etc.)	.027
Attending sports competitions	-.007
Resting at home	.021
Political and social activity	-.078
Religious contents	-.054
Going to the museum	-.097*

23.1 Discussion of findings

Regardless of the region in which our respondents live, they spend their leisure time in a similar way, which practically means: using the Internet, spending time with family, relaxing at home, listening to music and watching TV. We find differences in intensity, ie. percentage of these activities, so that the Internet is mostly used by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU, while they, together with respondents from BiH, mostly watch television. Music is mostly listened to by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU, and least by respondents from BiH. Respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU read the most. Respondents who live in one of the countries of the former Yugoslavia hang out with friends more than those who live in the diaspora. Sports activities are mostly practiced by respondents from the diaspora.

When we look at the results on the entire sample of respondents, we see that the life satisfaction of the respondents is higher the more they hang out with friends, the more often they go out to nature and play sports. Also, more frequent outings and more frequent practice of religion have a positive effect on the index of life satisfaction. On the other hand, watching a lot of TV, reading and going to the theater have a bad effect on their life satisfaction. It is important to keep in mind that these correlations are very low, although they are statistically significant.

The situation is similar in BiH, where with the increase in socializing with friends, relatives and family, playing sports, going out and practicing religion, life satisfaction also increases, while watching television reduces that satisfaction.

Among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU, the life satisfaction index increases with an increase in socializing with friends, going for trips in nature, watching TV and playing sports, and decreases with an increase in political and social activities.

Among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU, we find a positive connection between spending time with family and life satisfaction, while watching TV and using the Internet has a negative effect on it.

The more diaspora respondents watch TV, travel, go to the cinema and museums, the less their satisfied with their lives.

Leisure activities are crucial because they are closely related to the life satisfaction and quality of life of both older and younger people in the modern age (Lee & Yeong, 2012). The way adults use their leisure time is significantly different from the way young people use their leisure time to „recharge their batteries” and recover from physical and mental fatigue (Kwon & Cho, 2000). Social capital research (Rodriguez-Pose & von Berlepsch, 2014) has shown that socializing with family and friends is positively associated with feelings of happiness, which is in line with our findings.

24. Consumption of harmful substances and life satisfaction

In this chapter, we will see how much the consumption of harmful substances is present in the daily lives of respondents from four geographical regions and how this is related to the life satisfaction index.

Table 48. *Frequency of consumption of harmful substances in% (daily and several times a week) in respondents from different regions*

	BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora
Beer	11.4	9.1	13.3	14.5
Wine	5.1	12.7	8.3	9.4
Spirits	3.0	1.6	3.3	3.7
Energy drinks	3.4	2.4	2.5	6.7

Sodas	17.1	10.9	20.3	20.4
Sedatives	5.6	4.4	9.1	2.1
Cigarettes	35.2	33.1	38.6	29.5
Marijuana	3.1	1.1	3.0	2.7

In BiH, every third respondent (35.2%) consumes cigarettes daily or several times a week, while 17.1% drink sodas, 11.4% beer, and 5.6% take sedatives. When it comes to respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU, we see that a third of them (33.1%) smoke cigarettes, 12.7% drink wine, 10.9% sodas, 9.1% beer and 4.4% consume sedatives. In non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia, we find 38.6% of those who consume cigarettes daily or several times a week, while 20.3% drink sodas, 13.3% beer, 8.3% wine and 9.1% sedatives. Respondents from the diaspora smoke the most (29.5%), while every fifth (20.4%) drinks sodas. 14.5% drink beer, 9.4% wine, and 6.7% drink energy drinks.

Table 49. *Correlation of the index of life satisfaction and consumption of harmful substances in the sample of all respondents and by different regions*

	All respondents	BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora
	Life satisfaction index	Life satisfaction index	Life satisfaction index	Life satisfaction index	Life satisfaction index
Beer	.009	-.022	.048	.086	.029
Wine	.084**	.039*	.114*	.103	.069
Spirits	.058**	.017	.116*	.052	.057
Energy drinks	.042**	.033	-.009	.065	.012
Sodas	.056**	.072**	.007	.095	.009
Sedatives	-.231**	-.223**	-.199**	-.191**	-.123**
Cigarettes	-.074**	-.067**	-.061	-.026	-.045
Marijuana	-.025	-.013	.043	-.050	-.040

In Table 49, we can see the relationship between the life satisfaction index and the consumption of harmful substances, in a sample of all respondents, where we find positive, low and statistically significant relationships in wine ($r = .084$; $p < .01$), spirits $.058$; $p < .01$), energy drinks ($r = .042$; $p < .01$) and sodas ($r = .056$; $p < .01$). A negative, low, but significant relationship exists between sedatives ($r = -.0231$; $p < .01$) and cigarettes ($r = -.074$; $p < .01$).

When we look at the correlations only among the inhabitants of BiH, we can see that there are low and positive relationships between general life satisfaction and wine consumption ($r = .039$; $p < .05$) and sodas ($r = .072$; $p < .01$), as both negative and low for sedatives ($r = -.223$; $p < .01$) and cigarettes ($r = -.067$; $p < .01$).

Among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU, we find a low and positive correlation between the index of life satisfaction and wine consumption ($r = .114$; $p < .05$) and the consumption of alcoholic beverages ($r = .116$; $p < .05$), as well as negative and low association with sedatives ($r = -.199$; $p < .01$).

Among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU, we find a low and negative correlation between the life satisfaction index and the use of sedatives ($r = -.191$; $p < .01$).

Among diaspora respondents, we find a low and negative correlation between the life satisfaction index and the use of sedatives ($r = -.123$; $p < .01$).

24.1 *Discussion of findings*

When we talk about the consumption of harmful substances, we see that cigarettes are mostly consumed in all regions, especially in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU and BiH. Sodas are in second place in terms of consumption and are mostly drunk in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU and the diaspora. In third place is the beer that is most drunk among respondents from the diaspora and those living in the countries of the

former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU. Wine is in fourth place and is mostly drunk in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and the diaspora, followed by sedatives that are mostly used in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU and BiH. Energy drinks are mostly consumed by the diaspora, twice as much as in other regions. Spirits are mostly drunk in the diaspora. Marijuana is mostly smoked in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU, BiH and the diaspora.

When we look at the correlations between the life satisfaction index and the consumption of harmful substances, in all respondents, we see that with the increase in consumption of wine, spirits and sodas, the life satisfaction index increases, while that satisfaction decreases with higher consumption of sedatives and cigarettes.

The situation is similar in BiH, where the life satisfaction index increases with the increase in the consumption of wine and sodas, and decreases as more sedatives and cigarettes are consumed. Among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU, the life satisfaction index increases with the increase in the consumption of wine and spirits, while it decreases with the use of sedatives. Among respondents from the diaspora and non-EU countries that are not in the EU, the life satisfaction index is declining with higher consumption of sedatives. The obtained results differ somewhat from the results of research in the world (Smith & Larson, 2003; Pasa-reanu, Vederhus, Opsal, Kristensen & Clausen, 2015; Vienna, 2013). Here it is very important to carefully interpret the obtained results. First of all, we must keep in mind that moderate consumption of wine and beer can to some extent affect the increase of good mood in the respondents, but there is a thin limit when this enjoyment becomes addictive. It should also be borne in mind that consuming alcoholic beverages is our tradition and that it is very often associated with festivities and celebrations.

25. Satisfaction with the society in which they live and life satisfaction

In this chapter, we will see how satisfied the respondents from certain regions are with the current situation in society and their readiness to leave their current place of residence in the coming period.

Table 50. *Satisfaction with the political situation in the country where they currently live?*

		Country category				
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
Yes	N	23	36	9	528	596
	%	0.7	8.2	3.7	70.3	12.4
No	N	3359	402	237	223	4221
	%	99.3	91.8	96.3	29.7	87.6
Total	N	3382	438	246	751	4817
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 50.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
2775.505	3	.000

The greatest satisfaction with the political situation in society is found among respondents from the diaspora (70.3%), while this percentage is drastically lower among other categories of respondents. 8.2% of the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and 3.7% of those from countries that are not in the EU are satisfied with the political situation in society. In BiH, 0.7% of respondents are satisfied with the current political situation.

Table 51. *Satisfaction with the health system in the country where you currently live?*

		Country category				
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
Yes	N	126	92	15	633	866
	%	3.7	21.0	6.1	84.1	18.0
No	N	3262	347	229	120	3958
	%	96.3	79.0	93.9	15.9	82.0
Total	N	3388	439	244	753	4824
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Tabela 51.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
2726.206	3	.000

Satisfaction with the health care system is highest among respondents from the diaspora (84.1%), while this percentage is drastically lower in other categories of respondents. Every fifth respondent (21%) from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU is satisfied with the health care system and 6.1% of those from countries that are not in the EU. In BiH, 3.7% of respondents are satisfied with how the health system in the country works today.

Table 52. *Satisfaction with the education system in the country where you currently live?*

		Country category				
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
Yes	N	173	129	26	643	971
	%	17.8	13.3	2.7	66.2	100.0

No	N	3204	310	217	100	3831
	%	83.6	8.1	5.7	2.6	100.0
Total	N	3377	439	243	743	4802
	%	70.3	9.1	5.1	15.5	100.0

Table 52.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
2539.473	3	.000

As we can see from Table 52.1, there is a statistically significant difference between respondents from different regions when it comes to their satisfaction with education. The greatest satisfaction with the education system is found among respondents in the diaspora (66.2%), while this percentage is drastically lower among other categories of respondents. In BiH, 17.8% of respondents are satisfied with education, while this percentage in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU is 13.3%, and in countries that are not in the EU 2.7%.

Table 53. *Thinking about changing the city you currently live in?*

		Country category				
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
Yes	N	1437	105	93	124	1759
	%	42.7	24.0	38.3	16.5	36.7
No	N	1927	332	150	626	3035
	%	57.3	76.0	61.7	83.5	63.3
Total	N	3364	437	243	750	4794
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 53.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
214.212	3	.000

42.7% of BiH residents are thinking about changing the city in which they live, followed by 38.3% of respondents living in one of the non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia and 24% of respondents who are in the EU. The lowest percentage of respondents who think to change the city in which they currently reside is found in the diaspora (16.5%).

Table 54. *Thinking about changing the country you currently live in?*

		Country category				
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
Yes	N	1796	95	120	81	2092
	%	53.3	21.6	49.4	10.8	43.6
No	N	1575	344	123	669	2711
	%	46.7	78.4	50.6	89.2	56.4
Total	N	3371	439	243	750	4803
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 54.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
546.044	3	.000

53.3% of BiH residents are considering leaving the country where they now live, followed by 49.4% of respondents who live in one of the countries of the former Yugoslavia and are not in the EU and 21.6% of respondents who are in the EU. The smallest percentage of respondents who are considering changing the country in which they currently reside is found in the diaspora (10.8%).

Table 55. *Life satisfaction on the sample of all respondents with regard to whether they are considering leaving the country in which they live*

	N	M	SD	SEM	t	df	p	Cohen's d
I'm thinking of leaving the country	1915	4,8854	2,20518	,05039	-21,615	4360	0,000	-,659
I'm not thinking of leaving the country	2447	6,3840	2,32379	,04698				

Quite unexpectedly, in Table 55, we get a statistically significant difference in the degree of life satisfaction, between respondents who are thinking of leaving the country in which they live and those who are not thinking about it. People who are thinking of leaving the country have a lower life satisfaction index compared to those who want to stay.

Table 56. *Life satisfaction of respondents from different regions with regard to whether they are considering leaving the country in which they live*

		N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
BiH	I'm thinking of leaving the country	1647	4,7643	2,18529	,05385	-15,605	3054	,000
	I'm not thinking of leaving the country	1409	6,0274	2,28239	,06080			
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	I'm thinking of leaving the country	89	5,5506	1,99598	,21157	-4,547	394	,000
	I'm not thinking of leaving the country	307	6,6950	2,11732	,12084			

Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	I'm thinking of leaving the country	106	5,2052	2,26221	,21973	-2,018	214	,045
	I'm not thinking of leaving the country	110	5,8114	2,15276	,20526			
Diaspora	I'm thinking of leaving the country	67	6,5728	1,96226	,23973	-1,955	674	,051
	I'm not thinking of leaving the country	609	7,1527	2,33881	,09477			

Residents of BiH, countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and those outside the EU, who are not thinking of leaving the country in which they live, have a more pronounced index of satisfaction with happiness than respondents who do not think about it. This rule does not apply only to respondents from the diaspora.

25.1 Discussion of findings

We find the greatest satisfaction with the political situation among respondents living in the diaspora (about 70%), while this percentage is drastically lower among other categories of respondents. Every tenth respondent from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU is satisfied with the political situation in his/her country and 3.7% of those from countries that are not in the EU. In BiH, less than 1% of respondents are satisfied with the current political situation. The situation is similar with the satisfaction with the health care system, which is highest among the respondents living in the diaspora, while this percentage is drastically lower in other categories of respondents. Every fifth respondent from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU is satisfied with the health care system in his/her country and 6.1% of those from countries that are not in

the EU. In BiH, 3.7% of respondents are satisfied with how the health system in the country works today. When it comes to satisfaction with the education system, two-thirds of the diaspora is satisfied. In BiH, every fifth respondent is satisfied with education, as well as every tenth respondent in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU. In non-EU countries, 2.7% of surveyed citizens are satisfied with the education system.

More than 40% of BiH residents think the most about changing the city in which they live, while that percentage is slightly lower among respondents living in one of the countries of the former Yugoslavia that is not in the EU. Every fifth respondent from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU is also thinking about changing the city. The lowest percentage of respondents who think to change the city in which they currently reside is found among the inhabitants of the diaspora. Half of the population of BiH is thinking about leaving the country in which they now live, as well as those who live in one of the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU. Every fifth respondent from the countries of the former Yugoslavia living in the EU is considering leaving the country, as is every tenth resident of the diaspora. It is completely expected that the less satisfaction with life, the greater the desire to leave the country.

26. Practice of faith and self-assessment of religiousness and satisfaction with life

Within this passage, we will see how respondents describe their religiosity and how often they go to religious ceremonies. Later we will see the correlations between life satisfaction and the way of practicing faith.

Table 57. *Do you go to religious ceremonies...?*

		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
Several times a week	N	377	11	13	44	445
	%	10.9	2.5	5.3	5.8	9.1
Once a week	N	274	69	6	46	395
	%	7.9	15.6	2.4	6.0	8.0
Once a month	N	94	33	8	16	151
	%	2.7	7.5	3.2	2.1	3.1
Several times a year	N	688	112	39	115	954
	%	19.9	25.3	15.8	15.1	19.4
Once a year or less often	N	562	87	58	150	857
	%	16.3	19.7	23.5	19.6	17.5
Never	N	1283	122	117	361	1883
	%	37.1	27.6	47.4	47.3	38.3
I do not know	N	84	6	5	14	109
	%	2.4	1.4	2.0	1.8	2.2
I refuse to answer	N	96	2	1	18	117
	%	2.8	.5	.4	2.4	2.4
Total	N	3458	442	247	764	4911
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 57.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
204.374	21	.000

Among the respondents who attend religious ceremonies several times a week, we find the highest number of BiH residents (10.9%), fol-

lowed by respondents from the diaspora (5.8%), respondents from non-EU countries (5.3%) and respondents from former Yugoslavia EU (2.5%).

The largest number of respondents who visit religious facilities once a week is found in respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU (15.6%), followed by respondents from BiH (7.9%), diaspora (6%), and least among respondents from the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (2.4%).

Once a month, 7.5% of respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU (15.6%) visit religious facilities, followed by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU (3.2%), respondents from BiH (2.7%) and the diaspora (2.1%).

Several times a year, 25.3% of respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU (15.6%), 19.9% of respondents from BiH and an equal percentage (about 15%) of respondents from the diaspora and non-EU countries visit the religious facilities.

Once a year, 70.9% of respondents from non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia, followed by 66.9% from the diaspora, 53.4% of BiH and 47.3% of respondents from the former Yugoslav countries of the EU visit religious facilities.

Table 58. *Correlation of the life satisfaction index and frequency of going to religious ceremonies among all respondents*

	Frequency of going to religious ceremonies
Life satisfaction index	.121**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

The correlation between the satisfaction index and going to religious ceremonies, in all respondents, is positive, low and statistically significant ($r = .121$; $p < .01$).

When we look at the correlations by regions, we find a statistically significant difference only among the respondents in BiH, which is positive and low ($r = .181$; $p < .01$).

Table 59. Correlation of the life satisfaction index and the frequency of attending religious ceremonies of respondents from different regions

		Frequency of going to religious ceremonies
BiH	Life satisfaction index	.181**
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Life satisfaction index	.082
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Life satisfaction index	.096
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	.053

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

Table 60. Religious beliefs of the respondents

		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Diaspora	Total
I am not a believer	N	645	82	86	207	1020
	%	18.7	18.5	35.0	27.2	20.8
Free religious beliefs	N	1034	150	64	245	1493
	%	29.9	33.9	26.0	32.2	30.4
Moderate religious beliefs	N	1420	162	80	233	1895
	%	41.1	36.6	32.5	30.6	38.6
Conservative religious beliefs	N	118	21	6	24	169
	%	3.4	4.7	2.4	3.2	3.4

Fundamentalist religious beliefs	N	63	4	2	7	76
	%	1.8	.9	.8	.9	1.5
I do not know	N	96	20	5	29	150
	%	2.8	4.5	2.0	3.8	3.1
I refuse to answer	N	80	4	3	16	103
	%	2.3	.9	1.2	2.1	2.1
Something else	N	1	0	0	0	1
	%	.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	.0
Total	N	3457	443	246	761	4907
	%	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Table 60.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
92.800	21	.000

The highest percentage of those who do not believe is found in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU (35%), followed by the diaspora (27.2%), while about 18.5% are in BiH and in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU.

We find free religious beliefs in 33.9% of respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and 32.2% of respondents from the diaspora, while this percentage is 29.9% in BiH and 26% in respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU.

Moderate religious beliefs are most present among respondents in BiH (41.1%), followed by 36.6% of respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and 32.5% of respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU. In the diaspora we find 30.6% of respondents with moderate religious beliefs.

Fundamentalist and conservative religious beliefs are most present in BiH (5.2%) and among respondents in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU (5.6%). In the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU, we find 3.2% of conservatives and fundamentalists and 4.1% in the diaspora.

Table 61. *Correlation of life satisfaction index and self-assessment of religiosity in all respondents*

	Self-assessment of religiosity
Life satisfaction index	.052**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

Correlation between satisfaction index and self-assessment of religiosity, in all respondents. is positive, very weak and statistically significant ($r = .052$; $p < .01$).

When we look at the correlations by regions, we find a statistically significant difference only among the respondents in BiH, which is positive and very weak ($r = .089$; $p < .01$).

Table 62. *Correlation of life satisfaction index and self-assessment of religiosity of respondents from different regions*

		Frequency of going to religious ceremonies
BiH	Life satisfaction index	.089**
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Life satisfaction index	.018
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Life satisfaction index	.093
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	.074

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

26.1 *Discussion of findings*

According to the Pew Research Center, Christianity predominates in the world (31.4%), followed by Muslims (23.2%), Hindus (15%), Buddhists (7%) and others. On the other hand, according to the 2013 census, 50.7% of Muslims, 30.75% of Orthodox, and 15.19% of Catholics lived in BiH. According to the 2011 census, 84.6% of Orthodox believers lived in Serbia, followed by Catholics with 5% and Muslims with 3%. In the same year as in Serbia, we had a census in Croatia where we find 86.2% Catholics, 4.4% Orthodox and 1.47% Muslims. All this tells us that in the world, as well as in our region, people who describe themselves as believers predominate.

Are they more satisfied with their lives than those who do not believe?

Research in the world is contradicting the findings, when it comes to the influence of faith on life satisfaction, and therefore it is difficult to draw a general conclusion. As early as 1969, Sanau determined that there was no reliable evidence that religiosity improved mental health. We will also add the analysis of Batson et al. (1993) who analyzed 47 studies on the relationship between religiosity and mental health and found a negative, but low, correlation in 37 of them. In 1980, Ellis found a connection between religiosity and emotional distress. On the other hand, there is research that indicates that religious behavior and beliefs positively affect people's mental health. Argly (2000) finds a positive link between intrinsic religiosity and the meaning of life. Ellison (1991) finds a high correlation between the frequency of going to church and happiness. Witter et al. (1985) conducted a meta-analysis of 56 studies on the topic of religiosity and happiness. They conclude that there is a connection between religiosity and various aspects of happiness.

As we see the results are contradictory but we can say that religiosity in itself is neither good nor bad for subjective life satisfaction and that the effects largely depend on the social and cultural context. A 2013 study by Gebauer, Nehrlich, Sedikides & Neberich shows that

in societies that are highly religious, low-income religious people have the highest level of subjective well-being, while in rich societies, where religiosity is low, rich people have the highest level of well-being, regardless of their religiosity.

Our research shows that respondents from BiH and the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU most often go to religious ceremonies, followed by respondents from the diaspora and countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU. When interpreting these results, we must keep in mind that it is the obligation of Muslims to go to the mosque as regularly as possible to pray, unlike Christians who most often visit their churches on Sundays. When we look at the overall sample, we find that respondents who go to religious ceremonies more often are more satisfied with their lives. If we have in mind the regions, only in BiH we find a positive, but low, connection between going to religious ceremonies and life satisfaction.

Most infidels, about one third, are found in non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia, while one quarter of respondents from the diaspora describe themselves in the same way. In accordance with the results of their religious behavior, most people who describe themselves as believers are found in BiH and in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU. We find a positive connection between life satisfaction and religiosity in the sample of all respondents and among the inhabitants of BiH.

27. Relationship between the life satisfaction index and some socio-demographic variables

Within this chapter, we will see how satisfied the respondents are with their lives, considering their age, education, the size of the place where they live and their gender.

Table 63. *Correlation of life satisfaction index and age in all respondents*

	Age
Life satisfaction index	-.138**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

The correlation between the life satisfaction index and age was negative, low and statistically significant in all respondents ($r = -.138$; $p < .01$).

When we look at the correlations by regions, we find a statistically significant difference in all categories and they are negative and low, BiH ($r = -.138$; $p < .01$), the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU ($r = -.121$; $p < .05$), countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU ($r = -.239$; $p < .01$) and diaspora ($r = -.126$; $p < .01$).

Table 64. *Correlation of life satisfaction index and age of respondents from different regions*

		Age
BiH	Life satisfaction index	-.138**
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Life satisfaction index	-.121*
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Life satisfaction index	-.239**
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	-.126**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

Table 65. *Correlation of life satisfaction and education index in all respondents*

	Education
Life satisfaction index	.098**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

The correlation between the life satisfaction index and education, in all respondents, is positive, low and statistically significant ($r = .098$; $p < .01$).

When we look at the correlations by regions, we find a statistically significant difference in BiH ($r = .148$; $p < .01$), in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU ($r = .112$; $p < .01$) and the diaspora ($r = .133$; $p < .01$).

Table 66. Correlation of life satisfaction index and education of respondents from different regions

		Education
BiH	Life satisfaction index	.148**
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Life satisfaction index	.112**
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Life satisfaction index	-.020
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	.133**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

Tabela 67. Korelacija indeksa zadovoljstva životom i veličina mjesta u kojem žive kod svih ispitanika

	The size of the place where they live
Life satisfaction index	.078**

** correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

The correlation between the life satisfaction index and the size of the place where they live, in the sample of all respondents, is positive, low and statistically significant ($r = .078$; $p < .01$).

When we look at the correlations by regions, we do not find statistically significant differences (Table 66).

Table 68. *Correlation of the life satisfaction index and the size of the place where they live from different regions*

		The size of the place where they live
BiH	Life satisfaction index	.026
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Life satisfaction index	.065
Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU	Life satisfaction index	.079
Diaspora	Life satisfaction index	.024

** Correlations significant at the level $p < .01$

* Correlations significant at the level $p < .05$

Table 69. *Life satisfaction index of all respondents with regard to gender*

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
Men	1836	5.8504	2.44368	.05703	2.941	4421.000	0.003
Women	2587	5.6358	2.35456	.04629			

As we can see in Table 67, men (5.85) say that they are more satisfied with life than women (5.63). The difference between these two categories of respondents is statistically significant ($p = 0.003$), but caution should be exercised here because the sample of respondents is very large and this may be the cause of the differences.

Table 70. *Index of life satisfaction among respondents from BiH with regard to gender*

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
Men	1332	5.5004	2.35373	.06449	3.101	3104	.002
Women	1774	5.2396	2.29445	.05448			

In BiH, men (5.50) are more satisfied with life than women (5.20) and this difference is statistically significant ($p = 0.002$), but this result should be taken with a grain of salt due to the sample size.

Table 71. Life satisfaction index of respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU with regard to gender

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
Men	56	6.5446	2.37917	.31793	.423	395	.672
Women	341	6.4142	2.09516	.11346			

There is no statistically significant difference ($p = 0.672$) between men and women living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia, who are now in the EU, when it comes to the life satisfaction index.

Table 72. Life satisfaction index of respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are not in the EU with regard to gender

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
Men	88	5.5568	2.20264	.23480	.301	217	.764
Women	131	5.4647	2.23721	.19547			

There is no statistically significant difference in the countries of the former Yugoslavia, which are not in the EU ($p = 0.764$). when it comes to the life satisfaction index.

Table 73. Index of life satisfaction among respondents from the diaspora with regard to gender

	N	M	SD	SE	t	df	p
Men	348	7.1483	2.38952	.12809	.713	681	.476
Women	335	7.0216	2.24605	.12271			

In respondents from the diaspora, we did not find a statistically significant difference in the life satisfaction index, with respect to gender ($p = 0.476$).

27.1 Discussion of findings

The obtained results show that the life satisfaction index decreases with age. This connection is valid not only on the sample of all respondents, but also for each region separately. It is interesting that this connection is especially pronounced among the respondents living in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU.

Our results do not agree with the projections of the theory of a stable level of subjective well-being, but also with the findings that speak of the U-distribution of subjective well-being. The first theory is based on the fact that subjective well-being is stable during the life cycle and depends on the personality traits of the individual who have a Venetian predisposition, and not on external factors. Research by Costa et al. (1987) and Myers (2000) support this theory. On the other hand, there is research that says that our life satisfaction changes with age and can be described in a curve. They show that subjective well-being is high in youth and declines into middle adulthood, only to then begin to grow again as we get older. According to this view, we are least satisfied with our lives between the ages of 30 and 50, but that age limit varies from society to society, for example, in Serbia people are the least satisfied with life around 49, in Switzerland around 35 and in France around 62. Research (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2008; Di Tella, MacCulloch & Oswald, 2003) supports this view of subjective well-being. However, some research shows that U-distribution is found only in countries with high GDP (Deaton, 2008), while in other countries subjective well-being decreases with age, just as in our study. Such results were obtained by Jovanović et al. in Serbia.

When it comes to the connection between education and life satisfaction, we find a low and positive correlation among all respon-

dents in BiH, the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU, and the diaspora. The obtained results are in accordance with the findings of other researches. They can be explained in several ways, first of all education can be seen as an increase in ability, and thus an increase in individual productivity (Schultz, 1960; Becker, 1964), which results in an increase in income and thus an increase in personal satisfaction. Also, a higher level of education reduces the possibility of losing a job, but also easier finding in case it happens, which certainly has an impact on a person's perception of life. There are also occupations that increase reputation in society and hold some other privileges in addition to monetary gain, which leads to satisfying the psychological need for belonging and recognition.

Life satisfaction is higher if the respondent lives in a larger city. This correlation is very weak but significant, and applies only to the sample of all respondents, but not to the separate regions. Similar results have been found in researchers abroad (Appleton & Song, 2008; Rehman & Maddison, 2005; Rodríguez-Pose & Maslauskaitė, 2012), although there are studies that show quite opposite results. However, we must be careful in interpreting these results because within certain regions we do not find a connection between life satisfaction and the size of the settlement. We must also keep in mind that life in villages in BiH and Macedonia is not the same as life in villages in Austria or Germany, just as life in cities with up to 200,000 inhabitants is drastically different from cities with a million or more inhabitants.

Differences in life satisfaction with regard to gender are found in the entire sample and the BiH sample, and we see that men are more satisfied with their lives than women. We must take this result with a grain of salt because the samples are large and perhaps this is the main reason for the presence of these differences. Our results are somewhat different from the results obtained in the world, which themselves are not consistent. Some research shows that men are slightly more satisfied than women (Haring, Stock & Okun, 1984), and somewhere women are more satisfied than men (Wood, Rhodes & Whelan, 1989). Of course, there are also studies where the male re-

spondents did not differ from the female respondents in the degree of life satisfaction (Michalos, 1987). The question is why is this actually the case? First of all, we must keep in mind that the position of men and women differs between different societies as well as within one society. Researchers have realized that there are many factors: social, cultural, economic, which must be taken into account when interpreting the results. In countries where inequality between men and women is higher, men are more satisfied with life (Tesch-Romer, Motel-Klingebiel & Tomasik, 2008). In societies that are extremely poor, women are less satisfied with life compared to men (Graham & Chattopadhyay, 2013). It is also interesting to note that the subjective well-being of people in the United States is declining compared to the last decades, and that this decline is significantly greater among women than among men. On the other hand, the growth of life satisfaction of EU residents is growing, but this growth is significantly higher among men than among women (Jovanović, 2016).

30. Predicting life satisfaction

Using regression analysis we will try to answer the question of how a set of variables called predictors, can explain the variation of a criterion variable. In this study, the criterion variable was determined as the average score of the life satisfaction index. In our case, the usual method of standard multiple regression analysis was performed.

Table 72.1. shows that regression analysis, for a sample of all respondents, is statistically significant ($F= 2.020$; $df_1= 39$. $df_2= 225$; $p=.001$) and all three predictors of „job satisfaction”, „total monthly income of all members of your family” and „Sedatives” explains 26% of the variance of the „Life Satisfaction Index” variable. The more satisfied respondents are with their job and the higher their total monthly income, the more satisfied they are with their lives. Also, the more sedatives respondents use, the lower their life satisfaction index.

Table 74. Predictor variable and part of the variance of the variable „life satisfaction index“, in the sample of all respondents, which is explained by it.

Model	R	R ²	ARS	SEE
1	.509	.259	.131	2.23118

Table 74.1 ANOVA

Model		SS	df	MS	F	p
1	Regression	392.134	39	10.055	2.020	.001
	Residual	1120.086	225	4.978		
	Total	1512.220	264			

Table 74.2 Regression coefficients of predictor variables for the criterion variable „life satisfaction index“

Model	Non-standardized coefficient		Standardized coefficient	t	p
	B	SE	Beta		
(Constant)	4.437	1.946		2.281	.024
Gender	-.031	.341	-.006	-.092	.927
Age	-.027	.017	-.113	-1.616	.107
Education	.068	.118	.036	.575	.566
The size of the settlement in which they live	.045	.054	.053	.830	.408
Number of working hours per week	-.182	.199	-.057	-.915	.361
Regular salary	-.034	.079	-.027	-.437	.662
Household size	.000	.115	.000	.001	.999
Job satisfaction	.561	.107	.313	5.234	.000
Social activism	.977	1.168	.055	.836	.404
Hanging out with friends	-.129	.193	-.048	-.668	.505
Socializing with relatives	.034	.168	.014	.204	.838
Trips to nature	-.027	.179	-.010	-.150	.881
Watching TV	.060	.134	.029	.450	.653
Hanging out with family	-.113	.193	-.038	-.587	.558

Playing sports	-.076	.134	-.039	-.567	.571
Entertainment (going out, parties)	-.017	.202	-.006	-.083	.934
Traveling	-.033	.240	-.010	-.137	.891
Reading	.046	.136	.023	.341	.733
Pursuing a hobby	-.009	.119	-.005	-.079	.937
Learning foreign languages	.013	.110	.008	.120	.905
Listening to music	.013	.140	.006	.093	.926
Going to the movies	-.049	.223	-.018	-.219	.827
Going to the theater	.166	.235	.061	.708	.480
Internet	.003	.220	.001	.013	.990
Attending sports competitions	.001	.158	.001	.008	.994
Resting at home	-.061	.190	-.020	-.323	.747
Political and social activity	.082	.134	.040	.615	.539
Religious contents	-.133	.129	-.072	-1.030	.304
Going to museums	.016	.210	.005	.074	.941
Total monthly income of all family members	.000	.000	.185	2.855	.005
Sending help to family / relatives	.000	.001	-.004	-.061	.951
Beer	-.074	.166	-.034	-.444	.658
Wine	.187	.192	.073	.972	.332
Spirits	.108	.212	.037	.511	.610
Energy drinks	-.046	.193	-.016	-.238	.812
Sodas	.095	.142	.044	.670	.503
Sedatives	-.357	.157	-.139	-2.270	.024
Cigarettes	-.013	.080	-.010	-.163	.871
Marijuana	-.033	.208	-.010	-.160	.873

The variable „life satisfaction index” can best be predicted using the variable „job satisfaction” which can best be seen based on the Beta coefficient of .313, the variable „total monthly income of the whole family” where Beta is .185, followed by „sedatives”, in which the Beta coefficient is negative and amounts to -.139.

31. Final considerations

Life satisfaction is a cognitive component of subjective well-being and is most often defined as a person's subjective evaluation of how good his/her life is in relation to his/her own standards and criteria that he/she considers important (Pavot & Diener, 1993). In our research, we use the objective or rather economic parameters of a society to see their connection with life satisfaction, while we consciously neglect the affective aspects of human well-being, with the desire to deal with them in the future.

The obtained results show that the inhabitants of the diaspora are the most satisfied with their lives, followed by the respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU, while the respondents from Serbia, Montenegro, Macedonia and Bosnia and Herzegovina are the least satisfied. It is interesting to note that the general satisfaction with life is higher in relation to its individual aspects.

Of course, each category of respondents has its own specifics; residents from the diaspora are the least satisfied with their health and how they are accepted in the local community, and are most satisfied with their safety and perspective in the future. Here we can talk about two categories of respondents; those who previously went abroad from the countries of the former Yugoslavia and are now retired, and those who have recently left this area. It is to be expected that respondents who have previously gone abroad, or have been exiled from these areas, are now plagued by health problems, while those who have recently left have a problem with non-acceptance by the local population.

Respondents currently living in Slovenia and Croatia are least satisfied with their standard, community affiliation and sense of security in the future, and are most satisfied with their health services and relationships with other people. It seems that with these respondents we have a mixture of problems from the diaspora (feeling of not belonging to the community) and countries that are not in the EU (poor living standards and uncertain security in the future).

Among the respondents from Serbia, Montenegro, Macedonia and Bosnia and Herzegovina, we find the least satisfaction with their safety in the future, belonging to the local community, sense of security and standard of living. They are most satisfied with their health services and relationship with people. We can say that these data are quite expected if we have in mind the political and economic situation in the region and many open issues that burden these countries internally and externally, but it is difficult to explain why respondents are dissatisfied with belonging to the local community. It would be interesting to see how they understood this issue?

When we talk about the mutual differences of respondents in life satisfaction in four categories, the biggest differences are between respondents from the diaspora and countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU.

But why is that so?

There are many factors that affect individual life satisfaction, but our research shows that the best predictor is the variable „job satisfaction” for the overall sample. The more satisfied respondents are with their job, the greater their life satisfaction and these results are in line with the results of research abroad (Chaco, 1983; Panos & Theodossior, 2007). When we look at the correlations between job satisfaction and life satisfaction, we see that they are positive, but it is interesting that this relationship is highest among BiH residents and lowest among respondents living in Serbia, Macedonia and Montenegro, although their economic indicators are very similar. However, we must keep in mind that respondents, no matter where they live, do not differ from each other in the degree of satisfaction with the job they do.

As we explained in the previous chapter, the respondents did not differ from each other in the degree of job satisfaction, but when we look at some factors related to the work process, we see that the differences do exist. Employees from the countries of the former Yugoslavia, regardless of whether they are in the EU or not, work more than 40 hours a week, compared to employees from the diaspora. At

the same time, salaries are more regular for respondents from the diaspora and those in the EU, than in BiH, Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia. The results show that the more time respondents spend at work, the less happy they are. This connection is weak, but significant at the level of the entire sample, but also among the inhabitants of BiH, Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia. Unpaid overtime is probably one of the causes of this negative correlation. The connection between regular income and job satisfaction is quite expected, but this connection is important for the sample of all respondents and for respondents from the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU.

Among the respondents from the diaspora, we find the largest percentage of those who are currently doing jobs for which they are not qualified, but at the same time, the largest percentage of those who expect to advance in the job in the next two years. As we see, people living outside the countries of the former Yugoslavia are more willing to do jobs that are below their educational qualifications for a while, confident that they will progress in the job over time. It seems that their motive for leaving these areas is not only economic, but the desire to leave these areas at any cost, for the sake of a decent life in the future.

In the sample of all respondents, „total monthly income” proved to be a good predictor of life satisfaction, and the higher the income, the higher the life satisfaction. This connection was also confirmed through correlations that are positive and significant, except for respondents from the diaspora. It seems that respondents from the diaspora have reached an income that can meet basic living needs and money is no longer so important for their personal happiness, while in the countries of the former Yugoslavia this is not the case.

When it comes to the monthly expenses that respondents have and their association with life satisfaction we can say that we got quite expected results. The higher the costs, rent, education, treatment and loans, the less life satisfaction. Money spent on entertainment or savings increases life satisfaction. Of course, there are also regional differences and they are most present among the inhabitants of BiH. When it comes to rent, the results show that respondents from the

diaspora spend the most money on it, which is approximately a quarter of the total monthly income. We can say that these results are quite expected because the people who emigrate from our area are usually tenants. Residents of BiH spend the most on transportation, and these expenditures are about ten percent of the monthly budget, while respondents from the diaspora spend the least on this service. About a third of the budget is spent on food in the countries of the former Yugoslavia, which are not in the EU and BiH, and a quarter of the budget is spent by respondents from the diaspora. This raises the question of whether the inhabitants of the countries of the former Yugoslavia, which are not in the EU, buy more food or the food is more expensive, and therefore spend more money than respondents from countries in the EU. Allocations from the family budget for education are highest in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU and BiH, and somewhat less in the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and the diaspora. There is an interesting correlation between life satisfaction and education, which is negative among BiH residents and the diaspora, and positive among respondents from Croatia, Slovenia, Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia. It seems that our education is not so free, as it is pointed out among our politicians. When it comes to health services, health services are almost equally allocated, between 6% and 7%, regardless of which region the respondents come from. BiH residents set aside a fifth of their monthly budget for loans, while the amount in the diaspora is slightly more than 13%. As we can see, the inhabitants of BiH are most burdened with loans, but we must keep in mind that these are most often consumer loans. Although they have low salaries and high unemployment rate, respondents from non-EU countries of the former Yugoslavia spend the most on entertainment per month, followed by residents of BiH, countries of former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and the diaspora. Among the respondents, the biggest savers are respondents from the diaspora who manage to save a little less than a fifth of their monthly income, followed by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU, countries from former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and BiH.

Out of the total number of respondents, about half of them help their family and relatives financially. Respondents from the diaspora are in the lead, followed by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU, followed by residents of BiH and those from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU. The more money respondents send, the happier they are, but this connection is significant for the overall sample and among respondents from Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia, this correlation is negative. We can say that these results are only somewhat consistent with research in the world (Dunn, Akin & Norton, 2008) which shows that spending money on other people makes them happy. It seems that financial assistance to family and relatives makes people happy only in a situation when those who help do not have financial problems.

It seems that our societies are not as traditional as we think, because in traditional societies marriage is highly valued and thus makes people happy, while in liberal societies marriage does not greatly affect the happiness of the individual (Vanassche, Swicegood, Matthijs, 2013). Our research has shown that marriage does not make people happy.

First of all, we must emphasize that the average family, regardless of which region it comes from, has about 3 members. When it comes to the relationship between family size and life satisfaction index, we find a statistically significant, very low and positive correlation between the total number of family members and the life satisfaction index, in a sample of all respondents and residents of BiH.

The results obtained in the world clearly show that children no longer make people happy (Stanc, 2012; Hansen, 2012; Clark & Georgellis, 2013), which was also confirmed by our research. This can be explained in two ways; with children comes worry, stress, fatigue, lack of sleep, economic problems, career breakdowns, and parents are often forced to accept some life roles that they did not want and that do not make them happy.

When it comes to the affiliation of citizens to certain organizations, we can say that the respondents from the region do not differ significantly from each other. We did not find a significant correla-

tion between the life satisfaction index and membership in organizations. When we look at some research in the world we see that our findings deviate from them (Elgar et al., 2011; Rodriguez- Pose & von Berlepsch, 2014).

The results we obtained show us that respondents, no matter where they live, spend their leisure time very similarly: using the internet, hanging out with family, relaxing at home, listening to music and watching TV. The Internet is mostly used by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU, while they, together with respondents from BiH, mostly watch television. Music is mostly listened to by respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU, and least by respondents from BiH. Respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU read the most. Respondents living in one of the countries of the former Yugoslavia spend more time with friends than those who live and diaspora. Sports activities are mostly practiced by respondents from the diaspora.

In BiH, life satisfaction grows with socializing with friends, relatives and family, but also when playing sports, going out and practicing religion, while watching television reduces that satisfaction. Among respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who are in the EU, the index of life satisfaction increases with an increase in socializing with friends, going for trips to nature, watching TV and playing sports, and decreases with an increase in political and social activities. Among the respondents from the countries of the former Yugoslavia who do not live in the EU, we find a positive connection between spending time with family and life satisfaction, while watching TV and using the Internet has a negative effect on it. The more diaspora respondents watch TV, travel, go to the cinema and museums, the lower their life satisfaction.

Based on everything presented, we can say that hanging out with friends, relatives and family, together with practicing sports and some hobbies, makes our people happy. These results are in line with the findings of Rodriguez-Pose & von Berlepsch (2014) social distance re-

search which finds that spending time with family and friends makes people happy.

In the prediction of life satisfaction, the variable „sedatives” proved to be good; the more respondents use them, the less satisfied they are with life. In BiH alone, in 2017, 1,117,840 packages of some type of antidepressant were purchased and around 9 million BAM were spent. The situation is no better in Serbia and Croatia either. When we look at the correlations between the life satisfaction index and the consumption of harmful substances, in all respondents, we see that with the increase in consumption of wine, spirits and sodas, the life satisfaction index increases, while that satisfaction decreases with higher consumption of sedatives and cigarettes. It seems that moderate consumption of wine, spirits and sodas, makes our people happy and that is the main role of these substances. We must not forget the tradition here, i.e. how intoxication is viewed in our society, thus these results are not surprising. The problem arises when we lose control and become addicted, as shown by research in our country and in the world (Smith & Larson, 2003; Pasareanu, Vederhus, Opsal, Kristensen & Clausen, 2015; Vienna, 2013).

When it comes to satisfaction with certain aspects of society in which respondents live, we find huge differences. 70.3% of respondents from the diaspora are satisfied with the political situation, while this percentage is drastically lower in other categories of respondents. Every tenth respondent from Slovenia and Croatia is satisfied with the political situation in their country, while that percentage in Serbia, Montenegro, and Macedonia is 3.7%. In BiH, 0.7% of respondents are satisfied with the current political situation. The picture is somewhat better when it comes to satisfaction with the health care system, but it is far from satisfactory. The satisfaction with the health care system is found in respondents from the diaspora (84.1%), while this percentage is significantly lower in other categories of respondents. Every fifth respondent from Slovenia and Croatia is satisfied with the health care system in their country and 6.1% of those from non-EU countries. In BiH, 3.7% of respondents are satisfied with how the health care system in the country works today. Two-thirds of the di-

aspora respondents are most satisfied with the education system. In BiH, one-fifth of respondents are satisfied with education, while this percentage is 13.3% among respondents from Slovenia and Croatia and 2.7% among non-EU countries.

It is quite clear that the inhabitants of the countries of the former Yugoslavia are not satisfied with the society in which they live. They are dissatisfied with the political situation, health care systems, and education, and previous research shows that they are dissatisfied with the work of institutions (Turjačanin, Dušanić, Lakić, 2017; Šalaj, Grebenar, Puhalo, 2019). If we have in mind economic factors, it is quite clear that all this to some extent affects the life dissatisfaction of respondents. It is also in line with research in other countries (Habibov & Afandi, 2015) that, as the trust in the institutions of the system declines, so does the life satisfaction. What is worrying about us is that there is no desire of the authorities to restore that trust among the citizens.

Dissatisfaction with the social situation does not only affect personal dissatisfaction, but can also be one of the triggers for leaving the country. This thesis is supported by the fact that 42.7% of BiH residents, 38.3% of respondents from Serbia, Montenegro, Macedonia and 24.0% of respondents from Slovenia and Croatia are thinking about leaving the city in which they currently live. The smallest percentage of respondents who are considering changing the city in which they currently reside is found in the diaspora (16.5%).

Half of the population of BiH, Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia are considering leaving the country. Every fifth respondent from the countries of the former Yugoslavia living in the EU is considering leaving the country, as is every tenth resident of the diaspora. The less satisfied the respondents are with life, the more they think about leaving the country in which they live.

When it comes to religiosity and life satisfaction, research in the world yields conflicting results. A 2013 study by Gebauer, Nehrlich, Sedikides & Neberich shows that in societies that are highly religious, low-income religious people have the highest level of subjective well-being, while in rich societies, where religiosity is low, rich people

have the highest level of well-being, regardless of their religiosity. Our research shows that respondents from BiH, Croatia and Slovenia most often go to religious ceremonies, followed by respondents from the diaspora and countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU. When interpreting these results, we must keep in mind that our question was „how often do you go to religious ceremonies?“, since Muslim believers have the obligation to worship daily in mosques if they can, unlike Christians who most often visit their churches on Sundays. But if we look at how believers describe themselves then we see results similar to religious behavior. Most people who describe themselves as believers are found in BiH, Croatia and Slovenia. If we analyze the correlations, we see that the respondents who go to religious ceremonies more often and who describe themselves as greater believers are more satisfied with their lives, but only on the sample of all respondents and residents of BiH.

The obtained results show that the life satisfaction index decreases with age. This connection is valid not only on the sample of all respondents, but also for each region separately. It is interesting that this connection is especially pronounced among respondents living in BiH, Serbia, Montenegro and Macedonia. Our findings do not support findings that support the theory of a stable level of subjective well-being (Costa et al, 1987; Myers, 2000), nor with findings that suggest a U-distribution of subjective well-being (Blanchflower & Oswald, 2008; Di Tella, MacCulloch & Oswald, 2003). Results similar to ours were obtained by Jovanović et al. (2016) in Serbia.

When it comes to the connection between education and life satisfaction, we find a low and positive correlation among all respondents, but also in BiH, the countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU and the diaspora. These results are in line with the findings obtained in other studies (Schultz, 1960; Becker, 1964) and we must take into account that in addition to the more money the educated individuals earn, they also enjoy greater opportunities to satisfy their desires, they often enjoy greater reputation, status and power in society, which certainly has a positive effect on their perception of life satisfaction.

Life satisfaction is higher if the respondent lives in a larger city. This correlation is very weak but significant, and applies only to the sample of all respondents, but not to the regions. Bearing in mind that research in the world gives contradictory results, it would be interesting to continue researching the reasons why this is so, i.e. what are the factors that make the urban population feel happier than the inhabitants of smaller towns and villages.

We find differences in life satisfaction with regard to gender in the entire sample and in BiH, and here we see that men are more satisfied with their lives than women. We must take this result with caution because of the sample size. Our findings differ somewhat from the results obtained in the world, which themselves are not consistent and in some we find that men are slightly more satisfied than women (Haring, Stock & Okun, 1984), and somewhere women are more satisfied than men (Wood, Rhodes & Whelan, 1989). Of course, there are also studies where male respondents did not differ from female respondents in the degree of life satisfaction (Michalos, 1987). It is difficult to explain why in our research men are more satisfied with their lives than women are, but we must keep in mind the influence of economic, social, political and social factors on our society.

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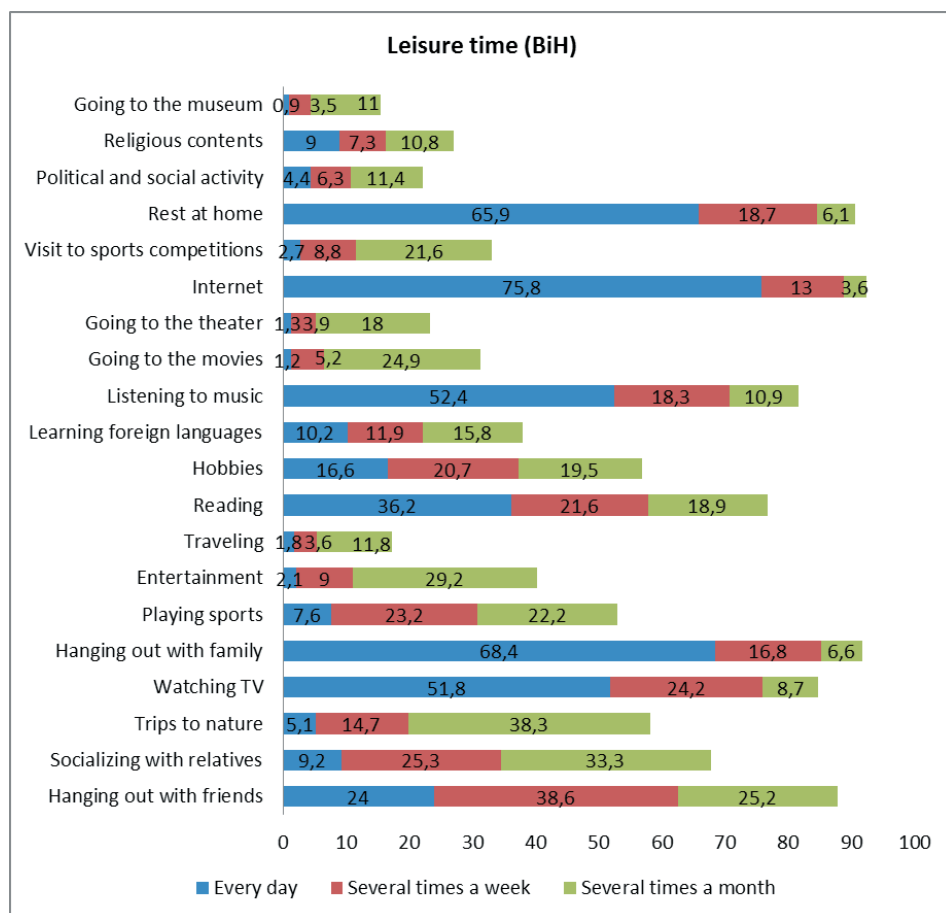
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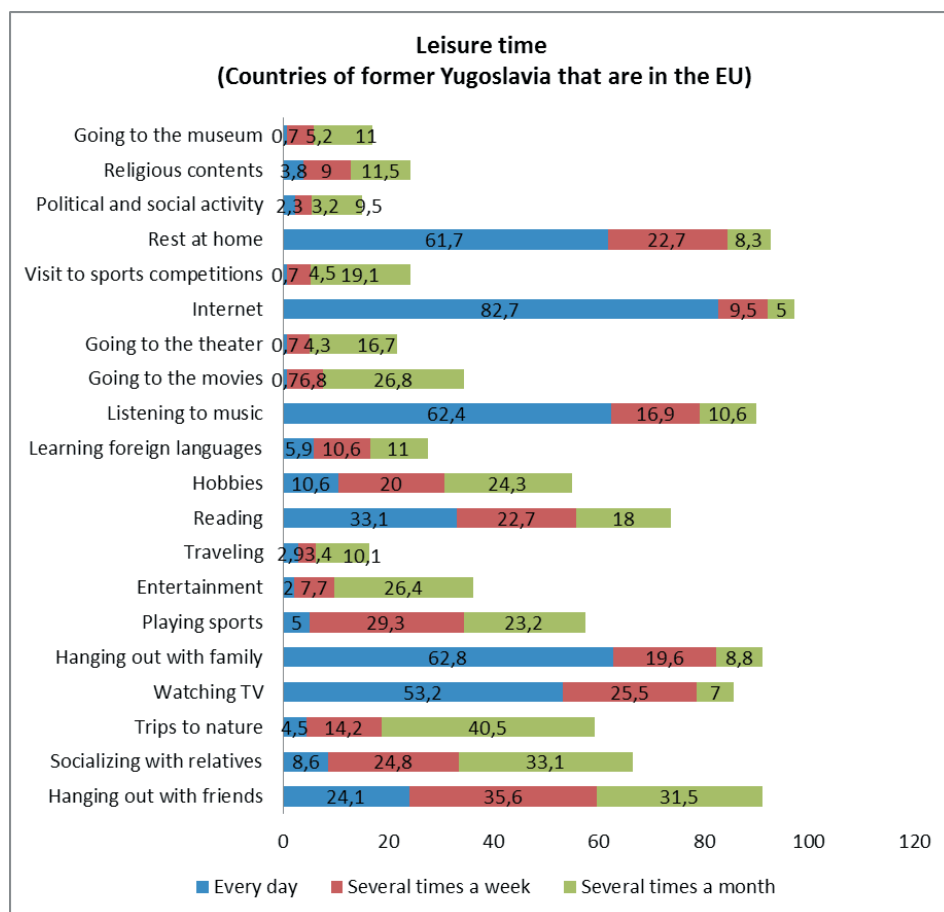
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Appendix 1

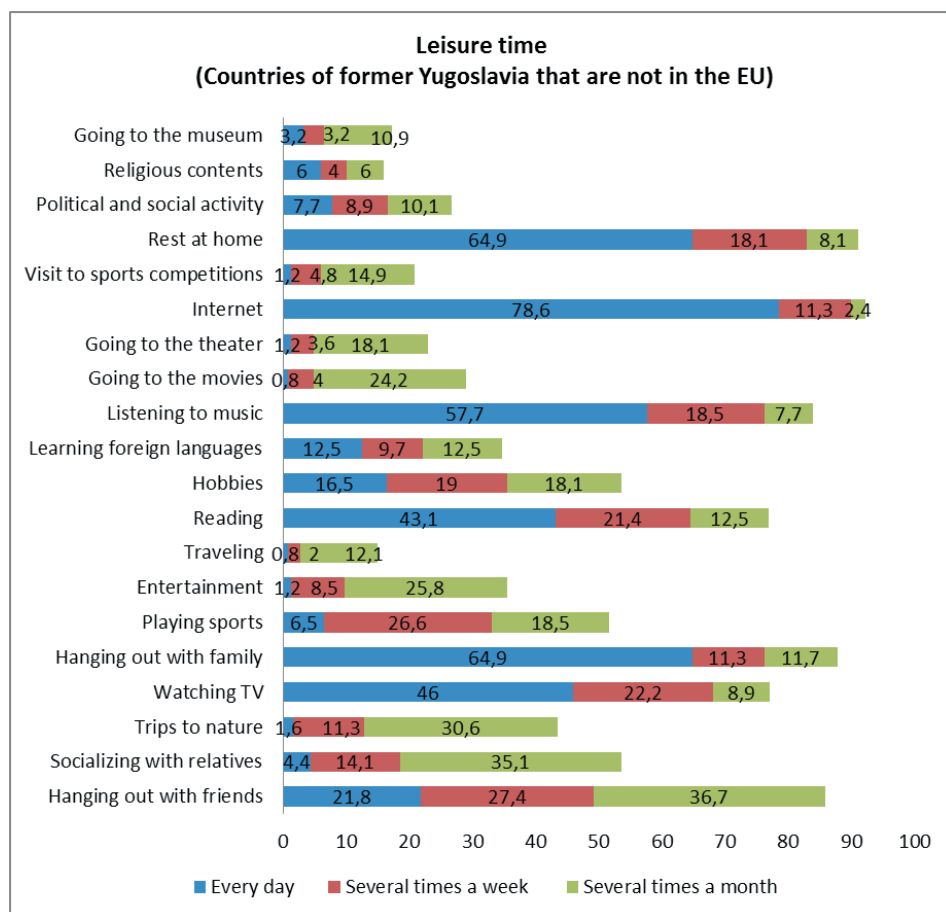
Way of spending leisure time by regions



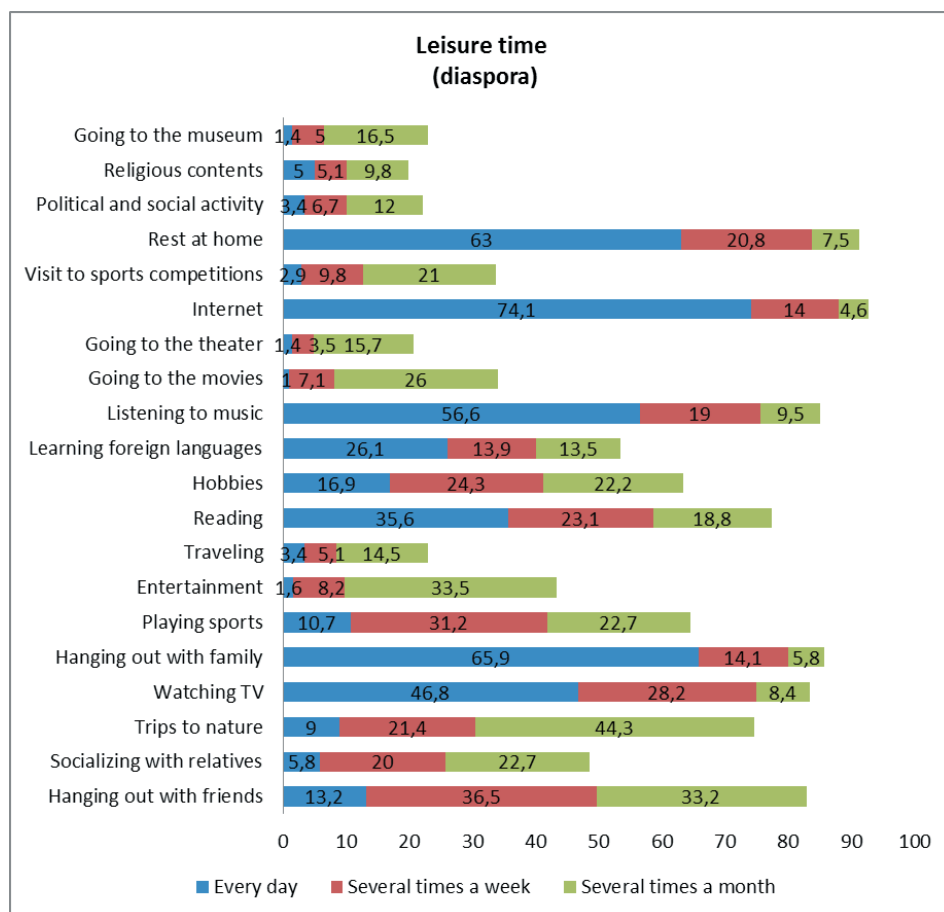
Graph 2.



Graph 3.



Graph 4.



Graph 5.

Appendix 2

Consumption of harmful substances by region

table 75. Beer

		Country category			Diaspora	Total
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU		
I never use it	N	1507	147	97	296	2047
	%	45,0	34,1	40,1	40,0	43,0
Several times a year	N	803	144	54	167	1168
	%	24,0	33,4	22,3	22,6	24,5
Several times a month	N	662	101	59	170	992
	%	19,8	23,4	24,4	23,0	20,8
Several times a week	N	310	31	28	88	457
	%	9,3	7,2	11,6	11,9	9,6
Every day	N	69	8	4	19	100
	%	2,1	1,9	1,7	2,6	2,1
Total	N	3351	431	242	740	4764
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 75.1 Chi-Square Tests

V	df	p
44,513	12	,000

Table 76. *Wine*

		Country category			Diaspora	Total
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU		
I never use it	N	1431	90	76	262	1859
	%	43,0	21,1	31,4	35,2	39,2
Several times a year	N	1171	169	93	259	1692
	%	35,2	39,6	38,4	34,8	35,7
Several times a month	N	555	122	53	153	883
	%	16,7	28,6	21,9	20,6	18,6
Several times a week	N	147	36	20	64	267
	%	4,4	8,4	8,3	8,6	5,6
Every day	N	23	10	0	6	39
	%	0,7	2,3	0,0	0,8	0,8
Total	N	3327	427	242	744	4740
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 76.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
133,803	12	,000

Table 77. *Spirits*

		Country category			Diaspora	Total
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU		
I never use it	N	1989	131	108	369	2597
	%	59,9	30,8	45,0	49,9	54,9

Several times a year	N	932	204	89	253	1478
	%	28,1	47,9	37,1	34,2	31,3
Several times a month	N	300	84	35	91	510
	%	9,0	19,7	14,6	12,3	10,8
Several times a week	N	80	6	6	19	111
	%	2,4	1,4	2,5	2,6	2,3
Every day	N	21	1	2	8	32
	%	0,6	0,2	0,8	1,1	0,7
Total	N	3322	426	240	740	4728
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 77.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
171,913	12	,000

Table 78. *Energy drinks*

		Country category			Diaspora	Total
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU		
I never use it	N	2288	337	192	479	3296
	%	69,4	78,6	80,3	64,6	70,0
Several times a year	N	674	66	30	129	899
	%	20,4	15,4	12,6	17,4	19,1
Several times a month	N	223	16	11	84	334
	%	6,8	3,7	4,6	11,3	7,1
Several times a week	N	84	8	2	29	123
	%	2,5	1,9	0,8	3,9	2,6

Every day	N	29	2	4	21	56
	%	0,9	0,5	1,7	2,8	1,2
Total	N	3298	429	239	742	4708
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 78.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
82,730	12	,000

Table 79. *Sodas*

		Country category			Diaspora	Total
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU		
I never use it	N	695	93	61	170	1019
	%	20,9	21,6	25,3	22,8	21,5
Several times a year	N	982	132	62	192	1368
	%	29,5	30,6	25,7	25,8	28,8
Several times a month	N	1079	159	69	231	1538
	%	32,4	36,9	28,6	31,0	32,4
Several times a week	N	424	37	33	102	596
	%	12,7	8,6	13,7	13,7	12,6
Every day	N	147	10	16	50	223
	%	4,4	2,3	6,6	6,7	4,7
Total	N	3327	431	241	745	4744
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 79.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
31,851	12	,001

Table 80. Sedatives

		Country category			Diaspora	Total
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU		
I never use it	N	2218	325	159	624	3326
	%	67,0	75,8	66,0	84,6	70,5
Several times a year	N	638	64	35	71	808
	%	19,3	14,9	14,5	9,6	17,1
Several times a month	N	268	21	25	27	341
	%	8,1	4,9	10,4	3,7	7,2
Several times a week	N	96	6	7	7	116
	%	2,9	1,4	2,9	0,9	2,5
Every day	N	90	13	15	9	127
	%	2,7	3,0	6,2	1,2	2,7
Total	N	3310	429	241	738	4718
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 80.1 Chi-Square Tests

V	df	p
116,079	12	,000

Table 81. Cigarettes

		Country category			Diaspora	Total
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU		
I never use it	N	1877	238	130	451	2696
	%	56,2	55,1	53,9	60,9	56,7

Several times a year	N	96	21	4	29	150
	%	2,9	4,9	1,7	3,9	3,2
Several times a month	N	193	30	14	42	279
	%	5,8	6,9	5,8	5,7	5,9
Several times a week	N	119	15	4	23	161
	%	3,6	3,5	1,7	3,1	3,4
Every day	N	1055	128	89	195	1467
	%	31,6	29,6	36,9	26,4	30,9
Total	N	3340	432	241	740	4753
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 81.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
23,001	12	,028

Table 82. *Marijuana*

		Country category			Diaspora	Total
		BiH	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are in the EU	Countries of the former Yugoslavia that are not in the EU		
I never use it	N	2848	384	210	628	4070
	%	86,3	90,6	87,5	85,8	86,6
Several times a year	N	257	31	17	71	376
	%	7,8	7,3	7,1	9,7	8,0
Several times a month	N	95	4	6	13	118
	%	2,9	0,9	2,5	1,8	2,5
Several times a week	N	40	1	4	9	54
	%	1,2	0,2	1,7	1,2	1,1

Every day	N	62	4	3	11	80
	%	1,9	0,9	1,3	1,5	1,7
Total	N	3302	424	240	732	4698
	%	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0	100,0

Table 82.1 *Chi-Square Tests*

V	df	p
17,995	12	,116

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