

Agota Giedre Raisiene, Povilas Aleksandravicius, Vida Gudzinskiene, Romas Prakapas, Agne Jurciukonyte, Agne Tvaronaviciene, Arturas Balkevicius, Asta Visockaite, Audra Visockaite, Gediminas Macys, Gediminas Navaitis, Gintaras Labutis, Gintaute Zibeniene, Ingrida Macernyte-Panomarioviene, Janina Cizikiene, Jolanta Bieliauskaite, Jolita Dudaite, Justinas Sadauskas, Kristine Martinsone, Laura Andrijauskaite, Leta Dromantiene, Neringa Kurapkaitiene, Odeta Merfeldaite, Ramunas Vanagas, Rima Urbonaite, Rimvydas Augutavicius, Valdone Indrasiene, Zivile Barkauskaite Luksiene

OUTLINES OF SOCIAL INNOVATIONS IN LITHUANIA

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Preface

The challenges of social life today differ significantly from earlier times. Previous objectives were overcome by increasing the industrial capabilities. Current ones associate with increasing the possibilities of interaction and participation of the stakeholders from various social groups. Nowadays, societies express the request to strengthen harmony and sustainability regarding different social and personal life issues. The representatives of business, public administration and science are looking for new ways of improving the societal environment with means of new technologies, products, and newly adjusted organizational processes. Social responsibility, social inclusion, and inter-sectorial and multi-organizational collaboration are things that matter today very much.

The Nordic Council of Ministers emphasizes that the nowadays' innovations often create a whole value chain. Moreover, the innovations that are created and implemented by organizations and only bring benefits to themselves are too expensive when it is evaluated through the prism of competition. In a new age society, it is more rational to improve organizations performance by using strategies like adopting and adapting the colleagues' and competitors' experience to the current situation, and by invoking a development of business networks, inter-organizational partnerships and organization internal collaboration. In other words, the nowadays' challenges motivate searching for innovations.

In general, innovations are processes whereby social, public policy and economic needs are answered by new ideas, new products, services, and new business models are created. Despite of any innovations being a commendable practice, social innovations are especially relevant to the society. The global economic crisis revealed that social challenges such as demographical changes, unemployment, poverty, emigration and others are coped with in a far more complicated way than thought. Social innovations in particular are related to new solutions of social problems that affect the process of social interaction. Social innovations help to satisfy the social needs. Furthermore, social innovations include decisions that allow changing a settled behaviour, when it is necessary for solving new social challenges, e.g. healthcare, aging, social exclusion, resource consumption and others.

The importance of social innovations is widely discussed on an international scale. In spite of the increasing understanding of the benefits of social innovations, the potential of growth and spread of social innovations is not used enough in the majority of countries.

According to the evaluation of innovational activity, the European Union countries are divided into four groups: Innovation leaders, Innovation followers, Moderate innovators and Modest innovators. Based on the index of innovativeness, Lithuania falls into the Modest innovators group. Human resources, financial and support areas are named as Lithuania's strong areas. The weak sides are the lack of openness and attractiveness of the scientific research system, patchy business relations and weak capacities of entrepreneurship, diffused intellectual capital, and low economic effect. The reasons for this are the inability to convert knowledge into intellectual capital, non-functional relations between the elements of National innovation system, and lack of competence in innovation management at organizations. However, remarks about the pretty poor situation on innovations in Lithuania can not be generalized. Lithuania has no structured system, the function of which would be collecting information about created and implemented innovations in organizations. Finally, a significant part of innovations created in Lithuania „travel“ abroad, due to the reason that their creation is ordered by foreign companies, which in turn attributes the innovations as their property. These facts make difficulties in assessing the situation unambiguously, and official statistics is quite distorted in comparison to the real practice.

On the other hand, the creation of social innovations is inseparable from science, which contributes to social progress by the results of research and experimental development. Lithuania's Strategy of economical development, Innovation Strategy and strategic document „Mokslioji Lietuva – 2030“ reveals steps that navigate from post-industrial society to knowledge and apt-to-science society, the attention of which is directed to every individual's constant and life-lasting learning, development of creativity and application of new knowledge in order to make innovations.

In this book, professional researchers present Lithuania's topicalities in the context of social innovations „from inside“. In order to familiarize the readers with various aspects of the country's social life, relevant societal problems and unique experience, we framed 19 chapters, which were grouped into three parts: Social Innovations for Sustainable Development Facing to Globalization, Improving Life quality and Enhancing Employment Possibilities, and Need for Transformation of Moral Values in Today's Lithuania. Each part is started with an introduction. The introduction briefly

reviews the content of the sections and also highlights the country's peculiarities in the coverage of social innovations.

We trust that the book will be beneficial to researchers, professors, and students that are studying programmes of innovation management, innovation policy, higher education management, ethics and value management, communication sciences and so on.

We also hope to get the attention of businessmen that are looking for new markets and wish to better recognize the cultural, social and economic context of Lithuania.

Mykolas Romeris University,
Vilnius, Lithuania,
20-11-2013

On behalf of the authors' team
Agota Giedre Raisiene,
Editor

Part One: SOCIAL INNOVATIONS FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT FACING TO GLOBALIZATION

AGOTA GIEDRE RAISIENE

The economic growth and social welfare are more and more reliable in industries and services promoting the use of new knowledge; workplaces require increasingly more competencies for creating and implementing innovations. The European Commission has updated a strategy of European Union economic growth in the Communiqué *2020 EUROPA*¹. The Strategy includes essential goals in fields of employment, innovations, education, social inclusion, and climate / energy. Each Member State has adopted its own national targets in each of these areas.

Regarding topicality of the mentioned Strategy, a scientific research programme titled Sustainable Development of the State under Globalization was developed at Mykolas Romeris University, Lithuania. The main goal of the Programme is to carry out interdisciplinary research on environmental protection, social and economic sustainability and societal development under globalization conditions. Over dozen researchers at University took part in the scientific work in different research streams at the Programme. The first part of the book presents some of their research results.

Part One consists of seven chapters which deal with challenges of social service, legal environment of public organizations, entrepreneurship of the youth, and the State economic sustainability and development in Lithuania.

The chapter 1 discusses the possibility of optimization of Lithuania's Social services assessment system. Laura Andrijauskaite, an author, observes that public management modernization is a permanent process of public sector institutions' performance improvement, which includes innovative Management measures and methods, and is usually implemented in the form of reforms. Public

¹European Commission (2010); http://ec.europa.eu/europe2020/index_en.htm

Management Modernization initiatives are fulfilled in different volumes. In terms of the social services sector, combined assessment of social services in Lithuania is practically not carried out. Assessment of social care services is performed only at the terms of matching rates (norms). Due to this reason, development and implementation of integral and optimal assessment system of social services, which includes objective and subjective parts of the assessment system, as well as macro, meso and micro levels, is one of the conditions of equivalent social development as well as an opportunity for innovative assessment of social services, which could contribute to more efficient service delivery process and could rationalize usage of State and local budgets. The chapter 1 proposes a unified methodology for assessment of social services for Lithuanian municipalities as well as a standardized criteria system for assessment of social services. Innovative methodology encourages the participation of socially active groups, individuals, clients in the decision-making and service delivery evaluating and improving process of their social needs.

The chapter 2, titled „The management of organizations providing social services regarding legal security“ analyses two different social systems. The synergy of these systems has not yet been analyzed by either Lithuanian, or by foreign researchers. Ramūnas Vangas and Janina Čižikienė, authors of the Chapter, try to include the idea of legal security into the processes of management of Lithuanian organizations providing social services, and to provide certain innovative proposals regarding the improvement of effectiveness of these systems. These proposals are universal and with some modifications could also be used in other social service system areas. Authors indicate main parameters of the improvement of effectiveness of any social system while analyzing morphological, procedural and functional properties of the evaluated systems in the chapter. Authors formulate and present the conditions of the doctrine of legal security within the public system of social services by making links between social service principles of Lithuanian normative acts and the main tasks of the doctrine of legal security. Also, authors create innovative ideas and proposals based on the conclusions of the research done, the benefits of which are evident, including increased motivation of employees, innovations, better creativity, making of better psychological or cultural climate etc.

In the chapter 3, public procurement issue is discussed. The promoting of innovations by public procurement system in the context of Lithuania was not revealed yet. Thus, the presented research is original and relevant. The author of the chapter Agnė Tvaronavičienė reminds the readers that countries, which stream to innovative growth, are concerned about the selection of the proper means

for generating the demand for innovative productions. One of the most effective ways to reach it is a certain State policy. As argue Agnė Tvaronavičienė, using public procurement, governments in average spend about 10 per cent of country's GDP. Such high purchasing power can undoubtedly influence the market to take certain decisions answering to the created demand.

The chapter 4 deals with the topic of promoting youth entrepreneurship. Audra Visockaitė and Jūratė Valuckienė state that youth entrepreneurship is perceived and recognized as an important issue of the era and a life alternative for young people, wherein they can create and develop their own businesses, both ensures a quality of life for themselves and positive changes for broader society. From the view of the challenges of contemporary life, it is recognized that in order to effectively react to the constantly changing environment as well as to ensure the development of society and quality of life, it is essential to create favourable conditions for young people to become active, responsible and creative individuals. The suitable attention to youth entrepreneurship stimulates business in the entire country and creates favorable conditions for the development of a dynamic economy in a globalized context; it creates new jobs, contributes to decreasing unemployment, social exclusion and solving other social problems. The chapter authors argue that the development of the youth entrepreneurship model should be based on a certain structure. The difference between the youth entrepreneurship model and the business model is that young people require additional support systems: the opportunity to seek out consultation, to receive advice and become acquainted with examples of successful businesses.

The chapter 5 is devoted to the problems of small and medium business in economics of the country. Professor Gediminas Davulis states that profit criterion, which is usually used for assessment of efficiency of business enterprises, expresses the benefit of enterprise owners only and can be treated as a microeconomic criterion of efficiency. The author proposes a novelty in his chapter, reasoning that in addition to profit, as the company's activity criteria, a new criterion of efficiency is used which reflects macroeconomics aspects of activity of enterprises of different types. The proposed macroeconomics criterion of efficiency in opposite profit criterion includes social aspects expressing the contribution of individual kinds of enterprises to the country GDP as well. There are no scientific researches that deal with macroeconomic criteria of efficiency for assessment of activities in different kinds of enterprises. The analysis of macroeconomic efficiency referred by the chapter has shown that large enterprises are the most effective because their contribution to the GDP of the country is bigger than other enterprises. Author of the chapter also argue, that the efficiency of large enterprises can be

explained by the scale of economy because large enterprises have more abilities to realize the advantages of workers' specialization and to use specialized and more productive equipment and technologies. Though the macroeconomic efficiency analysis of enterprises has shown that large enterprises are more efficient due to the scale of economic effect, this fact does not diminish the significance of small and medium-sized business sector in the country economy. Small and very small enterprises are not very efficient but these enterprises create wider possibilities of choosing and allow us to solve the unemployment problem. Though large enterprises make a larger contribution to GDP of the country, the statistical data show that the large part of employees were working in small and medium-sized enterprises. Therefore the optimal ratio between the decrease of GDP and level of unemployment can be determined using the indices of macroeconomic efficiency of individual kinds of enterprises.

The purpose of the chapter 6 is to analyze and discuss the development of risk management in the National Budget of Lithuania. Arturas Balkevicius, the author, analyzes interdependence between risk management in the National Budget of Lithuania and Sustainable National Economic development. The author also identifies areas requiring risk management to promote innovation and improve budget.

The first paragraph of the chapter is dedicated to theoretical background of the problem of risk management in public sector, to Social risk management and close connection between social innovation and social risk management. The second paragraph is dedicated to overview and analysis of the situation in Lithuania, risk management in the National Budget, risk management in public sector, social risk management and social innovation. The conclusions highlight the success stories of risk management in the Lithuanian national budget and areas for improvement.

In his text, Arturas Balkevicius emphasizes that the erosion of the social security system or the intensification of ecological risks cannot be overcome without implementing social innovation. New innovation system takes hold it leads to far-reaching changes in the entire structure of the institution. Author asks the book readers' to notice the close connection between social innovation and social risk management. Risk management has been widely and successfully applied by Lithuanian financial institutions, banks, credit unions, investment and insurance companies, information technology companies. Risk management in public sector today is an innovation. By the author's observation, Lithuania needs to implement more social innovations in social risk management on a national level.

The field of social innovation remains fragmented and non-systemized, and there is a need for more developed networks as well as innovation intermediaries for brokering the connections needed to nurture and scale up social innovations.

The chapter 7 is the last one of the first part of the book. In the chapter, Gediminas Mačys presents the case of government-backed policy in Estonia. Author is certain that only the most innovative nations will win and gives the readers the example of Estonia, which shows that this country is a leader in raising the investments in R&D sector and boosting their innovative export-oriented production between the Baltic States. The chapter presents the regressive analysis of the whole chain of innovation driving factors leading up to the boost of innovative export-oriented production in Estonia at close range. In the words of professor Gediminas Mačys, some lessons and findings can be drawn from Estonian experience and successfully adapted to the Lithuanian economics. *Lesson 1* is that only Estonia has adjusted the right counter crisis policy measures - a strong fund of economic stability has been constituted before the crisis. It permitted the Estonian government to retain the surplus national budget and stable slim budget debt. It permitted to equally keep the fast growing investments in R&D overtaking and to surpass even the average investment level of EU27 at this time. It is widely known that the government policies were utterly opposite at that time in Lithuania. *Lesson 2* shows that the most impacting on level of Estonian high-tech production driving factors are the investments in high education sector and their gross expenditures on R&D. It proves the statement of endogenous growth theory that the growing budgeting for R&D gives direct and strongest effect on the level of high-tech export-oriented production. The according situation is directly opposite in Lithuania. *Lesson 3* lets us realize that the innovation is of great importance at all stages of development: in earlier stages, incremental innovation is associated with adoption of foreign technology, and social innovations can improve the effectiveness of business and public services. The high-technology R&D based innovation matters at the later stages of development, when there are both factors of competitiveness and learning that allow completing the “catch-up” processes. The latter innovation type can be denoted in Estonia, although the innovation system is obviously in an earlier stage according to the according framework in Lithuania. Finally, *Lesson 4* demonstrates that the world countries leading in developing innovation policy have followed a three-step process. Firstly, they recognized the need to approach innovation systematically. Secondly, they effectively brought attention to the need for innovation to the body politic, putting forth an inspirational vision and strategy for action. Finally, these countries made the

tough decisions necessary to drive their innovation strategies but also to adequately fund them, including R&D budgeting, even at the expense of other government spending or lower taxes for individuals. That is the way Estonia is following.

The book's Part One creates a broader understanding of socio-economic context of Lithuania, and enables to take in Lithuanian social life, public organizations' environment and circumstances for creation of innovations. Part One also serves as the base of the second and the third Parts of the book.

Chapter 1: Optimization Possibilities of Social Services Assessment System in Lithuania

LAURA ANDRIJAUSKAITE

Introduction

The global economic crisis has emphasized the problems of social care, its management and the impact of effective management on the entire public sector. The importance of social security sector, as well as its influence on public life, is revealed by several factors: (1) the expenditure on social security is about 40 percent of total expenses of the state; (2) municipalities spend up to 6 percent of municipal budget more to provision of social services; (3) the functions of social security are actualized during the most difficult periods of persons' life (in cases of illness, unemployment or disability); therefore, they are connected with the most delicate moments of human life; (4) the number of individuals who receive the help from social services is constantly growing due to the ageing population, as well as other demographic processes and etc. Effective and rational management of social security is especially important, thus changes in the public sector, as well as initiative of management modernization, have to be adapted in the sector of social services. Moreover, the provision of social services might gradually adopt the mechanism of market economy and as a result, the focus on rationalization and efficiency of social services will significantly increase. On one hand, the decrease of state regulation, as well as entrenchment of market conditions, stimulates the competition between service providers and efficiency of service provision. On the other hand, it proposes new requirements for evaluation of services and the change of state role concerning these matters. Integral and optimal scheme of social service provision and evaluation, which includes both objective and subjective parts of evaluation system, as well as macro, meso and micro levels, is one of the conditions for equal social development. The main features and possibilities for modernization of social services in Lithuania are analyzed by A. Guogis, D. Gudelis (2005), Bitinas and others (2010), Marcinkevičiūtė and Petrauskienė (2007), whilst the market and funding of social services are analyzed by Žalimienė (2003), Guogis (2005) and Išoraitė

(2007). Improvement opportunities for social services in Lithuania were examined by Vareikytė (2006), Kaziliūnas (2006), Guogis and Gudelis (2005) and the matters of quality of social services are studied by Kaziliūnas (2007), Indrašienė, Katkonienė (2011), Kondrataitė (2012).

Purpose -to analyze and to give an overview of social services assessment system in Lithuania and to submit proposals for optimization and development of social services assessment system, in purpose to achieve social and economic conversation under condition of globalization

Problematic Issues: (1) What is the functioning system of social service assessment in Lithuania? (2) What is the impact of social service assessment on them and their provision content? (3) How can the assessment of social service provision in Lithuania be optimized?

Theoretical background: the concept of social services assessment

At all times, human societies had and still have social groups that are not affected by social security measures to the extent that is required. Such social groups can be helped, as well as integrated into society, by individual social work and social service system only (Wendt, 1990); therefore, one of the main functions of social defense is to provide social service to residents. Recently, matters of social service provision became the subject of discussions in EU countries, meaning that efficiency issues of public support are being considered once again. Scientists propose different concepts of social services which depend on the social policy of the state, cultural context and other factors. Social services are understood as: (1) an integral part of the well-being of the state which assists in solving social problems (Bitinas, Guogis, Migun, Važgytė, 2010); (2) services that are subsidized by the state and provided for free or with a different market price (Žalimienė, 2003); (3) the implementation of state's main social programs (social security, education and employment), as well as non-medical social services (Guogis, 2000); (4) the modern state aid for persons' welfare and social guarantees that are provided by the state (Marcinkevičiūtė, Petrauskienė, 2005). The Law on Social Services of the Republic of Lithuania (2006, No. 17 – 589) defines social services as: *Social services shall be the services aimed at providing assistance to a person (family) who, by reason of his age, disability, social problems, partially or completely lacks, has not acquired or has lost the abilities or possibilities to independently care for his private (family) life and to participate in society.* The key feature of social services is that they are provided when the criteria set by the state are met, not when a person considers it necessary. If social

services are analyzed from the economic point of view, they should be understood as expenses that are used to change or improve the characteristics of a client. In brief, it can be stated that social services have the following characteristics: (1) provided social security systems; (2) objective to solve problems of a person or a certain group and improve their performance; (3) the requirement is identified by the state or authorized individuals; (4) free or partially paid; (5) involves a process, when there is an interaction between the user and the staff.

At this moment, the kinds of social services and their exact number in Lithuania is set by The Law on Social Services of the Republic of Lithuania and the catalogue of social services which is divided into: (1) general (providing information, consulting, mediation and representation, catering and etc.) and (2) specific (supervision and social care).

The assessment of any activity is considered as an integral part of the performance management and it contributes to a better leadership, decision making, and appropriate level of awareness. It also promotes accountability and responsibility; as well as contributes to the efficiency of services and etc. [A Brief Guide for Performance Measurement in Local Government, 1997]. The systems of performance review are analysed rather extensively and studied by various authors, such as Chin, Suman (2004), Chan (2004), Kuwait (2004), Busi, Bitici (2006), Kumar (2008) and etc. These systems particularly in Lithuania are analysed by Klovienė, Gimžausienė and etc. However, performance assessment and further research are more common in the private sector or specific organizations, although assessment and exploration of performance is a relatively new field in the private sector as it came to the sector with ideas concerning New Public Management (it is considered as one of the methods that can be used to improve the efficiency of public administration). Moreover, inefficient administration of social care may slow down their development, thus services might not satisfy the needs and tendencies of the present day. As the demand for social services in municipalities of Lithuania increases, it is necessary to search for effective means to improve the administration of social services (Bitinas, Guogis, Migun, Važgytė, 2010). One of these means is clear identification of problems that concern provision and administration of social services. It is possible through rationally functioning system of social service assessment only.

Assessment of social services is essential due to several key assumptions: they are supplied to socially vulnerable individuals who are usually dependent on others, lonely, abandoned, unable to advisedly evaluate personal needs and etc. (lack of rational choice ability); therefore, this situation

leads to the possibility of taking advantage of an individual who receives social care; for example, providing poor quality services and etc. Due to this possibility the interests of these individuals should be ensured, protected and represented by the state (Lazutka, Žalimienė 2009). The funding of social services is budgetary (from state and municipal resources), thus the state must seek to ensure the most effective and rational use of existing funds, as well as carry out frequent reviews. However, the entrenchment of market mechanism in the sector of social services leads to increasing competition which forces service providers to compete in terms of service quality and efficiency, as well as raises certain reverse processes: increased competitiveness may reduce the quality of social services in order to make them more economic, meaning more profitable.

All in all, the assessment system for social service provision is one of the means used to measure a particular activity. It ensures the legality, effectiveness, quality and etc. of social service provision. In conclusion, several parties that are included in the social service assessment can be distinguished:

- Institutions that sponsor the provision of social services;
- Institutions of social support;
- Recipient(s) of social services.

The assessment of social service provision can be distinguished according to the parties that provide social care:

External assessment

- The assessment of social care provision carried out by authorized individuals;
- The assessment of social care provision which is transferred by authorized individuals;
- The assessment of social care provision which is carried out by private or non-governmental sector.

Internal assessment of social service providers (self-evaluation)

- Self-assessment of the sole social service provider;
- Self-assessment of the collegial social service provider and others.

There are different opinions on possible criteria of social service assessment. One of most popular methodologies, according to theorists of management, is the Servqual methodology, which distinguishes such criteria for social service evaluation as: reliability, responding, competence(s), availability, helpfulness, sociability, confidence, security, recognition of the user, tangibility and etc. (Kriauzaitė, 2007; Kondrataitė, 2012). These criteria can be arranged in various levels of social service

evaluation. Analysing how the consumers evaluate the quality of services they receive the quality model of Ch. Gronroos is often used. The model is used to assess the subjective/functional technologic quality (Bagdonienė, Hopėnienė, 2004). Technologic quality defines the process of service provision control, which is not/should not be affected by subjective factors, regulated by normative documents, procedures and methodologies. On the other hand, subjective quality should reflect how the services are evaluated by their receivers, meaning that the understanding of service quality differs depending on a specific individual. For example, service quality can mean the availability of services for one client and the service provider's communication skills for other

According to Guogis and Gudelis (2005), the indicators and criteria of social service assessment are not significantly different from the general indicators and criteria of policy evaluation. They believe that the most crucial criteria for social services and their assessment are effectiveness, efficiency, economy and social fairness. Effectiveness is considered as the relation between output and input of an organization, whereas efficiency is connected to the outcomes of performance. It covers the extent to which a particular organization's aims are reached, as well as quality of the services and consequences for their receivers. It is understood as customer satisfaction and operating of social service agencies at minimum cost, whilst the criterion of social justice is considered as the right of citizens to receive services of equal quality (Guogis, Gudelis, 2005).

In Lithuania, in terms of social service assessment, certain regulatory documents are established; for example, the term of "social service quality assessment" (The Law of Social Services 10.1). However, the concept of social service quality, as well as its defining criteria, is not established. E. Kriauzaitė (2007) considers the quality of social services as the overall quality and attributes of provision of public goods for the weakest individuals of the society (in order to ensure their basic needs are fulfilled and everyday life is eased), which meet certain requirements and the needs of individuals that receive social care. According to Kriauzaitė, the concept of quality of social services is broad, diverse and dependent on various criteria. The examination of it is possible in terms of several aspects: (1) quality of service – the amount of properties and characteristics that define a particular service and has economic connotation, in other words, the quality is dependent on the price (what is expensive is usually better); (2) quality for the consumer – one of the most important criteria that is understood as the fulfillment of consumers' expectations; (3) quality in production – meeting the requirements of the pre-set parameters that are expressed in terms of technical standards (Kriauzaitė, 2007). R. Lazutka,

A.Guogis, S.Šukienė and L.Žalimienė state that the assessment of service quality can be occurred at different levels. Usually, three levels are distinguished: structural-manufacturing, process and result quality (Žalimienė, 2001):

- Structural-manufacturing quality includes the analysis of service and its correspondence to the standards;
- Process quality includes the assessment of service delivery methods;
- Result quality concerns evaluation of the service in terms of meeting the expectations of the user.

Therefore, in the sector of social defence, the systems of quality management and implementation of advanced service provision and evaluation methods arise as important phenomena, which are essential to reach customer-oriented management and effectiveness of social care.

Research methodology

Research methodology is based on neoliberal doctrine, rational choice theory and public choice theory, social marketing theory and social constructivism as well as systems theory. The main applied empirical method is *documentary research*. During the research, both external document analysis, i.e. assessment of document occurrence conditions, and internal document analysis, i.e. document content analysis, were carried out. The research was conducted by examining primary sources, i.e. legal acts, strategic documents, official speeches as well as by interpreting practical actions. The analysis of research literature and comparative historical and other methods were also used.

Results and findings

Social services evaluation system and its evolution in Lithuania

Social services in Lithuania were legalized in 1994 after the concept of social support was certified. The concept outlines the assessment of social services in general. It is said that: „*The municipalities are responsible for the quality of social services that are provided. Persons, who receive social services have a right to command their quality as well. In addition, independent appellate commissions of social support (which consist of representatives and experts from elective government*

and the society) might be organized “[The Concept of Social Support]”. The period between year 1991 and 1998 is considered as a quantitative leap of Lithuania’s social service system. It means that the number of social services grew significantly and the infrastructure of social care was developed as well. The period between year 1998 and 2006 can be conditionally classified as the second stage of the social service development which transferred the main focus from quantitative to qualitative indicators (Guogis, Gudelis, 2005). During this period, legislations concerning the provision and assessment of social services remained practically unchanged; subjects of evaluation and their authorization were specified only.

If the juridical regulation of social service evaluation which was valid from year 2007 to 2012 is compared to changes that occurred in the sector in December of year 2012, it can be stated that:

- The required maximum period during which the assessment of social care services has to be carried out is lengthening (from 2 to 5 years), which means control in this area is slightly reduced;
- The report (after assessment is complete) is intended to be sent directly to the provider of social services. This increases the independence of companies, but reduces the awareness of an institution which implements the rights of the owner;
- Publicity concerning the assessment of social care providers is increasing (publications in specific websites are compulsory);
- Responsibility for violation of established social care norms became stricter.

Current Law on Social Services of the Republic of Lithuania presumes that government is responsible for the quality of general social services; whilst the quality of social care is managed by the department of social care control (which is based on the norms of social care). However, general concepts of social service and social care quality, as well as the criteria that define it, are not presented in the Law on Social Service. Regarding low capability of individuals to assess the quality of social services, municipality must take control. It should not only select an appropriate service provider, but monitor the provision and the use of services as well (Žalimienė, Lazutka, 2009).

In the National Audit Office of Lithuania audit report called “The Provision of Social Services” (2009-02-27, No. VA-P-10-16-4), the National Audit Office stated: *„Methodologies that would forecast how municipalities should control the quality of social service are not prepared; therefore, there are no general procedures which would guide municipalities how to control the quality of social services. Since municipalities follow their own rules, assumptions about different ways to*

assess the quality of social support arise: the service of equal quality can be evaluated as adequate (appropriate) in one municipality) and inadequate in another.”

Situation remains unchanged from the introduction of the National Audit Office of Lithuania report, meaning that municipal offices of social assistance practically do not monitor the assessment of social service quality.

In Lithuania, municipalities are the main organizers of social service provision, which is decentralized; however, the establishment of market relationships in this sector is followed by the duality of social service provision and evaluation model. On one hand, the institutional structure of social services is reorganized to suit the dominant neo-liberal ideology. On the other hand, certain elements of it show that the key role in the provision, regulation and assessment of social services should be the responsibility of the state (Žalimienė, Lazutka, 2009). Consequently, the assessment of social services ought to be unified across the state, meaning that it is purposeful to establish equal methodology for social service evaluation with major standardized indicators and additional criteria (individual for each municipality). In this way, the data of social service assessment could be analysed and compared on both, national and individual-municipal, levels. This possibility would enable institutions that form and implement social politics to take measures for gradual social development and integration. Moreover, the quality of social support, which is based on the norms of social care, is administrated by the Supervision Department of Social Services. This attitude is established in the Act of Social Services (2006). In the same report (2009), state control stated that:

„The assessment, as well as self-assessment, of social care is carried out in accordance with the schedule of social care rate assessment, which is approved by the Minister of Employment and Social Care. This schedule is not yet confirmed”.

Department of Social Services performs assessment of the fulfilment of norms, whilst services that provide social care carry out self-assessment.

In conclusion, current assessment of the quality of social services is performed according to the equivalence of service provision and norms. It means that the emphasis is put on structural-manufacturing quality (according to Lazutka and Žalimienė, 2009). External methods of social service quality assessment are prevailing in the sector of social defence in Lithuania. Complex and systemic methods of evaluation are hardly ever used

Optimization possibilities of social services assessment system in Lithuania

The organization of social service functions is shared between the state government and municipality. This ensures a creation of mobile service network which is efficient and guarantees the fulfilment of customer's' needs in accordance with the standards set (Žalimienė, 2003). The main organizer of social service in Lithuania is the municipality. It analyses the needs of different groups of society and plans the expenses, which are necessary to provide funding for the social sector. Municipality is also responsible for the provision of social services for permanent settlers within its territory (Guogis, Gudelis, 2005). In addition, it should ensure a proper functioning of social care system. The existing social service assessment system includes assessment activities which are not interconnected (the evaluation of customer satisfaction, service quality studies and etc.), thus they provide fragmentary/incomplete information about the demand for social services, their suitability, accordance to requirements/standards and the expectations of clients.

Social service assessment should be systematic and universal. It should evaluate both subjective (recipient's subjective approach/appreciation of results) and objective (accordance to standards and norms) approaches on the provision of social services, as well as research including macro, meso and micro levels (Figure 1.1).

SS approach Level	Objective	Subjective
Macro	State	Community
Meso	Municipality	Group of Social services consumers (recipient's)
Micro	The Provider of Social services	Person (recipient)

Figure 1.1. Social service assessment model.

Evaluation of social services, which includes subjective approach to/side of the matter, meaning service assessment procedures that include direct user surveys (questionnaires, rating of satisfaction and etc.), would provide information about the satisfaction of consumers. Rate of satisfaction could be defined as a positive feeling that arises from similarities between expectations and the real results of a

particular service received (Gabbott, Hogg,1999). When the recipient's expectations are fulfilled or non-fulfilled as the service is received, a perceived result of services is formed. Dissatisfaction with the service occurs when the perceived service outcome does not match the expectations (V.Kindurys, 1998).

Important aspect of subjective approach towards social services is the evaluation on different levels, meaning that the evaluation process includes individual recipients (micro level), separate groups of recipients (meso level) and the whole community (macro level). It is important to note that the assessment of subjective criteria can not only reflect the quality of services, but/and to improve the provision of social services. Extended assessment ensures broader, more realistic and objective information about the perceived quality of services and increases the engagement of citizens in the processes of social service provision. On the other hand, objective assessment of social care should include the evaluation of service itself, its accordance to quality standards and the provision process on different levels. If different approaches on the assessment of social care would be used, a complex system of social care evaluation would develop gradually.

Another important matter of social service provision and development of its assessment system is the establishment of criteria, standards and indicators which are used to evaluate particular social services. To ensure an appropriate evaluation, standardized indicators are necessary. They would enable monitoring the process of quality evaluation, its changes and dynamics, thus specific responses could be planned according to the results. In addition, information (assessment based on defined indicators) about social service provision should be freely available. Publishing the news about particular service providers and their services openly is one of the tools to improve both the provision process and the services themselves.

Social services assessment system has a clear direction for further development: it should shift from an isolated and fragmented structure to an integrated, more complex system of assessment, which would enable the accumulation, organization and analysis of the data from social service sector, as well as improve business processes and service quality

Conclusions

(1) An important part of the management of social services is social services assessment, which leads to opportunities to improve social services. (2) Social services assessment system in Lithuania is still in its establishment phase and could be improved. (3) Concept of social services quality and criteria of social services quality are not clearly identified and defined. Social care services assessment is performed only at the rate (norm) matching aspect (structural - production or objective quality). (4) General social services and social care services assessment is performed in Lithuania fragmentally. It is not prepared in municipalities unified evaluation methodology or general evaluation criteria, which could allow to analyze and to compare the assessment data. (5) Integral and optimal social services assessment system, which includes objective and subjective parts of assessment system, as well as macro, meso and micro levels, is one of the conditions for equivalent social development and social services improvement opportunities.

Suggestion

The assessment system of social service provision should implement complex system of development which would incorporate various aspects and methods of quality assessment. Also, it should create a unified methodology for social service assessment in different municipalities, as well as establish standardized indicators for assessment to enable tracking qualitative changes of social service provision.

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Chapter 2: Social Service Organizations in Management by Legal Security

RAMUNAS VANAGAS & JANINA CIZIKIENE

Introduction

Many researches were conducted in order to find out how to improve the effectiveness of service organizations, ensure flexible service provision and customer service and guarantee the protection of rights and legitimate interests. Despite ongoing studies and their provided recommendations, the situation of reforms being carried out or being planned in the sectors of public administration and in the private sector has not changed significantly. It is recognized that the existing legal and regulatory measures that are applied in our country and organizations in order to ensure human rights and legal interests and to increase the work efficiency organizations are insufficient.

The purpose of the article is to find out the legal security aspects in the management of organizations providing social services and to deliver the conclusions and recommendations based on the performed analysis. The following goals are set in order to achieve these tasks: identifying main legal security elements; evaluating main managerial measures in the organizations providing social services that shape their legal security system; delivering the conclusions and recommendations that would ensure greater efficiency in the analyzed context.

Foreign authors usually analyze legal security aspects in the aspects of law or public administration (E. G Maynez, 1943; Denthardt, 2001; Lane, 2005; Cole, 1990; Parsons, 2001). However, the authors did not find any analysis performed in the context of legal security management in the analyzed sources.

Organizations operating in Lithuania are also mostly studied using the law and public administration science principles and research methods. Lithuanian scientists performed researches of public sector municipal-level and submitted their findings in a complex study “Social political effectiveness of self-government institutions” (in Puškorius, Ed., 2006).

In Lithuania, social service organizations are mainly analyzed by authors such as L. Žalimienė, 2003; Klokmanienė, 2009; Marcinevičiūtė, Petrauskienė, 2007, Kriauzaitė, 2007 and others. These authors analyze the concept problems of social services and the organizations providing them in order

to base the work of these organizations on principal provisions by assessing the organizational performance and the influence to social groups.

In foreign literature, social services and the activity of organizations providing them are widely analyzed (for example, Antonnen, Sipila, 1996; Johnson, 2001; Lethbridge, 2005; Munday, 2003; Sutton, 1999). It should be noted that foreign authors pay considerable attention to the analysis of social services and organizations providing them in the EU context.

Also, law area scholars constantly examine the public sector in the contexts of constitutional rights (Jarašiūnas, 2005; Sinkevičius, 2008), administrative law (Urmonas, 2006; Bakaveckas, 2007; Kalesnykas, 2002), Legal Philosophy-Sociology (Vaišvila, 2002, 2004, 2007; Arlauskas, 2001, 2006; Šlapkauskas 2004, 2009) and other social sciences.

Having reviewed the literature, it has to be admitted that on a managerial point of view, the concept of legal security as a social phenomenon is very little studied and evaluated. The principle of legal security in the organizations providing social services is not sufficiently studied in Lithuanian scientists' works. In the process of implementing social security, social science researchers and practitioners firstly rise requirements to the subject who makes decisions, but do not sufficiently analyze and evaluate the individual employee and consumer rights when interpreting legitimate interests and expectations.

Features of the organizations providing social services in the context of legal security

As there is noted in the communique of European Commission, the social services are the base of European society and economy due to their role as social compaction. The communique indicates that, in certain cases, social services compose a law-defined scheme of complex aid and protection that is able to be organized and implemented in various ways. The objective of such scheme is to cover the areas of human life that are associated with a certain degree of risk. Therefore, social services are connected with such life phenomena as „health, old age, the risk associated with work/professional life, unemployment, disability and pension” (Implementation of Lisbon strategy; Social services of general importance in the European Union, 2006). In this case, social services perform two functions – firstly aid is granted to those who faced a certain degree of risk and are not able to cope with it themselves; on

the other hand, social services play a preventive function, ensuring social integration and the implementation of fundamental human rights.

Social services are organized and provided by the social service organizations. These can be public, non-governmental or community-based institutions, organizing and providing services to one or more social groups. Since social services are designed to ensure the well-being of human life, the organization of social service organizations, work quality evaluation and efficiency amplification acquires a great value in the context of legal security. The concept of social service institution is defined by L. C Johnson (2001). The author calls these social service organizations agencies, and states that they can act both as individual organizations as well as departments or divisions of other institutions providing social services. Due to this reason, the author points out that the social service institutions can not only be separate organizations, but also the buildings/locations in which the interaction between social worker or other specialist and the customer take place. L. C. Johnson points out that social service organization is firstly an agency that “provides social services, employs professional social workers (...); can make use of the assistance of non-professional staff” (Johnson,2001).

Considering the activity and importance of social services and the organizations providing them, the organization and rendering of social services should be carried out with ensured following of legal security provisions and implementation of social service efficiency. Therefore, the social service organizations, regardless of what social services they provide, what social groups they are working with and what is their subordination must comply with the defined principle provisions. The EU countries determine the values and provisions which organizations providing social services must base their work on in legal acts and other documents that regulate the organization and provision of social services.

The principles of social services in Lithuania are defined by the Republic of Lithuania Law on social services, which indicates the main principles of social service management, commitment and rendering (Law of the Republic of Lithuania on social services, 2006). One of the most important principles in the abovementioned act is participation. Currently, it is more and more emphasized, that it is impossible to provide effective aid if the client himself is not actively involved in the whole process, as well as his family members, other organizations, which protect the interests and rights of the person or a group of people. Thus, the social service organization must take care that the client would be actively involved in deciding what kind of aid should be granted, how it should be given, what changes

are aimed for. In this case, the principle of participation may be linked to the principle of cooperation, which is based on the belief that the organization and provision of social services should take place based on the “cooperation and mutual assistance between the person, family, community, organizations, protecting the interests and rights of people and social groups, social service agencies, local and state institutions“ (Law of the Republic of Lithuania on social services, 2006). Thus, it can be seen that the principles of participation and cooperation emphasize that the social service institutions’ work organization must be based on an assessment of the client's needs and interests and the successful activities of the institutions can only be ensured if the client himself is involved in the entire process of assistance and support, not only as a recipient of social services, but as an active planner, organizer and assessor. Furthermore, the principle provisions discussed indicate that social service organizations cannot be closed and work as one. Even complex institutions that provide mixed services will not be able to ensure versatile assistance to the client and reach effective results, if working alone. Therefore, it is important to have the social partners for each social service organization. The complexity principle means that social services should be provided not only to the person who needs them, but his family members as well. It is obvious, since a person's social problem always affects his family. For example, if a person is disabled, family members are responsible for taking care of him and helping him in everyday life; If it is a person addicted to alcohol or drugs, family members are also in need of help in getting liberated from negative emotions experienced while giving support and support to the person with addiction etc. The distinguished principles of relevance and versatility are related to the need to assess whether the social services actually meet the individual’s needs and cover all areas that involve any risks to the person. Therefore, the principle of relevance is defined as a safeguard that the needs and interests of the person and his family are assessed and social services are organized and rendered particularly referring to this assessment. The principle of versatility indicates that the services must be coordinated with the “monetary social support, protection of the child’s rights, employment, health care, education and development, social housing, special aid measures” (Law of the Republic of Lithuania on social services, 2006). Due to social services being related to direct assistance and support to a person, ethical principles and humanistic values become very important. With regard to the principles laid down in the law on social services, the humanistic values can be associated with the principles of accessibility and social justice. The principle of availability expresses the already mentioned and at the moment heavily emphasized in the European Union provision that services must

be provided to the person as close as possible to his place of residence. This approach once again perfectly illustrates the importance of the community in the rendering of social services. In the meantime, the social justice principle is based on the provision that every person has the right to social services should they be necessary. No circumstances or person's ability to pay for the services must interfere with receiving aid. The principle of effectiveness can be associated with the ambition to ensure the quality of social services. Effectiveness is perceived as the ability to ensure that the "social services are managed, granted and rendered pursuing good results and rationally using the available resources". Assuming the features of the social service organizations' customers, each social service organization must be able to properly plan, what resources and how will they be used for organizing and rendering social services, how the effectiveness and success of aid and support will be ensured in the context of legal certainty.

The report of the European Union's Council "Social services as a means to promote active engagement, social focus, and as an area of new job possibilities" also distinguishes certain principles, that are recommended to the members of the European Union in order to ensure the quality and efficiency of social services and the institutions providing them (How social services help mobilizing the workforce and strengthening social cohesion, 2009).

The abovementioned report indicates that social service organizations must work according to the principle of solidarity. Due to the reason that the activities of social service institutions depend on the available financial, human and time resources, which are fairly limited, another important principle is the ability to properly organize the activities of the institution. In this case, persistent and consistent development of social services should be encouraged; new coherent strategies on local, regional and national level should be established, in turn achieving universal access to services, quality of services and financial stability. Thus, a new important principle is created – it is the striving to distribute resources and plan the work in order to ensure a consistent, persistent and continuous work of the social service institutions and rendering of social services. This principle is important due to the fact that social problems are usually quite complex and therefore impossible to solve in a short period of time just by organizing fragmentary activities. Another principle which is also linked to continuity is the aim for lifelong learning and enhancement of stability, competence and productivity of social service institutions. In this case, it is encouraged to find ways to ensure a balance between high-quality social services at the level of the European Union, provide these services with the necessary skills and supply

of social services. However, it is emphasized that although the quality of services and the improvement of social service institutions is considered one of the top priorities, no activity of the institution may violate human rights. Therefore it is necessary to bear in mind that the beneficiaries of social services are people with special needs, however, as in the case of each and every person, it is necessary to ensure the security of their rights, interests and dignity (How social services help mobilising the workforce and strengthening social cohesion, 2009). So, in this case, emphasis is also put on humanistic values and ethical principles that ensure the proper and successful activity of the organizations providing social services. The following model of social service evaluation is most commonly met in literature (see Fig.1 in the next page).

After a review of the regulatory principles declared in the regulations and the prevailing indicators (parameters, criteria) of the service quality evaluation provided in figure 1, it is noticeable that the implementation of legal security doctrine may enhance the quality (efficiency) of social services, due to the fact that this doctrine presupposes four important tasks that include the principles and indicators mentioned above, i.e. adjust the decision making procedures in a way that their participants could have real opportunities to have a positive impact to the content of the final decision; provide legal procedures to deal with arguments arising due to the legality of the decisions taken; prefigure legal procedures in order to ensure an effective external control of the decision making; prefigure legal procedures of the impact measures (Lane, 2005; Parsons, 2001).

M.E. Butt, J. Kübert, C.A Schultz (2000) point out that individuals rights may be considered as the basis of social service organizations. The authors indicate that such services can include the right to work (right to proper and safe working conditions, fair pay, severance compensations); the right to education and learning; the right to accommodation; the right to healthy environment; the right to social protection (social well-being, special protection for mothers, special protection for families/parents, special protection for disabled people, special protection for children and young people, special protection for elderly people (Butt, Kübert, Schultz, 2000).

The scientific literature constantly stresses that the purpose of law in a Law based country is to ensure equal opportunities for all individuals in different areas and at the same time to ensure a fair distribution of resources. Gaps in the normative documents (e.g. unclear formulations, impracticality of the legal act or frequent rotation of the content) may depend on the legal uncertainty (polysemanticism) of the fact itself. The drawbacks of the decision taken by the head of the organization who has the legal

power, and at the same time the legal security of the management subject system may be influenced by the structure of the organizational system itself or the internal microclimate, which creates the dysfunctional assumptions to prepare a decision with legal power for 'yourself', or, by taking advantage of the privileges granted by one's power, deliberately create a defective (debatable or imperfect) legal act or a decision with defective legal power (Parsons, 2001). The content of such act or decision may definitely invoke an argument between the interested parties in the organization on its legal value and further consequences.

It can be stated that the principal provisions of the organizations providing social services in the European Union are strongly related to security of human rights. In different countries of the European Union, the method of organization, appointment and rendering of social services is quite different and depends on the characteristics of the country. However, all countries have specific similarities in the area of social service organizations' activity. It is aimed to define the principles in the organization, appointment and rendering of social services, in turn ensuring the quality of the organizations' activity, and effectiveness of aid.

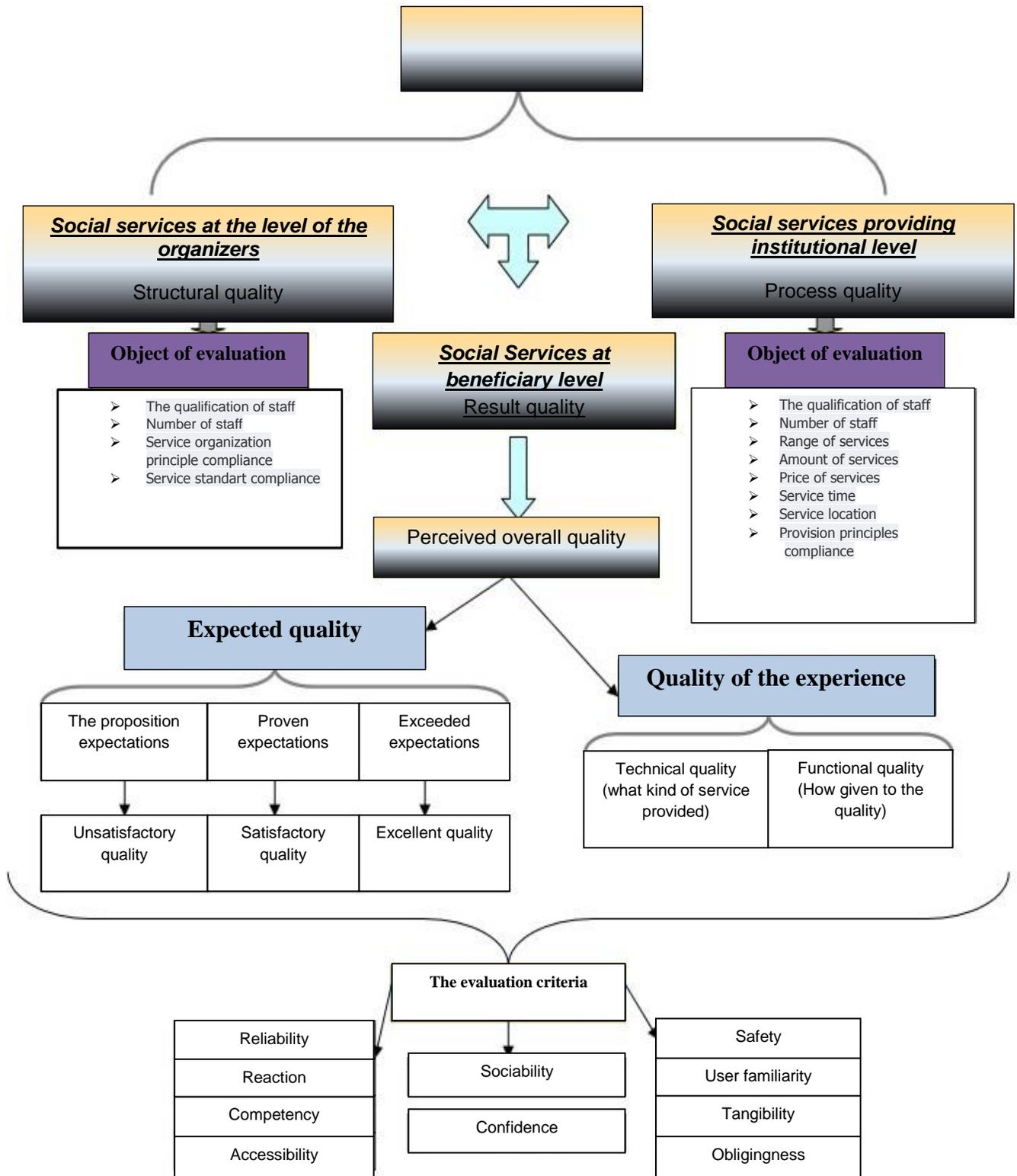


Figure 1. The complex model of the social service quality evaluation (source: Kriauzaitė, 2007).

The ideas discussed in the article allow specifying general provisions of social service organizations necessary for the countries of the European Union (including Lithuania):

1. Respect for the citizen's individuality and acceptance of his or her differences, acknowledging that none of the characteristics or peculiarities of the person's life should affect the allocation and rendering of social services.

2. Support to the citizen will not be effective unless the person and the members of his family are actively involved in the process of granting such aid.

3. Providing the services as close to the citizen. Integration into the society is more successful if the person is supported and assisted by the members of the community.

4. Social service organizations have to operate based on fundamental humanistic values, such as solidarity, respect for human rights, legal security, justice and so on.

Social services are directly related to the person's life, improvement of his environment and living conditions. This means that the provision of social services always directly influences the life of the person and his family. Therefore, it is very important for social service organizations to develop such management environment that would make it possible to ensure a more flexible provision of such services and the service of citizens, while guaranteeing a high level of efficiency. As it is seen from the information provided above, this is impossible without the implementing the legal security doctrine into the system.

The content of the legal security doctrine in organizations providing social services in a managerial aspect

It is appointed that the concept of legal certainty generally distinguishes two levels:

1. The law itself, as a separate element of the system, security, i.e. the clarity of the law, rational certainty, practicality (suitability for effective use) and permanence (lasting reliability);

2. Ensuring the security of human (citizens providing and receiving social services) rights by legal means, i.e. the guarantees for security of person's (the employee's) rights, freedoms and legal interests, mechanisms for ensuring them, legal mechanisms for equitable distribution of material and

human resources (The Resolution of Constitutional Court of the Republic of Lithuania, 2001; Denthardt, 2001; Lane, 2005).

The philosopher Gustav Rodbuch, stressed that this is one of the fundamental values of law, when formulating the definition of legal security, (Maynez, 1949) that were analyzed pretty wide in the works of Lithuanian scientists mentioned earlier. Alfonsas Vaišvila has also discussed the legal security terms and interpretations of its content (just law, social commitment of the country, just legitimacy) that were analyzed by foreign authors (Vaišvila, 2000).

The jurisprudence of the Constitutional Court of the Republic of Lithuania also mentions the principle of legal security. The Court pointed out that the principle of legal security is one of the essential elements of Law based country principles consolidated in the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania, which means the country's responsibility to ensure the certainty and stability of legal regulation, secure the rights of legal relation subjects as well as the acquired rights, respect the legal interests and legal expectations. The purpose of the principle is to guarantee the person's trust in his country and law. This principle also includes several requirements that are related to the validity of legal regulation. Legal regulation can only be changed in accordance with the procedure laid down in advance and without violating the principles and norms of the Constitution. It is necessary to follow the principle *lex non agit's etro, inter alia*; the regulatory amendments must not deny the person's legitimate interests and legitimate expectations, continuity of jurisprudence must be guaranteed. Without guaranteeing the security of legitimate expectations, legal certainty and legal security, the person's trust in his country and law would not be guaranteed. The country must fulfil its obligations to the person.

The analysis of the Court's interpretation and its adaptation for the social service system in the management context, such subjects are social service workers, who take the decisions related to each citizen who receives social services (with their rights, position, functions, responsibilities, expectations, interests and similar). However, that is not enough because the principle of legal security presupposes a defense mechanism as well. For example, if the actions or decisions of governmental institutions providing social services violate civil rights, the person must be guaranteed an effective legal defense of these rights (The resolution of the Constitutional Court of Republic of Lithuania, 2001). One of the necessary conditions for this defense is the presence of independence and impartiality, which is inextricably linked to the requirements of legal security doctrine that are mentioned further in the text.

In the managerial context of social service area, such defense mechanisms can be very different: from the models consolidated in legal acts (the approval of the labour code of Republic of Lithuania, the implementation and enactment of labour argument Commission, trade unions and so on) to mandatory management methods and principles discussed further in the article (approval of the labour code of Republic of Lithuania, Enactment and Implementation Act, 2012).

The level of legitimate interest satisfaction of citizens and workers providing social services (worker rights protection) directly depend not only on the social service policy carried out by the society and country, which is determined not only by internal, but also external factors that are not dependent on the legislator or the subject making decisions, e.g. political, economic and economic-social. This level also depends on the internal, organizations' structural, economic, social, cultural and other aspects (Cole, 1990). These included the aspect of legal security because the scientific literature has repeatedly emphasized that the purpose of law in a law-based country is to ensure equal opportunities for all individuals in different areas and at the same time to ensure a fair distribution of resources. It is particularly important in the area of social services.

The currently valid legal acts determinate that the main organizers of basic social service providing are the municipalities, which are responsible for ensuring the provision of social services to residents of their territories by planning and organizing social services, controlling the quality of general social services and social care. In parallel the municipalities assess and analyze the citizens' needs for social services, forecast and identify the scale and types of social service provision in accordance to the citizens' needs and evaluate and assess the necessity of financing social services. Thereby, municipalities annually create and approve the social service plan, following the methodology of social service planning approved by the Government of the Republic of Lithuania on 15th of November, 2006 order Nr. 1132 (Žin.,2006,Nr. 124-4705).

Experts note that in Lithuania, the problematic is not about the laws, but about the political culture instead, because the decisions made are too often based on emotions, data and analysis are taken less into consideration. There is a lack of professionals who are aware of the role of citizens and Government in addressing a range of social issues, have better knowledge of the area, oriented to the human wellbeing - social policy, which is one of the most important areas of public policy, which deals with issues related to human needs, desires and life quality. Due to the circumstances already mentioned in the article, the following conditions for the formation of legal security doctrine are

necessary in the public sector system providing social services, which can be directly applied to the management of organizations providing social services:

1. Create and record such procedures that would guarantee the maximum quality (harmonization) of legal act creation or making a decision with maximum legal power. This would allow the internal legal acts or executive's decisions to be developed properly, while already at the stage of decision-making;

2. Regulate the procedural possibilities of verification or appeal of the accepted (aimed to be accepted) legal act (decision). This would allow the internal organizational acts or executive's decisions to be made open for critics and development;

3. Effectively working institutes and procedures for treating arguments (mediation, labour argument commissions and other). This would ensure that the arguments arising due to validity of internal organization's acts or executive's decisions are properly addressed;

4. Create entities of proper maintenance, predict the legal mechanisms (legal responsibility) of invoking responsibility for the creation of legally incorrect legal acts (decision-making) that would ensure that defective internal organization's acts or executives' decisions are not created deliberately by using the possibilities provided by competence or crossing the competence (Lane, 2005).

Conclusions and recommendations

After carrying out the theoretical and empirical research, these conclusions and recommendations are to be made:

The principle of legal certainty in the area of social services is not sufficiently researched in the works of Lithuanian scientists. In order to implement legal security, the scholars and practitioners of the management area firstly raise requirements for the governing subject that makes decisions. These solutions would ensure the certainty and stability of legal regulation, protect the rights of other subjects of legal relations and respect the legal interests and expectations.

The decision being made in the social service system must meet the following requirements: (clarity, coherence, accuracy, no negative impact on the person's legal situation, no negation of

acquired rights, legal expectations and interests). It is necessary to create and ensure an efficient, independent and impartial mechanism for the citizens receiving social services.

The effect created by legal security is associated with the decisions made, which are a part of the organization's management system, and become one of the efficiency improvement measures, in any organization (both in the public and private sectors). Increasing the level of legal security in organizations (along with organization-wide performance) can be done by imperatively determining or creating specific procedures that would ensure that decisions are made only by the specialists that are related to it and competent in the field analyzed by the decision (its content).

Although the advantages of legal certainty are obvious (increased employee motivation, innovations, growth of creativity, the formation of psychological climate or culture and so on), it is not used sufficiently so far. It is appropriate to establish a mechanism enabling citizens providing and receiving social services to evaluate the content of each decision made in the aspect of legal certainty (the correctness of the decision, clarity, stability and similar) and helping to determine the expression of every decision's final result, in order to make some corrections in the management processes according to these data, thus increasing the overall effectiveness of the social service system.

In order to install the principle of legal security in the system of organizations providing social services, it is appropriate to develop such management environment that would allow: a) establishing procedures that ensure the quality of the legal act (executive's decision) creation; b) providing the possibilities of controlling and appealing the accepted (aimed to be accepted) legal act (executive's decision); c) creating effectively working entities for appropriate maintenance and labour argument treatment and consolidating appropriate procedures (mediation, labour argument commissions and so on); d) predicting the mechanisms of responsibility application for the creation of legally incorrect legal acts (executive's decisions).

The development of organizations providing social services in the European Union remains one of the main priorities of the Union. Therefore, taking into account the specific features of social service organizations' management, effective decisions must be made in order to ensure the reduction of social problems and improvement of the overall human life quality in order for the services not only to be more efficient, effective, and economical, but also to take into account the aspects of legal security doctrine and ensure a safe and secure managerial environment.

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Chapter 3: Public Procurement as One of the Instruments Promoting Innovations: Case of Lithuania

AGNE TVARONAVICIENE

Introduction

The law of public procurement is one of the institutes of administrative law, which constantly is affected by persistent changes, appearing mostly because the rapidly changing situation in market and the need to create the procurement system, which correspond the volatile environment. In such context, public procurement may be named as one of the instruments used by governments in order to materialize it's functions in the national economy. In such context, public procurement undoubtedly it also can be useful as an innovations promoting tool. Considering the fact that the value of public procurements in EU consists in average about 18 per cent of the EU's GDP (Europe CliMAIL, 2012), the purchasing power of government is significant and has all assumptions to have a great impact on the market.

The Government of the Republic of Lithuania is already adopted a number of strategies and programs in order to increase the innovativeness of the country. Certain list of measures, promoting the innovations is already implemented in practice. Thus, the analysis of public procurement as an effective legal tool in this process is required. Topicality of the subject is also obvious in the light of the fact that the system of public procurement in Lithuania is still in permanent reforms. Such condition requires guidelines for effective evolution in order to have capability to decide which areas should be chosen as priority ones. Despite of topicality and high level of adaptability in practice, the research of public procurement as a government policy tool in achieving various additional goals in the science of Lithuania was not performed. Separate aspects of this topic were fragmentally analyzed (Soloveičikas 2009; Palidauskaitė, Ereminaitė 2012; Junevičius 2010), thought in the different areas of application. It is supposed that the evaluation of public procurement possibilities to act as an instrument of innovation promoting, will be useful also in the field of further researches connected

with analysis of public procurement, in order to reveal all characteristics of this social phenomena, connections with other economic, social, legal factors important for the future development of this institute.

Public Procurement of Innovation: Origin and the Concept

Having in mind that in every country government purchases constitutes weighty position in GDP, the institute of public procurement has a power to influence market, policy, legislation, economy, social environment and its own organizational environment. Such high purchasing power can be used to achieve additional tasks. Of course the main task of public procurement is providing supplies, services and works for the state institutions in order to enable them to prosecute public functions. However, it isn't useful to confine to performance only the mentioned task. According to A. Junevičius and S. Ereminaitė (2010), public procurement is one of the most effective elements of successful public policy. If Governments cleverly uses this instrument, it is realistic to achieve positive results in various spheres: reduce the unemployment, stimulate the activity of small business units, and deal with various social problems, tackle the environmental problems and, what is the article focus on, to promote the innovations in market.

After the identifying the public procurements as a possibly effective tool of public policy, it is substantial to examine what input this institute can perform in the field of innovations promotion. The concept of public procurement of innovations (further – PPI) constantly is widely used in legislation and doctrine. It is interesting that agreeably to Ch. Edquist and J.M. Zabala-Iturriagoitia “until about 10 years ago this phenomenon was called “public technology procurement” (Edquist et al., 2000a). Since then, this vocabulary of the 1990s and earlier has changed. The concept of “technology” has been replaced by the concept of “innovation”, reflecting a widening of the content of the notion” (Edquist, Zabala-Itussiagagoitia, 2012). In scientific literature, different strategies and legal acts mostly the concept of PPI is used. It is also quiet common to discover terms of “innovation procurement”, “technology procurement”, “public technology procurement”, “Pre-commercial procurement” and etc. Such diversity shows, that there is no universally used term to describe of buying something what do not yet proposed to the market. According to M.Rolfstam, who carried out comprehensive analyses of mentioned concepts, “public procurement of innovation is understood as purchasing activities carried

out by public agencies that lead to innovation. This relatively broad understanding means for example that activities carried out both before (what is sometimes called the pre-procurement phase) and after the formal tender process should be taken into account” (Rolfstam, 2012). The term “public procurement of innovations” will be used in this article understanding it simplified, as public procurement process of buying innovative services or products.

In Lithuanian legislation (including strategic documents) and doctrine the term of innovative procurement (in Lithuania, *inovatyvūs pirkimai*) is used. This conception is described as public procurement, when contracting authority, in the process of procuring, includes into contract documents criteria, which encourages renderers to create and introduce innovative products (The Government of the Republic of Lithuania, 2009). Logically, we can see that this term has the same meaning as previously described concept of PPI. However, using innovative procurement term is not precise, because of danger to intermix two quite different approaches: process of buying innovative products and innovative process of procurement. Actually innovative public procurement is a result of PPI. Such statement can be justified by noticing, that such product as public procurement information technologies systems were created newly, when such demand emerged. The widely in Lithuanian used term of innovative procurement should be changed by starting to use term of PPI (in Lithuanian, *viešasis inovacijų pirkimas*).

One of the functions of government is regulation of the behaviour of private actors in the market. As innovations are widely accepted as a power driving economy forwards, obvious, that every state is interested in innovative growth and governments are obliged to find ways for promoting innovativeness of the domestic market players. Buying innovative solutions is one of the main stimulating factors to create the demand for the certain production. According Aschhoff and Sofka (2009), public procurement is a demand – side instrument and can be defined as the purchase of a not-yet-existing product or system whose design and production will require further, if not completely novel, technological development work. As a rule, the essential functional requirements for a product are predefined by contracting authority, but the realization and design are not. This system of developing of the new products in the market not only plays an important role in creating innovative solutions for public sector, but also meets certain political goals: promotes innovations. Market is receptive for a demand and as the result of such policy various different innovative productions may be presented. As it can be noticed, PPI is profitable from the both sides: better quality of public services

and the growing innovativeness of the domestic companies. A major advantage of public procurement in innovation policy is that government specifies a desired output and leaves it to the creativity of private business to achieve this result with the most effective and efficient technologies (Aschhoff, Sofka 2009). Public procurement contract for a supplier grants a bigger amount of order and reduced risks. In a case of purchases of innovative production, suppliers reduce market risk for the developing and delivering firm is reduced, because a certain amount of sales is guaranteed (Aschhoff, Sofka 2009). Colloquially, biggest costs are covered by the first client. Later that new product can be developed for the needs of other consumers.

Generalizing this chapter it should be marked that having high purchasing power in the market, governments constantly uses public procurement, despite of the setting unified rules for public expenditure, to achieve certain additional goals. One of possible appliance of public procurement is promoting of innovations by inspiring the tenderers to present innovative solutions, which later will have opportunities to be adapted for the needs of other consumers.

How to promote innovations using the process of public procurement?

Despite the all factors that show capability of public procurement to work hand in hand with other instruments of innovation promoting, it should be marked that driving force of this intercourse is certain governmental policy with clear and concrete will of politicians to invoke changes. In the case of using public procurement in order to promote innovations few variables should be in mind: starting with simple mentioned will to use public procurement as an innovations promoting tool, continuing with proper legal framework, coordination of the actions, and finishing with certain qualification of the personnel of contracting authorities. This article will not include explicit analysis of all variables, thus the main elements will be sifted.

According Edler and Georghiou public procurement of innovation can take different forms (Edler J., Georghiou L., 2007). These authors named general procurement versus strategic procurement. At the first level, government procurement is generally organized such that innovation becomes an essential criterion in the call for tender and assessment of tender documents. Edler and Georghiou indicates that the strategic procurement of innovations, occurs when demand for certain technologies, products or services is encouraged in order to stimulate the market. These forms of public procurement

are important to distinguish analysing the role of institution responsible for innovation policy of the state.

Usage of public procurement as an innovations promoting tool normally cannot emerge without the certain will of public policy makers. Individually purchasing organizations commonly do not have a motivation to seek for innovation promotion. Regardless of separate cases, when innovative solutions are necessary in order to achieve individual goals of concrete organization, innovation promoting is inspired by the certain innovation policy of the state. The basis for an innovation-friendly procurement framework is the general understanding across administrations that the public purse can make a difference in the marketplace towards a more innovative culture (Edler J., Georghiou L., 2007). Understanding in this case can be born only with a help of convincing. The assignment of the bodies responsible for innovation policy is not only to create certain policy, but also to convince procurers do not confront with additional tasks. In this moment the coordination between actions of different sector administration bodies comes on stage. It is impossible to expect that state innovations policy can be amicably implemented by all public procurers without of certain mechanism of convincing and transferring of governmental policy into the goals of individual procurer. In literature this confrontation also is suggested to struggle with. According Edler and Georghiou, the basis overcome all these principle obstacles is a strategic commitment to change rationales across and within administrations, to integrate the innovation rationale within sectorial policy rationales and subsequently a strong co-ordination of efforts to create inter-administrative win-win situations. The issue of the need of coordination also is stressed by other authors, for example Edquist (2009). He marks on that if a ministry is in charge of innovation, it must work with specific ministries as well as regional and local governments where the purchasing budgets are located. Summarizing, the key point is not only to create the state innovation policy, but also to make it work: transfer into strategies of contracting authorities and convince everybody that is worth the additional efforts.

Every strategy is only a plan that must be implemented by concrete measures of different character. One of the main stages of implementation of strategic documents is creation of certain legal basis, which establish the framework for the acting and legitimates the strategy as an action plan. The extent of this process depends on the concrete strategy and varies. In case of using public procurement as an instrument of innovation promoting, legal framework for such actions is crucial because of the detail manner of regulation of public procurement issues. Because of the domination of imperative

regulation method in public procurement, it is necessary to eliminate all uncertainties and to create optimal legal basis: sufficient for the purchases of innovative production, but do not provide space to abuse.

The next issue to discuss is the need of coordination of actions. Public policy, legal framework will not work without effective coordination. In this case the institutional system should be evaluated. The bodies, responsible for the policy making, should work hand in hand with law making authorities and institutions implementing adopted strategies and legal acts. Such coordination also must be exercised by institution implementing public procurement policy and legal acts, supporting it, towards contracting authorities, institutions, public companies and other organizations, which performs public procurement. In case of the realization of wide usage of public procurement as a tool for promoting innovations, situation become very complicated, because coordination must be efficient not only between institutions, connected with implementation of public procurement policy, but also with institutions, responsible for the implementation of innovation policy. Often such responsibilities are granted for different sectors of government. Then the coordination must be prosecuted both in horizontal and vertical levels with no certain authority, which is responsible for harmonization of actions. The issue of appropriate coordination of procurement processes is also actual talking about next feature of successful implementation of innovation policy, qualification of officials dealing directly with technical requirements for the tenders.

The public procurement managers as persons, who directly implicate the certain requirements into the tender's documents, play very important role in all cases, when contracting authority envisages to purchase sophisticated products or services. The technical requirements are crucial element in the tenders and wise and foresights design of it, despite of sonorous aims of public policy, lies down on the shoulders of procurement managers. According Guy Callander and Jim McGuire, "the demands placed upon public managers, and the sophistication of purchasing and contracting activities they are undertaking, are forcing individuals and organizations to question the level of skills and professional standing required by people in procurement" (Callander G., McGuire J., 2007.). These scientists also declare, that the diversity of changing needs in public procurement is demonstrated by call for procurement staff to engage in delivering wider policy objectives, to be more customer-focused and service-oriented, to cooperate across organizational boundaries to undertake collaborative purchasing, and to work with electronic technologies to perform purchasing processes and develop data resources

on spend, contracts, suppliers, markets and so on. In addition, people in procurement are expected to meet traditional, overarching expectations by undertaking purchasing activities with probity, transparency and accountability, to achieve value- for- money outcomes, and to generate savings (Callander G., McGuire J., 2007). Such number of obligations and tasks creates a need of well educated, trained and skilful personnel, what not always is possible to obtain. Having in mind that biggest part of public procurement managers are civil servants with rare financial motivation depending on the results of work, it is possible to suspect, that the competence and qualification of such managers is a subject of constant observation and upgrade. If we add the element of the need to purchase innovative product, which is not already created, for the staff or contracting authority it is always a challenge which can be accomplished only by high qualified in-house specialist, or purchasing services of independent consultants.

Concluding this chapter is worth to emphasize, that minimum four dimensions of successful implementation of public procurement of innovation should be in mind: 1) concrete and possible to implement policy; 2) necessary legal framework; 3) effective institutional cooperation both in horizontal and vertical levels; 4) qualified and competent public procurement management.

Implementing Public Procurement of Innovation: case of Lithuania

One of the key elements of recently adopted by Council of European Union “Agreement on the reform of public procurement policy” is the strategic use of public procurement in response to new challenges. The new rules seek to ensure greater inclusion of common societal goals in the procurement process (Council of European Union, 2013). Innovations are one of such goals.

In 2000 by the Lisbon strategy, the European Union set itself the task to become the most competitive and dynamic knowledge-based economy in the world till 2010. Public procurement was one of the elements of action plan for implementation of this aim. Subsequent strategic documents have also involved public procurement as a tool for innovations demand promoting. Public procurement as one of the key instruments for stimulation of innovations was also mentioned in Europe 2020 strategy (European Commission, 2010), where it was named as a tool of improvement of framework conditions for business to innovate (by improving access to capital and making full use of demand side policies). The provisions of this strategy was extended by Commission’s Green Paper on

“The Modernization of Procurement Policy” (European Commission, 2011), were the public procurement of innovative products and services was named as crucial to improve the quality and efficiency of public services at a time of budget constraints. Mentioned and other programming documents of EU have determined quite high obligations of state members to take an adequate action for the implementation of established goals. In this part of article the Lithuanian response towards such European initiatives will be analysed, drawing focal attention towards legal environment of public procurement related with innovation promotion.

According to the Lithuanian Innovation Strategy for the year 2010-2020 (Government of the Republic of Lithuania, 2010), the state has a goal to develop innovations, thus public procurement as an instrument for it is not mentioned. The public procurement connected issues are included in Measures plan for implementation of mentioned strategy (Minister of Economics, 2010), where is envisaged that till the end of 2013 to gather, keep and propagate the information about the legal environment of PPI and about the good practice of exercising such purchases in Lithuania and other countries. As a result of such measures, it is envisaged that till the end of 2013 5 per cents of all public procurements value per year will be used-up for PPI. The worth to pay attention facts is that no financial support for implementation of this measure was envisaged. Another measure envisaged for implementation of strategy was the carrying on researches on public procurement of innovation markets. As the result of this measure the recommendations how to organize PPI were planned to present. For such activities one hundred thousands of litas was given for the Ministry of Economics and Ministry of Education. Presented provisions of the Measure plan show the paradoxical situation: quite ambitious plans are set up without financial resources.

After brief review on PPI issue in strategic documents concerning promotion of innovations in Lithuania, it is logical to proceed by analysis of documents regulating the sphere of public procurement in connection with innovations. The main source for the information concerning the strategic image for PPI in Lithuania is “Strategy of The Development and Expansion of Public Procurement System 2009-2013”. One of the main goals set up by this document is to create such public procurement policy, which would be harmonized with other EU politics trends (sustainable development, innovations, expansion of small and middle size business and etc.). Such declaration obliges Lithuanian governmental institutions to give a proper attention to the innovation promoting goal of public procurement as one of the strategic direction of EU public procurement policy. The 9th task of

this strategy is to stimulate innovations in public procurement. It is envisaged to achieve the criterion of 5 per cent for PPI on the strength of all public procurements. Thus this 5 per cents criterion is not clearly defined in regard of counting of it. There is no clarity should this value be counted from the number of prosecuted public procurement procedures, or from the total amount of it. The transitional results of achieving this task are showed in Table 3.1.

The data in the table shows, that till the beginning of 2013, the criterion of 5 per cents was not researched nor in regard with number or procurements procedures, nor in regard of certain amount in total value of public procurements. The data on I quarter of 2013 also do not show any positive changes in this field. Such conclusion should be supported by presumption that declarative provisions of strategies will not be implemented in practice without clear and concrete action plan, involving effective measures for promotion of innovations through procurements process.

Table 3.1. Public procurement of innovations in 2012.

Period	PPI	All procurements	PPI	All procurements	The value of PPI in relation with total value of public procurements, per cent
2012	The number of procurements		The Value of procurements, million LTL		
Small value tenders					
2012	1	735954	0	2009,3	0 %
International Threshold and simplified procurements procedures (without small value tenders)					
2012 I quarter	2	2261	0,1	3565,9	0 %
2012 II quarter	3	2914	1,4	1964,2	0%
2012 III quarter	4	2656	157,4	2515,2	6,3 %
2012 IV quarter	3	3110	1,9	4159,2	0 %
In total 2012	13	746895	160,8	14213,8	1,1

Source: Table is prepared by the author using the data of Public Procurement Office.

The legal environment of PPI in Lithuania in this article will be analysed taking into considerations direct and indirect legal opportunities to incorporate the challenge to buy innovative products and services. The analyses of direct opportunities must be started with evaluation of the main

legal act, regulating public procurement in Republic of Lithuania - Law on Public Procurement. The provisions of this law in detail covers different issues of the public procurement process, thus there is no legal rules, directly regulating requirements for the procurement procedures in cases of purchases of innovative products or services, as well as any other information, related with procurement of innovations. However, having in mind the main ways of entrance of innovations to the market through the public procurement procedures, it should be noticed that systematically analysing the provisions of Law on Public procurement there are possibilities to include the innovativeness into public procurement process. Further analyses will focus on indirect possibilities to join innovations and public procurement. Public Procurement office constantly prepared and presented for society the project of recommendation for organizers of PPI. In this document of non-obligatory character the main suggestions are presented in regard with preparation of technical specification, setting evaluation criterion, minimal qualification requirements and so on. It is obvious that the compilers of recommendations were referring to Commission Staff Working Document “Guide on dealing with innovative solutions in public procurement 10 elements of good practice” (European Commission, 2007). Using the suggestions provided by the composers of both documents, the Table 3.2 was formulated. The suggestions were supplemented by author, adding the reflection of it in constant Lithuanian legal system.

Table 3.2. The recommendations for PPI organizing.

Stage of public procurement	Main suggestions for innovations promoting	Legal basis	Additional information
I. Planning:			
1. identification the needs of contracting authority	constant gathering of information about the need of organization; involving users of the object of procurement into planning process; Include the PPI to the list of planned procurements;	7 article of Law on Public Procurement of the Republic of Lithuania	Mostly this stage of procurement is regulated by internal legal acts of purchasing organizations, because Law on Public procurement do not regulate how it should be done, just announce that the plan must be created.

2.exploration of the market	Search an information about innovations; Consult with suppliers in the market	-	There is no legal rule, provided in Law on Public Procurement, which allows holding consultation with suppliers before the announcement of the tender. The possibilities to break the principles of equality of treatment, non-discrimination and transparency would be created, in case of providing unfair consultations.
II. Designing procurement documents			
1.selecting the type of procurement procedure	The main types of procurement procedures, which simplify the purchase of innovations: 1.competitive dialogue; 2. project contest.	42 article of Law on Public Procurement of the Republic of Lithuania	Thus it should be mentioned, that selecting of other types of procurement procedure also can be adjusted for PPI following the suggestions listed in other lines of the Table 1. It should be noticed, that project contest can be organized only in procurement services connected with territory planning, services of architectures, engineers, data processing specialists or similar.
2.describing the object of procurement	Prepare technical specification by describing the desirable result or functional requirements in such way creating the opportunities to propose innovative decisions.	25 article of Law on Public Procurement of the Republic of Lithuania	Thus technical specification must be enough concrete and clear. In other case the possibility to conclude a procurement contract, confirming legal requirements of Law on public procurement, will disappear. The most problematic issue in this point is security of fair competition.
3.Setting up the qualification requirements for tenderers	Set up only minimal criteria in order innovative companies would be able to take a part in the tender	32 article of Law on Public Procurement of the Republic of Lithuania	Thus minimal criteria must be sufficient for evaluation of real possibilities to carry on the contract. The security of fair competition also should be taking into considerations.
4.Setting up the evaluation criteria	Use economic value criterion	39 article of Law on Public Procurement of the Republic of	The criterion of lowest price will close the possibilities for PPI, because innovations for the first client almost always are quite

		Lithuania	expensive.
5. Evaluation and dividing of risks	1.Explore the possible risks; 2.Share the risk with future supplier	-	The purchase of new products and services always has bigger risk to fail. That is why this issue is obligatory to discuss in the earliest stage of procurement.
6. Preparation of draft of the contract	Solve the question of intellectual property rights of innovation	-	In a process of purchasing product, which currently do not exists, the intellectual property right issues are obligatory to discuss.

Source: the author.

In summary, the information of Table 3.2 shows, that Lithuanian public procurement regulation is not ready yet to fully maintain the challenges of PPI, established by European Union. First of all the need of innovation may appear only from the initiative of people who have high level of knowledge of what market is able to propose. Thus the consultations with the market actors are not permitted by Law on Public procurement. Having in mind the imperative method of regulation of this institute of administrative law, the actions, which are not envisaged in law, are prohibited. Of course such strict attitude to the issue, in practice does not gain attention of preserving institutions. However, broad consultations in the market may create presumptions for unfair behaviour. One more problem is the low qualification of public procurement managers. In such cases, they may even without advance intention include discriminatory requirements into technical specification, only because inability to check the documentations, proposed from the possible future tenderers.

Analysing the types of procurement procedures, which mostly encourage innovativeness of proposals, the competitive dialog and project contest should be named. Competitive dialogue is the first opportunity for purchasing authority to demand innovative products or services. This type of award procedure was created by EU authorities for the establishing possibilities for more flexible process in complicated projects. In Lithuanian competitive dialogue was started to use in 2006. Thus competitive dialogue is not popular in Lithuania. According the data of Public procurement office during the 2012 no international thresholds of such procedures were carried on (Public Procurement office, 2012). Such situation shows, that despite the initiatives from EU policy makers to create innovation friendly environment in system of public procurement, no sufficient result in Lithuania can be noticed. Taking into consideration project contest as a type of public procurement, which has

potentiality to promote innovations, the restriction for purchasing authorities to use it should be listed. Project contest can be organized only in procurement services connected with territory planning, services of architectures, engineers, and data processing specialists or similar. In case of product purchases, such type of procurement procedures will not be suitable. To sum up, it is obvious that today in Lithuanian public procurement legislation, there is no attractive for purchasing authorities types or procurement, which directly determine the purchase of innovations.

Another are, where legal uncertainty is possible is the risk management. New things, new solutions always are risky till the full implementation and inspection of it in practice. Currently there is no requirement to include in the contracts of purchasing innovations provisions concerning the division of mentioned risks. According to the fact, that Lithuanian legislator is inclined to regulate public procurement process and even main terms of public purchasing contracts in detail; the suggestion to include such requirements is rendered. The similar suggestion must be given in regard with intellectual property rights. This issue no doubly will appear, when purchased innovation will be created.

Conclusions

High purchasing power allows governments to use public procurement to achieve certain additional goals. One of possible appliance of public procurement is promoting of innovations.

There is quite wide range of terms describing buying something, which does not currently exist, but the concept of PPI is mostly used. This social phenomenon in the context of this research is described as public procurement process of buying innovative services or products.

The cost of primal presenting of innovations to the market refers to high initial investments. The purchasing power of government is widely recognizes as a toll to encourage the innovative initiatives by guarantying certain amounts of sales.

The four main elements of successful implementation of PPI should be listed: 1) concrete and manageable PPI policy; 2) necessary legal framework; 3) effective institutional cooperation; 4) qualified and competent public procurement management.

In the Republic of Lithuania promotion of PPI, as a one of underlying goals of EU's public procurement policy, has a reflection in Lithuanian strategic documents and legal acts. Lithuanian

Government even has set up the 5 per cent PPI criterion. However, from the current statistical data it is obvious that this criterion will not be reached till the end of 2013.

The Law on Public Procurement as the main legal act regulating this institute does not include any provisions directly related with regulation of PPI. Thus the systemic analyses of this legal act, showed, that the presumptions to carry on procurement of innovative product exists. The innovations may be purchased by Lithuanian public administration sector using the innovations friendly types of procurement procedures (competitive dialogue and project contests), or by specifying the purchasing object describing only the desirable result or functional requirements, not the concrete characteristic of it. Another key elements of buying innovations are the minimal qualification requirements for tenderers and using economic value criterions instead of lowest price.

Suggestions

The legal term of innovative public procurement (in Lithuanian: *inovatyvūs viešieji pirkimai*), which is used in legislation of the Republic of Lithuania, should be replaced with more precise term of public procurement of innovations (in Lithuanian: *viešieji inovacijų pirkimai*).

In strategic PPI related documents, the criterion of 5 per cent PPI is set unclearly. It is worth to clarify these provisions by uniformly stating is this value counted from the total number or from the total value of prosecuted public procurements. Also, it is necessary for further planning time-period to undertake more concrete and result oriented actions, in order to fulfil it. The statement of obligation to carrying on certain number PPI per year also should be discussed.

It is also suggested to discuss the need of setting the main framework for the pre-procurement consultations of public procurement managers and potential suppliers. Certain provisions of Law on Public Procurement, which envisage rules for holding dialogue in initial stage of public procurement, will encourage managers to exercise it more openly and preserving the principles of transparency and equal opportunities of all potential tenderers.

The promotion of PPI should be carried on having in mind the novelty of such phenomena. The certain legislation concerning the setting of requirements of risks evaluation and sharing as well as solving the question of belonging of intellectual property rights of newly produced innovative production, should be included in the list of obligatory contract clauses in case of PPI.

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Chapter 4: The Importance of Promoting Youth Entrepreneurship in a Globalised Context

AUDRA VIŠOCKAITĖ & JURATĖ VALICKIENĖ

Introduction

Contemporary society is shaping itself in a new globalised context which also has a significant impact on business. Fast-paced development of technology, hyper-competitiveness, constant change and flows of information present new opportunities as well as new challenges. Under such circumstances, scholars are taking a keener interest in youth entrepreneurship, its influence on the world economy and business processes. More efficient ways of stimulating entrepreneurship among young people are being researched in recognition of the fact that youth entrepreneurship ensures essential features for a society in a globalized world: innovativeness, active participation in and concern for the well-being and progress of society, productivity, the ability to perceive opportunities and take advantage of them.

The promotion of youth entrepreneurship is a field that has been little investigated. It is a difficult and complex phenomenon, spanning many areas of scientific inquiry and practical activity. There has been no unified strategic analysis of theoretical youth entrepreneurship stimulation models, including specific components crucial to developing entrepreneurship opportunities for young people under the conditions of globalisation. Though there has been some analysis of entrepreneurship by both foreign and Lithuanian authors, these works dealt with specific aspects of entrepreneurship or were based on different reasoning or research methods.

Various aspects of entrepreneurship are analysed in scientific studies. The definition of entrepreneurship was analysed by P. Drucker (1985); R.D. Hisrich, M.P. Peters (1998); A.Z. Timmons, S.A. Spinelli (2003); J. Kirby (2004). The entrepreneurial process was analysed by W. E. McMullan, W.A. Long (1987); A.Z. Timmons, S.A. Spinelli (2003).

Lithuanian scholars have also investigated various aspects of entrepreneurship in their scientific research. Business activity and entrepreneurship were defined by Z. Lydeka (1996). Entrepreneurship among school pupils was analysed by J. Valuckienė, J. Ruškus, S. Balčiūnas (2004); the role of entrepreneurial education in the educational process was analysed by G. Strazdienė, A. Garalis (2008). The necessity for state investment into youth entrepreneurship was analysed by Ž. Židonis (2012); the entrepreneurial education of university and college students was analysed by P. Zakarevičius, A. Župerka (2011). The preferences and financial stimulants of economics graduates in workplace choices were analysed by V. Novikevičius, B. Vėlyvytė, A. Visockaitė (2009).

The lack of a conceptual entrepreneurship promotion model is a significant problem, making such research especially relevant.

The importance of youth entrepreneurship in a globalised world and how to stimulate entrepreneurship

R. K. Shastri, S. Kumar and M. Ali (2009) state that youth entrepreneurship is important not only on an individual level, but also on a societal and global level because what a young person creates with his/her initiative, skills and innovative ideas contributes not only to his/her own quality of life, but also to the progress of society. The authors argue that the stimulation of youth entrepreneurship and active participation of young people in business is important as it ensures the following:

- financial gain for the individual;
- independence and creation of new jobs;
- the development of new fields of industry, especially in rural and less developed regions;
- stimulation of exports, use and processing of local resources into useful products and services;
- healthy competitiveness and expansion into new markets;
- development of research, studies and technology;
- promotion of entrepreneurial traits and appropriate attitudes towards independent business activity, in turn, the stimulation of the development of various regions and the improvement of quality of life in local communities;

- the opportunity to achieve favourable results in an individual's professional career, increasing life satisfaction, and in turn, improving the psychosocial health of society;
- containment of the shadow economy; a decrease of talent emigration.

R. K. Shastri, S. Kumar and M. Ali (2009) identify many important factors contributing to the improvement of society and the quality of life. The benefits of youth entrepreneurship described by the authors are significant because they enable young people to constantly seek out and stimulate changes, and to perceive these changes caused by globalisation not as risks, but as opportunities that can be used to stimulate the advancement of society. It can be said that in the context of globalisation, appropriately encouraged entrepreneurship among young people increases their awareness of global issues, their sense of responsibility to solve problems in society, and contribute to its well-being.

F. Chigunta (2002) indicates that youth entrepreneurship has social and economic benefits, which manifest themselves first of all in young peoples' appropriate attitudes towards business, greater involvement in the economic and social life of society, a greater sense of responsibility for the stimulation of positive societal change. The author states that young people who have had suitable conditions and opportunities to realise their business ideas had the following qualities: "[...] business vision, business discipline, a positive outlook on the business sector, the ability to identify and take advantage of new business opportunities, patience in achieving results, determination and stamina, the ability to quickly pick themselves up after failure". This enables them to grow into responsible and active members of society, significantly contributing to the development of the business sector. The data presented in the Figure 4.1 demonstrates that the stimulation of youth entrepreneurship combines personal and societal benefits to create an improved quality of life under the conditions of globalization.

T. Vinig and J. de Kluijver (2007) state that various aspects of globalisation affect youth entrepreneurship. The authors identify three principal forms of globalisation which have an influence on the stimulation of entrepreneurship:

1. *economic globalisation* – many businesses, organisations and business ideas go beyond the borders of a single country; global international business relations are created and developed;

2. *political globalisation* – international standards are being developed and national politics are influenced by world events. This has an impact on the business sector and youth entrepreneurship;
3. *social globalisation* – manifesting itself in more opportunities (for young people as well) to exchange ideas and information with people all over the world, to communicate with people from different countries. This is facilitated by informational technology, various exchange programmes, etc.

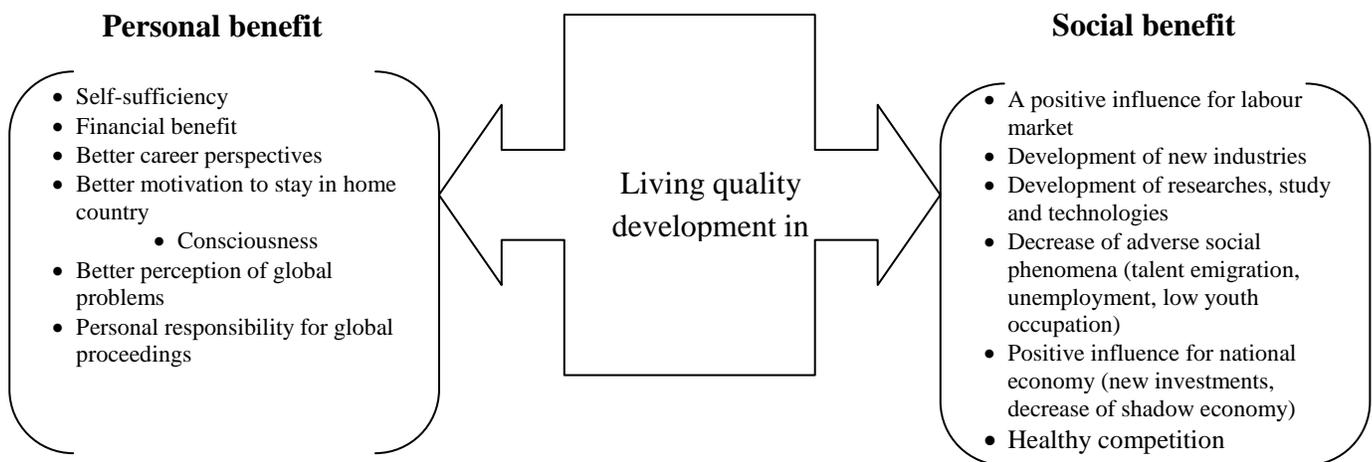


Figure 4.1. The importance of youth entrepreneurship under the conditions of globalisation.

(Source: authors)

This demonstrates that youth entrepreneurship is influenced by many factors arising from the processes of globalisation. Though the majority of authors are of the opinion that such conditions generate more opportunities for young peoples' business activities, it also means that youth entrepreneurship has a global significance and countries must create favourable conditions at the global level for fostering the independent activity of young people in the climate of increased competitiveness.

F. Chigunta (2002) identifies the most important factors for stimulating youth entrepreneurship: "[...] access to working capital; access to and use of the latest technologies and equipment; development of new products and enabling young people to test their ideas out in practice, generating added value". Therefore, in stimulating youth entrepreneurship it is most important to offer practical assistance, especially in the provision of needed resources and programs, which would enable young people to develop their entrepreneurial abilities. The author also maintains that provision of the following vital conditions must be made on a global scale: programs for the development of

entrepreneurial skills; consultation about business issues; mentor (supervisory) support; access to work spaces (the possibility to have a space for work and generating ideas); sponsorship of youth business development; establishment of local, national and international support networks. Various state and international organisations working to promote youth entrepreneurship usually base their programs and recommendations on these notions.

The National Institute for Development (2008) lists the most important means of promoting youth entrepreneurship:

- education – favourable conditions for the entrepreneurial education of young people, spanning both formal and informal systems, must be created. Promotion of entrepreneurship should be included in all educational programs and the entire lifelong learning system. Scientific research and innovation should also be encouraged in this field;
- a financial mechanism – i.e., various financial support programs to promote youth businesses, credit opportunities;
- politics – a regulatory environment encouraging youth entrepreneurship; politicians who are responsible and have not lost touch with reality; suitable youth policy on a national level;
- collaboration networks – large companies uniting to help young people develop their entrepreneurial abilities, start their own businesses;
- information technologies;
- monitoring of the entrepreneurial situation and the promotion of entrepreneurship.

These are the methods needed to ensure the management, evaluation and monitoring of youth entrepreneurship on a national level.

When analysing youth entrepreneurship and seeking to create favourable conditions for the realisation of independent business activity and ideas, it is important to investigate and understand the models of youth entrepreneurship.

Models of youth entrepreneurship

The term "business model" is popular and widely used in management and strategic management literature. However, in scientific literature the term is not as clearly defined.

A. Osterwalder (2009) suggests analysing the term *business model* firstly by defining its separate components, i.e., *business* and *model*. In a general sense, *business* can be described as any activity during which products and/or services are bought and sold; as the activity of an organisation that purchases and sells; or the profitable work of an individual. The term *model* can then be generally perceived as an example of a real object or activity, usually much smaller in size than the original model; or simply a description of the original model, with which the original object can be calculated and reproduced. Based on the definitions provided by this author, it can be argued that a business model is a representation reflecting an organisation's activity: what it does, how it operates, who it provides products and services for, what processes create added value, its principal suppliers, resources, sources of income, and market segments. According to Y. Pigneur (2009), the term *business model* is often generally understood as a logical justification of how an organisation operates, provides products and services as well as the way it defines value. A business model enables the understanding, description and anticipation of how a business functions in the real world by providing a simplified representation.

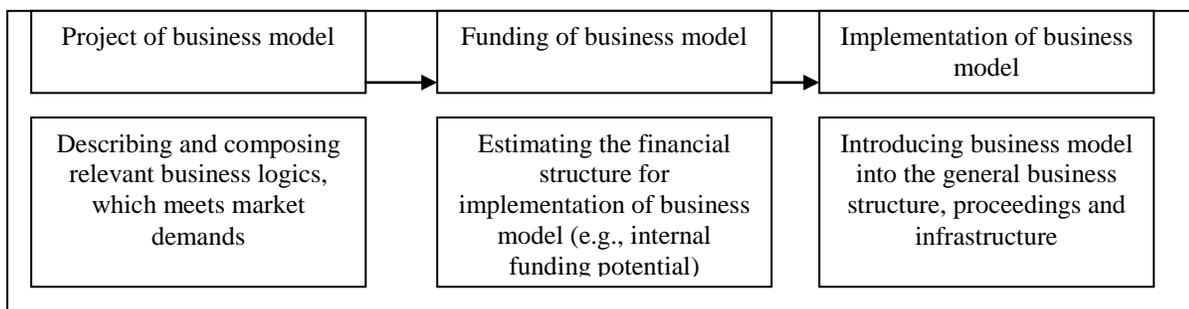


Figure 4.2. The stages of a business model.

(Source: compiled by authors according to Osterwalder, 2009)

The development of a business model depicted in Figure 4.2 shows the stages from model project to practical implementation. The first stage describes how an organisation will operate and how it will generate its profit. External business conditions under which the organisation will have to operate are also taken into account. The second stage describes projected external and internal resources which are to support the business model. The final stages demonstrate a transition from planning to practical implementation of the model, when the business model becomes a part of the organisation's structure.

D. W. Stewart and Q. Zhao (2000) suggest perceiving the concept of a business model as "[...] a statement of how a firm will make money and sustain its profit stream over time." The definition provided by these authors corresponds in part to that offered by A. Osterwalder and Y. Pigneur (2009), who also accentuate that a business model describes how an organisation operates and how it generates its profit, though it can be argued that A. Osterwalder's (2009) definition is broader because it is not limited to a description of profit, as it is in D. W. Stewart's and Q. Zhao's (2000) theory

M.C. Mayo and G.S. Brown (1999) highlight that a business model is a concept that helps an organisation maintain its advantage on the market. This is why, according to the authors, a business model is "[...] the key interdependence of systems that create and sustain a competitive business." The interdependent systems indicated are the components that make up a business model.

Definitions of business model components, as of the business model concept itself, are many and varied – different authors indicate different components. For example, J. Hedman and T. Kalling (2003) state that the principal components of a business model are clients, competitors, offers, activity and organisation, resources and production costs. On the other hand, other authors argues that a business model is characterized by three main components: the external environment, its demands and values; the offering of the organisation and its internal aspects, e.g., its organisational structure, resources, expertise, capabilities, systems, and values.

According to M. Morris, M. Schindehutte and J. Allen (2005), there are so many business model component theories that it is difficult to distinguish one above the rest. The opinions of various authors have been presented in order to reveal the complexity and ambiguity of theories explaining the business model concept.

However, according to the authors of this article, recurring components can be distinguished. This allows concluding that certain components are the fundamentals of a business model: values, relationships with clients, resources, sources of income, production and/or services, and management. These are the principal aspects of business that should be understood by young people who seek to create their own business and develop their business ideas.

According to H. Chesbrough (2007), it is important to understand the concept of a business model and its components because this model carries out certain functions necessary for a successful business:

1. helps create and define the value of an organisation's activity and what it can offer to clients;
2. identifies the market segment, i.e., identifies the target group that benefits from the organisation's activity and how it benefits from it;
3. describes the suppliers and clients of the organisation; indicates the raw materials required, the value received by the user, i.e., defines the entire cycle of production and generation of profit, as well as foreseeing how it will maintain its position on the market;
4. projects the structure of an organisation's expenditures as well as its potential for profit;
5. helps develop a competitive strategy, allowing the organisation to maintain its competitive advantage.

Youth entrepreneurship must be developed by supplementing the business model with a few additional aspects that would demonstrate that young people need support and financing to develop and implement their business ideas. M. Clemensson and J. D. Christensen (2010) indicate that a youth entrepreneurship model is comprised of several important components.

First, this means the development of entrepreneurial culture. According to the authors, a young person's social and cultural attitudes as well as the system of moral values have a great influence on whether a young individual will have the determination to start his/her own business.

Entrepreneurial education is distinguished by M. Clemensson and J. D. Christensen (2010) as a separate youth entrepreneurship model component. They argue that any strategy to promote youth entrepreneurship cannot be successful, if young people are not given a chance to acquire knowledge about business and how it is created or to develop the skills necessary for the setup and management of a business. However, the authors stress that entrepreneurial education cannot be limited to the development of business knowledge and skills, it must also include the development of "[...] appropriate attitudes pertaining to entrepreneurship and related skills which will benefit young people personally in other areas of life, their community and society as a whole". This demonstrates that youth entrepreneurship is not only important to the individual, but to society as well.

The authors also distinguish another youth entrepreneurship component – accessibility of financial resources. One of the most frequently mentioned components are sources of financial income to promote youth entrepreneurship. For young people to create a business it is important to ensure the possibility for them to receive financial support and take advantage of various support programs

promoting youth entrepreneurship. Another essential component is the existence of programs/schemes designed to support and provide the services for the promotion of youth entrepreneurship. These are collaborative efforts of business organisations to develop and create opportunities for young people to implement their business ideas, test their strengths and become acquainted with business principles. Another widespread form of support is business mentoring – mentors can be business representatives or youth workers that support young people by consulting them, providing them with relevant information and so on.

Summarizing the business model components and the specifics of youth business models set out earlier, the article presents a business model (see Figure 4.3) that includes business model components most commonly distinguished by the authors in this field. They are structures, capital, resources, production and other processes, technologies, information and internal as well as external communications. The presented model for the promotion of youth entrepreneurship also includes specific components. First of all, this refers to youth organisations, funds and programs that have a great impact on youth entrepreneurship, providing young people with various types of support (financing, consulting, training, etc.).

Another important aspect of promoting youth entrepreneurship is the development of entrepreneurial culture, the advancement of appropriate attitudes, both in young people and society, towards business and the benefits it provides for the community and society in general. This is why suitable outlooks and an entrepreneurial culture are a solid basis for a youth entrepreneurship model.

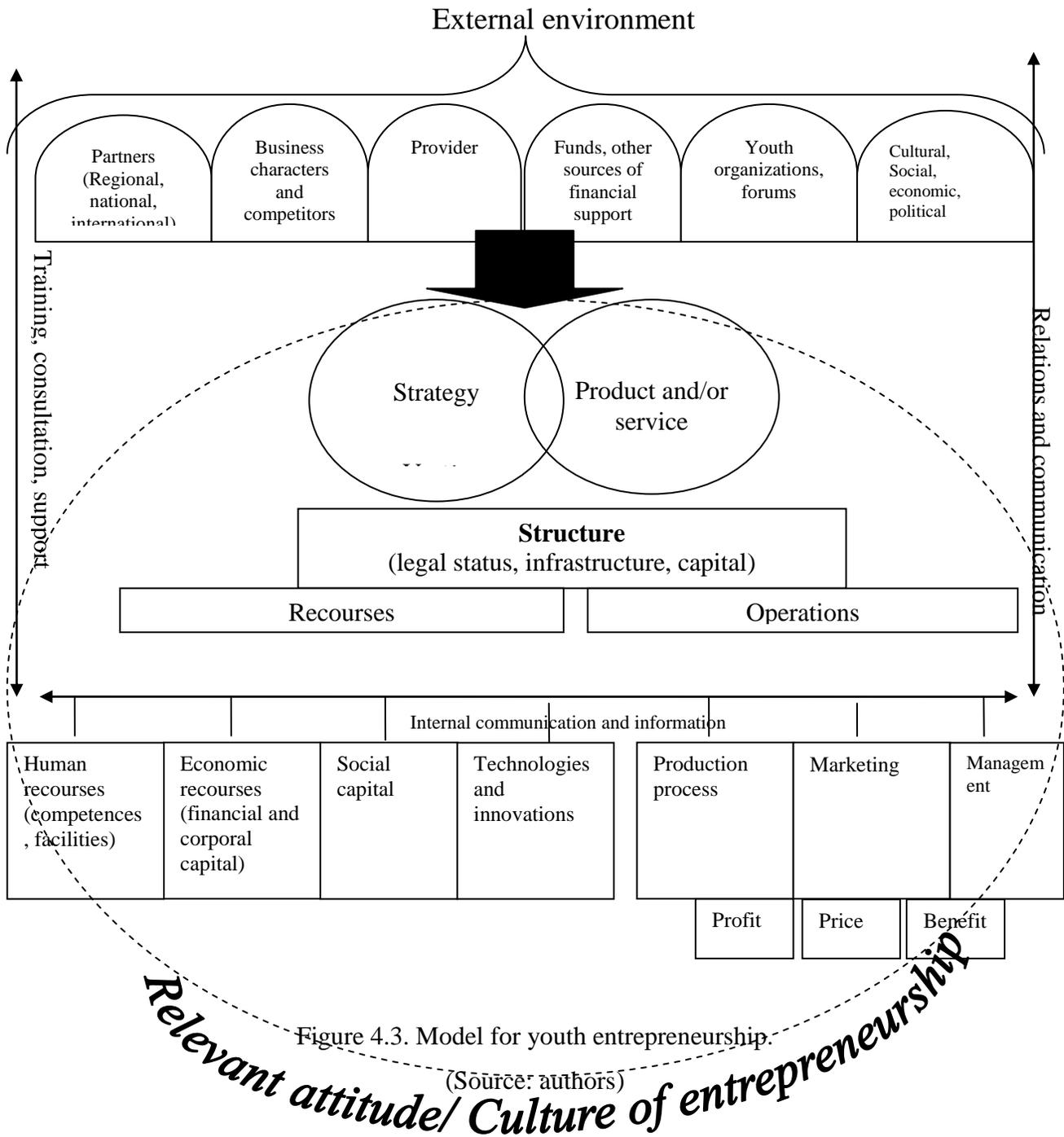


Figure 4.3. Model for youth entrepreneurship.

(Source: authors)

The presented situation of youth entrepreneurship under globalised conditions, the need to promote opportunities for young people to set up their own businesses, and the described youth entrepreneurship models reveal the main theoretical aspects of youth entrepreneurship. It can be observed that youth entrepreneurship is becoming significantly more important in contemporary

society. Opportunities for young people to implement their business ideas are not only important on a personal level, they also contribute to the well-being of society as a whole. Theoretical analysis has demonstrated that opportunities for young people to develop and implement their business ideas strengthens their sense of responsibility for what is happening in their own lives as well as their communities, society, and the world. This creates new job positions, encourages young people to be active, to take the initiative, and realise their potential.

The model presented in this article will help to explain the importance of promoting youth entrepreneurship and enable young people as well as the institutions and organisations working with them to look at the problem from a different angle.

Conclusions

The theoretical analysis has shown that entrepreneurship and globalisation are interrelated phenomena. Globalisation has a great impact on the conditions of the development of youth entrepreneurship, making it gain global significance. Youth entrepreneurship is influenced by conditions created by the processes of globalisation. Though the majority of authors are of the opinion that such conditions generate more opportunities for young peoples' business activities, it also means that youth entrepreneurship has a global significance and countries worldwide must create favourable conditions for fostering the independent activity of young people in a climate of increased competitiveness.

There is no consistent definition of business models in scientific literature. This complicates the task of defining the business model concept and its components. Scholars also present differing definitions of business model components: some indicate that these components include all processes and factors related to business (from suppliers, competitors and clients, to the production process, resources and produced goods and services), and others argue that business model components only define the main conditions in which a business is developed, these conditions are then further divided into more specific aspects (resources, sources of income, clients, products and/or services, etc.). Therefore, it is difficult to clearly define the business model concept, though based on the definitions discussed, it could be generalised that a business model is a simplified representation of an organisation's attitude towards its activity, the resources used to gain profit, what it does to sustain the

growth of profit and maintain its competitive edge, what operations help it create value for its clients and society.

It has been established that development of a youth entrepreneurship model should be based on a certain structure. The foundations of this model are composed of the regulatory environment, strategies promoting entrepreneurship, and capital, i.e., the means that create a solid basis for youth entrepreneurship. The biggest influence on the implementation of the model should be made by practical means: a young person's business resources (human, economic, technological resources and innovations as well as social capital) and operations. The difference between a youth entrepreneurship model and a business model is that young people require additional support systems: the opportunity to seek out consultation, to receive advice and become acquainted with examples of successful businesses. The basis for a youth entrepreneurship model should be appropriate attitudes and a thriving entrepreneurial culture.

In order to develop a successful youth entrepreneurship process, the collaboration of young people, organisations working with them and state institutions is recommended when implementing the business model presented. The model suggested in this article will help to understand the importance of promoting youth entrepreneurship and enable young people as well as the institutions and organisations working with them to look at the essence of this problem from a different angle.

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Chapter 5: Small and Medium Business in Economics of the Country: Tendencies, Abilities, Macroeconomic Efficiency

GEDIMINAS DAVULIS

Introduction

In today's economy, small and medium business (SMB) plays an important role. SMB and its subjects - small and medium-sized enterprises (SME) and individual producers are the largest socio-economic group of the country. SME comprises even 99 % of all enterprises operating in Lithuania. More than 70 % of the all employees that generates more than 50 % of total value-added works in SME. The latter global economic crisis showed ability of SME to adapt to market changes better in comparison with larger companies. Namely SME helps to create new jobs, which is very important in conditions of high level unemployment. Small business will also promote competition in the market. It is important that SME fills the niche which a large company would not be able to complete it all-scale. On the other hand SME is facing a number of problems. Usually small businesses has not enough the initial capital, financial resources, and often the knowledge and business skills. In the scientific literature, is analyzed and other SMB problems as lack of working capital, the complex legal basis, high competition, as small and medium-sized enterprises have to compete not only at EU level, but also at home with the big companies, the relatively high the burden of taxation, low consumer purchasing power, uneven conditions in different regions of the country. Since small businesses are more vulnerable than big business, because the state support is very important for small business. It is true that there have been created conditions to get some support for development of SMB in Lithuania.

Both Lithuanian and foreign researchers deals with various aspects of activities of SME and their subjects, some of them should be mentioned: Banyš (2006), Baršauskas (2003), Bartkus (2010), Ciochina (2008), Dikčius (2007), Garuckas (2007), Grublienė and Lengvinienė (2011), Gunasekaran (2013), Jakutis and Bandza (2006), Jung (2013), Misiunas (2008), Smagurauskienė (2009), Štreimikienė (2007), Vijeikis and Baležentis (2010) and others. However there are not scientific works

that deals with impact economic crisis to the changes in the structure of the system of Lithuanian business enterprises. The novelty is proposed in this article - in addition to profit, as the company's activity criteria, to use the new criterion efficiency which reflects macroeconomics aspects of activity of enterprises of different types. The proposed macroeconomics criterion of efficiency in opposite profit criterion includes and social aspects expressing a contribution of individual kinds of enterprises to the country GDP.

Purpose of this article is to analyze the theoretical aspects of the small and medium business, as well as its status in country economy, to clear the tendencies of changes in the structure of SME during the economic crisis, to define the macroeconomic efficiency of SME, taking into account their contribution to the country's GDP. The actuality of this study is determined by the importance of SME on such a small country as Lithuania, the economy and negative tendencies of SME development in the country. The research methods are the studies of scientific literature, the logical analysis of laws and statistical data of European Union and the Republic of Lithuania.

SMB importance for the country's economy and the problems

SMB are an integral part of the modern economy, and make very significant activity for country's economic development. The role of SMB for the national economy is important in social, political, economic and evolutionary aspects (Misiunas, 2008). SMB is the basis of state economy and the thriving of the middle class, and a guarantor of political stability in the country for the middle class. The economic role of SMB shows through its contribution to economic growth and the impact of macroeconomic indicators. SMB is able to adapt to changing market conditions and create new jobs much easier than big business, thus contributing to the country's well-being and economic development.

The importance of the SMB for economy emphasize and other authors: Bartkus (2010), Garuckas et al (2007), Ciochina et al (2008), Gunasekaran et al (2011) and others. SMB create jobs, spread innovation, create the necessary competitive environment, and cooperate with large companies, helping them optimize their manufacturing processes. Market competitiveness and growth in Europe and the rest of the world economy, is largely determined by the SMB development. SMB also contributes to innovation. The scientific literature suggests that about 30-60 % of SME can be defined

as innovative business. A large number of SME creates the necessary competitive environment. Traditionally, small and medium-sized enterprises due to its size and flexibility gain the advantage to adapt better to the changes of the market. SME dominate in the sphere of strategic business services, i.e. information technology, computers software deliveries, e-commerce services, marketing and act changing structure of the market (Štreimikienė et al, 2007).

Despite the indisputable importance of SME to the economy, its activities and the development faces a number of problems. In the work (Banyšandal, 2006) are presented the main obstacles of development of SMB, some of which according to the authors are directly related to government policy and its activities (not always favorable laws, frequent its changes, tax rates, etc.). The lack of job skills and workforce education are also significant barriers to ensure business growth.

Some authors (Vijeikis and Baležentis, 2010) points out that the process of creation of new firms is a fairly complex process, entrepreneur soften lack enough initial capital, and other financial resources, management and other skills. An important obstacle to SMB development in Lithuania is the different potential of development in this sector of economic and its development opportunities in different regions. SMB growth is hampered by lack of funds and working capital, relatively high labor taxation, the excess of its operational control too (Misevičius, 2010).

Some authors (Griffiths and Wall, 2008), highlight such problems faced by SMB: the banks' reluctance to lend, or lend at high interest rates, lack of knowledge and skills of entrepreneurs not always conducive legal environment of the corporate establishment procedures, and documentation.

The analysis of the scientific literature shows that problems and obstacles for the development of SMB are actually quite a few. Summarizing the various opinions, it can be stated that the most important barriers to SMB development is too high taxes and too complex legal framework and a complex process of obtaining support. More actual problems in the development of SMB are becoming skilled labor shortages, and a minimum wage increase introduced from 1 January of 2013. Analyzing of the SMB development problems must be seen in the fact that the problem is not just external, but internal too, i.e. lack of management and working skills and sometimes the inability to quickly adapt to market changes.

Subjects of small and medium-sized business

The conception of small and medium-sized business (SMB) is defined in the acting law on the small and medium-sized business development of the Republic of Lithuania. According to this law, the subject of SMB is “medium-sized enterprises, small enterprises (among them micro-sized enterprises) as well as natural persons, that have a right, in line with the order established by law, to undertake a self-dependent commercial, productive, professional or any other similar activity, including that undertaken with a business license. In the sequel, we shall consider only that part of SMB subjects, which are attributed to enterprises.

In 1998, the conception of small business enterprise (SBE) was legitimized for the first time. Before Lithuanian’s joining the European Union it was different from the comprehension accepted in EU, however, after Lithuania became a member of EU, it was unified. In the EU countries SBEs are considered to be self-dependent, taking but a small part of the market, not dominant enterprises in the field of their activities, that are relatively small and their capital belongs to one person, under the right of ownership, or to a small group of people. At present, SBE criteria, valid in Lithuania, are coordinated with that presented in the Recommendation 2003/361/EC of the European Commission. Thus, in Lithuania SBE is also an SMB subject, the number of employees of which does not exceed 250, while financial indicators meet at least one of the following requirements: annual income does not exceed 138 mill Lt, and the value of property, indicated in the balance sheet, does not exceed 93 mill Lt. For a small enterprise, the number of employees, annual turnover and assets in the annual balance sheet should not exceed 50 mill, 24 mill, and 17 mill Lit, respectively. For a very small enterprise (micro-sized enterprise) the values of these indicators are equal to 10 mill, 7 mill and 5 mill Lit, respectively.

SBE may also differ according to legal-organization forms. The laws of Lithuania provide an opportunity to establish business enterprises of the following legal kinds: individual enterprise (IE), small partnership (SP), general partnership enterprise (GPE), limited partnership enterprise (LPE), limited liability company (LLC), public liability company (PLC), agricultural company, cooperatives, as well as European economic interest groups, European associations and European cooperative companies. Lithuanian laws of the corresponding kinds of enterprises regulate the status, foundation, activity peculiarities, management and other aspects of these enterprises. Sole proprietorships and

partnership enterprises are legal entities of unlimited civil liability (an exception is not general members (limited partners) of limited partnership enterprise, whose liability is limited by their part of property which was trusted to the partnership under the joint venture agreement). All other kinds of companies are legal entities of limited civil liability.

Support to the SMB development and institutions providing it in Lithuania

The SMB development predetermines for the most part the market economy competitiveness and growth in Lithuania as well as in European and other countries of the world, therefore its stimulation is one of the most important tasks of development in Lithuania. Though the representatives of small and medium-sized business face various problems in developing their business, the Lithuania state and EU provides not a few opportunities to be used by businessmen. In 2008 European Commission adopted a “Small Business Act” which provides the principles aimed at stimulating the SMB development rendering thereby equal conditions for SBE activities in all the EU states. The strategy of the Lithuanian economic development up to 2015 defines SMB as “one of the main economic growth factor that has essential effect on the general evolution of the Lithuanian economy, new job creation and social stability, therefore its extension is one of the most significant trends of the Lithuanian economic policy”.

The support of the Lithuanian state to SBE is legalized by the law on the small and medium-sized business of the Republic of Lithuania, which provides support means that can be grouped into financial (tax allowances, soft loan, grant of a very soft loan, partial or full interest covering, rendering of guarantees, credit insurance) and non-financial means (rendering of public services for companies in business information incubators, business information centers, science and technology parks) as well as other support forms, defined by the Government or local institutions of municipalities.

Tax allowances are of special importance to small enterprises. In Lithuania a lower income tax rate is applied to the enterprises, in which the average number of workers does not exceed 10 (for micro-sized enterprises). Guarantees for loans are provided via the state controlled guarantee institution, established in 2002, i.e. “Investment and business guarantees” (INVEGA). INVEGA can guarantee return of a part of the first loan to the bank up to 80 % of the loan sum.

One of the most important country's institutions that stimulate business in Lithuania is Ministry of Economics which in 2010 prepared a strategic document "Trends of small and medium-sized business development", in which business stimulation means following the priority direction are presented. In Lithuanian municipalities small and medium-sized business stimulation funds are established which give a financial support to SMB subjects for partial interest compensation, as well as for interest-free loans and for defrayal of other SMB expenses.

After joining EU Lithuania acquired favorable conditions to use the financial support from EU structural, European social, and European regional development funds. The financial EU support to SMB is most frequently allotted to teaching, technological expansion, export increase and optimization of activities.

Among most popular forms of non-financial support are services provided by business incubators and various business centers. According to the data of the Lithuanian business development agency, at present services are provided by 38 business information centers and 6 business incubators established in the regions of Lithuania. These offices provide services to SMB subjects in various ways relative with business such as advice, teaching, practical help, rent of premises as well as intercede when looking for partners both in Lithuania and abroad. "Lithuanian economic development agency" established by Ministry of Economics provides information on potential export markets for SMB subjects and stimulates exports. The Lithuanian innovation center provides a help by initiating and preparing projects for SBE.

Despite that the state renders not so few possibilities of expanding SMB, enterprises seeking some support often face bureaucratic obstacles and certain specific requirements that course troubles in getting support (Grublienė and Lengvinienė, 2011).

Change tendencies in the system of SMB enterprises

In Fig. 5.1 the structure of Lithuanian enterprises in 2012 is presented according to their size. Based on January 1, 2013 data of the Department of Statistics under the Lithuanian Government, small and medium-sized business enterprises made up 99,5 % of the total enterprises operating in the country. The most abundant group according to the members of workers is micro-sized enterprises

(almost 78 % of the total number of enterprises). The smallest group is medium-sized enterprises, that comprise 3.6 % of the total number of enterprises.

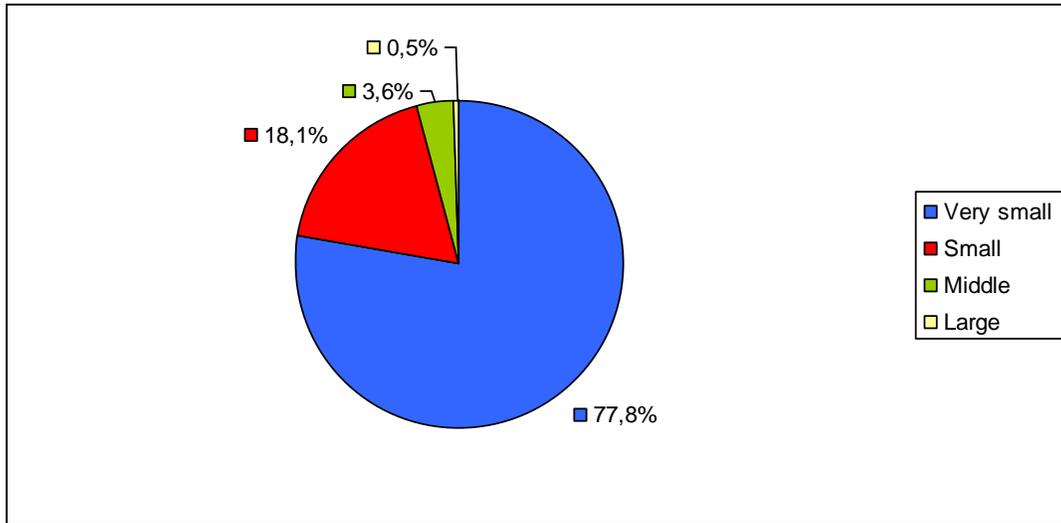


Figure 5.1. Composition of Lithuanian enterprises according to their size in 2012.

Enterprises attributed to small and medium-sized business are rather different in line with their legal-organizational forms. Individual enterprises (IE), small partnership (SP), general partnership enterprise (GPE), limited partnership enterprise (LPE), limited liability company (LLC), public liability company (PLC), agricultural company, cooperatives and others belongs to SME category. According to the basis of data of the Department of Statistics, the most abundant group of SMB enterprises is limited liability company (LLC), that make up 81 % of total SME operating in Lithuania. This legal form is rather popular, because LLC is legal entity of limited civil liability, so it is responsible for its debts only by the company's assets. A number of individual enterprises are relatively significant - it comprised 17 % of active SMEs. Individual enterprises are attractive by the fact that for beginning of activity it suffices a small capital, its founder and worker can be only one natural person, management of such enterprise is much simpler, and in case of need, it can be arranged into LLC. Public liability companies (PLC) comprise quite a small part. They are rare, because the minimal regulations capital amount is 150.000 Lt, that means such companies are medium-sized, and the number of them is much lower than that of small.

According to data of the Department of Statistics the number of small and medium-sized enterprises was constantly increasing in Lithuania from 2006 to 2009. That was determined by the constant improving of business conditions, because there was the period of economic rise (boom) in Lithuania. However, since 2009 we can notice a sudden decrease of and medium-sized enterprises. In 2010 there were acting 1785 enterprises less than in 2009. This fact shows that economic crisis has made a strong negative effect on of small and medium-sized business in Lithuania. In 2011 the number of large enterprises which recovery is more complicated than SBE, decreased almost by 24 %. Though the number of SBE decreased once more in 2011, however, during 2012 SBE recovered and at the beginning of 2013 their number increased by 4.6 % as compared to 2012 (Fig. 5.2).

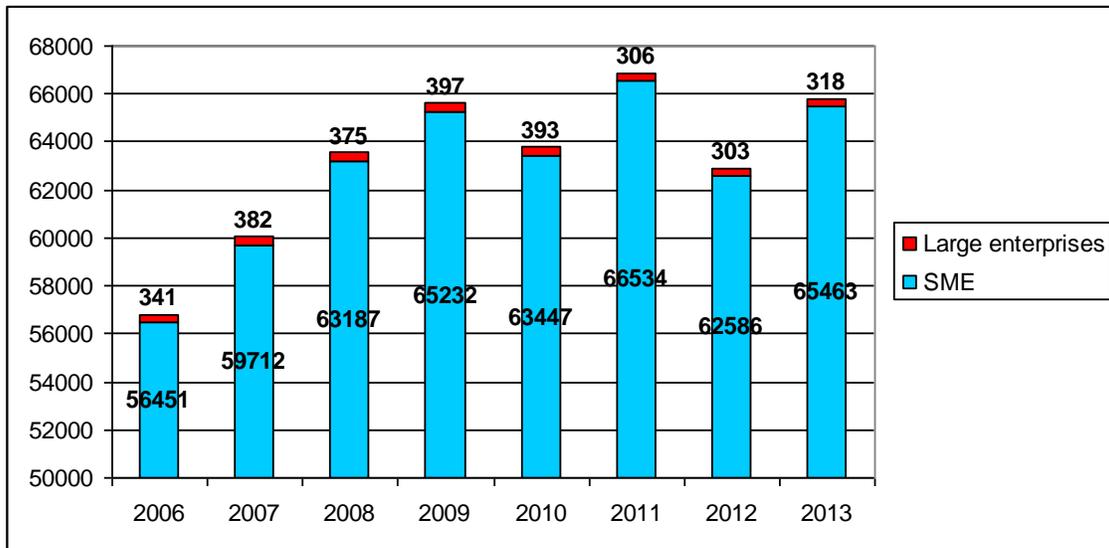


Fig. 5.2. The number of SBE and large enterprises in the period from 2006 to the beginning of 2013.

The vital power of business is reflected by tendencies of the ratio between acting and insolvent enterprises. Theses SBE tendencies defined on basis of the Department of Statistics data in the 2006-2011 period are presented in Figure 5.3.

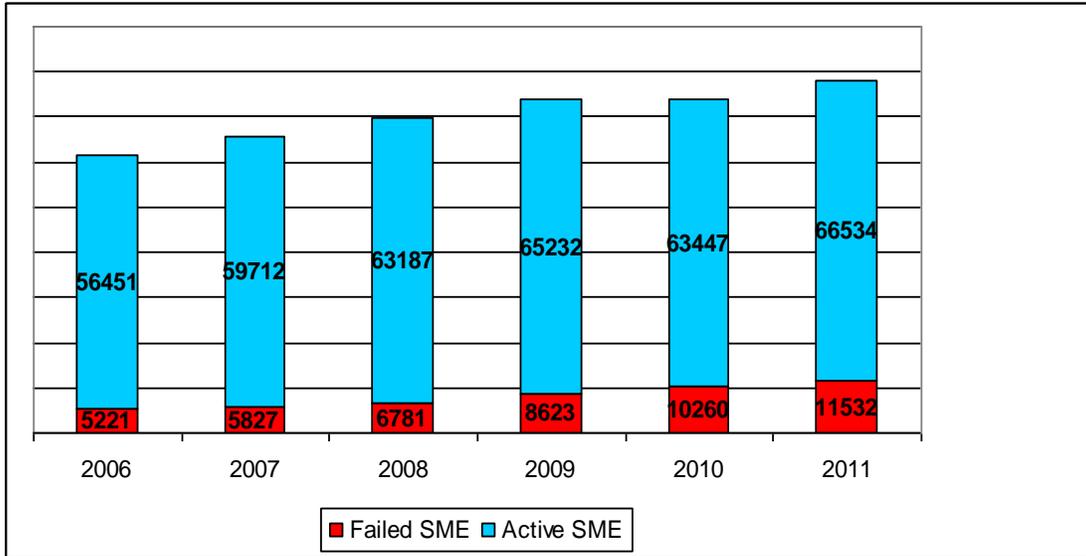


Figure 5.3. Dynamics of insolvent and operating SME in 2006 and at the beginning of 2011

Figure 5.3 illustrates that the number of insolvent enterprises was constantly growing in this period and at the beginning of 2011, the largest number of insolvent enterprises (11.532) was registered. Despite that the number of operating SBE was also increasing, except for 2009, when the number of SBE decreased as a consequence of the economic crisis. This fact shows a capability of the country's SMB sector to sustain stability.

As shown in Fig. 5.4, the SBE sector is the main founder of working places, because largest part of people work in it, and this tendency remained in the crisis and post crisis period, despite that the number of workers both in SBE and large enterprises decreased under the influence of the crisis. However, in 2012 the economy started recovering and the number of workers began growing both in SBE and large enterprises.

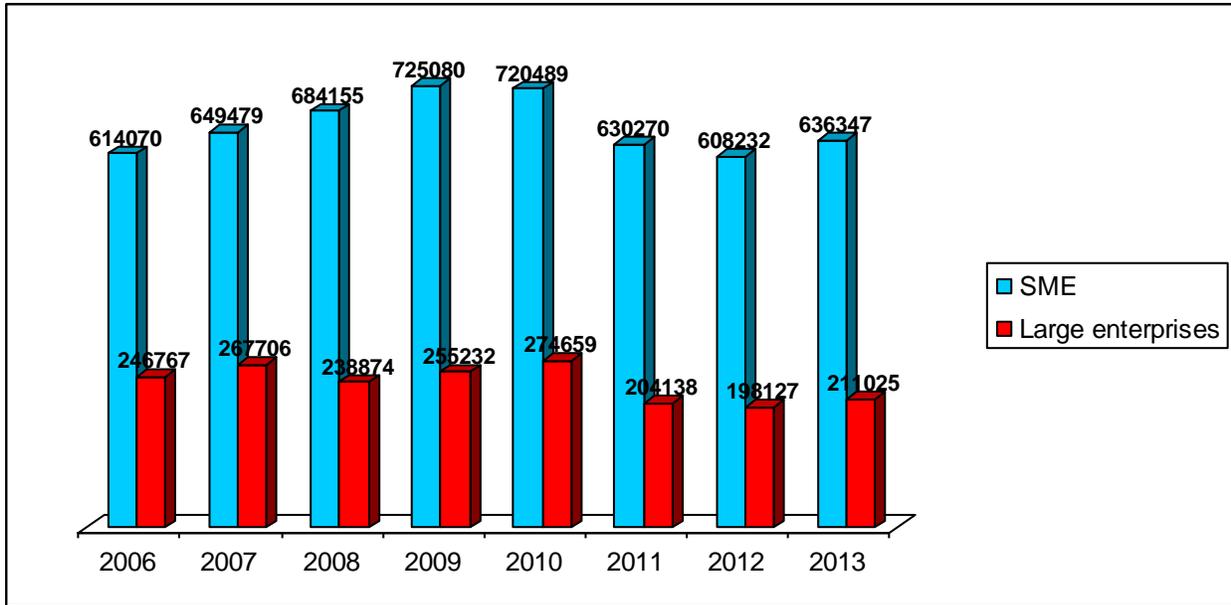


Figure 5.4. Tendencies of change of the number of employees in SBE and large enterprises in the period from 2006 up to the beginning of 2013.

According to the contribution of separate kinds of enterprises into the country GDP it is possible to evaluate the efficiency of their activities in a macroeconomic sense. It is obvious in Fig. 5.5 that the SMB sector is of great importance to the country economy. The value-added, acquired from SBE, was constantly growing from 2005 to 2008, and in 2008 it reached 27 mlrd. Lt, which comprised 67 % value-added created by all enterprises (Fig. 5.5). In 2009, a sudden decrease in the created value-added was noticed as a consequence of the economic crisis both in large and smaller enterprises. Despite that the number of enterprises and workers decreased in the country, the total value-added increased in 2010, which means that the strongest enterprises remained and successfully pursued their activities.

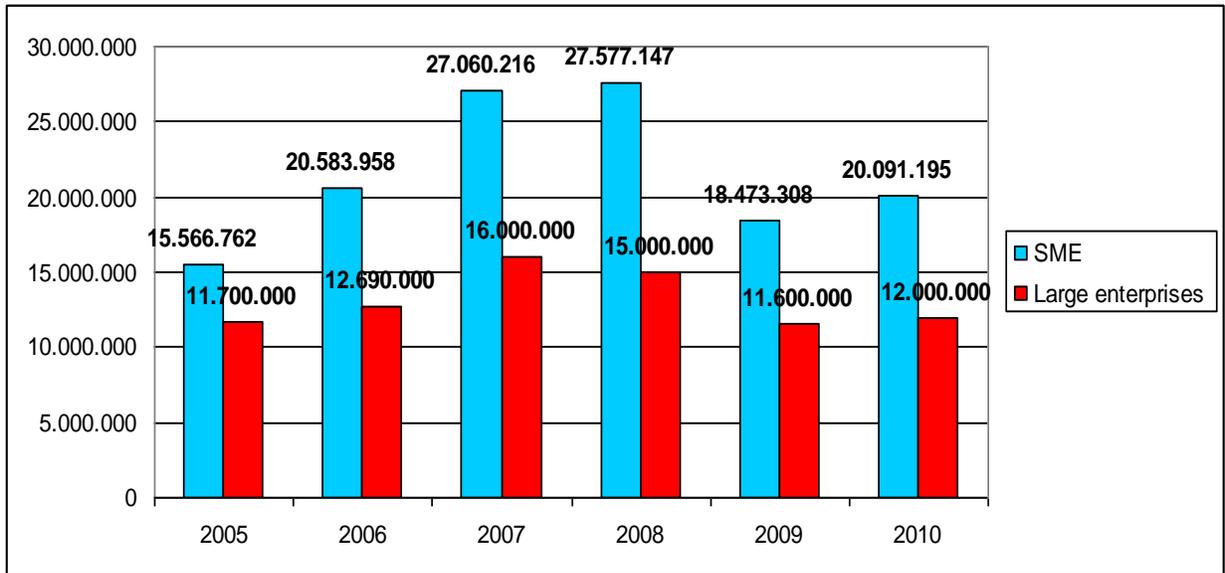


Figure 5.5. The value-added created by SBE and large enterprises in 2005-2010 (in thousands of Litass).

Evaluation of macroeconomic efficiency of enterprises

We shall define the macroeconomic efficiency of different kinds of enterprises by calculating the contribution of one worker of a certain kind of enterprise into the country's GDP. The macroeconomic efficiency can also be estimated by using macroeconomic efficiency coefficient which determines percentage contribution of 1 % workers of a certain kind of enterprise into the country GDP. We shall calculate the macroeconomic efficiency of enterprises in 2007 and 2010, i.e. pre-crisis and post-crisis years. Calculations were performed based on the data of Department of Statistics of the mentioned years. The data for calculating the macroeconomic efficiency coefficient of 2010 are presented in Fig. 5.6 and Fig. 5.7. According to the data of the Department of Statistics of 2007, in medium-sized enterprises 28,7 %, in large – 25,9 %, in small – 27,6 %, and in micro-sized enterprises – 16,8 % of total workers were working and their contribution to country's GDP was 29,9 %, 36,9 %, 23,5 %, and 10,6 %, respectively. Thus, the statistical data show that the large part of workers were working in medium-sized enterprises, however, large enterprises made a larger contribution into GDP of the country.

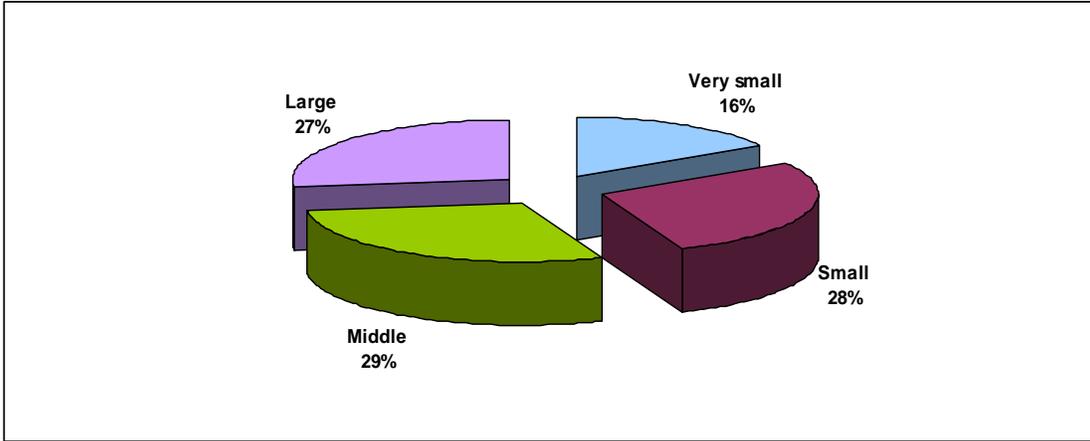


Figure 5.6. Percentage share of number of employees in business sectors in 2010

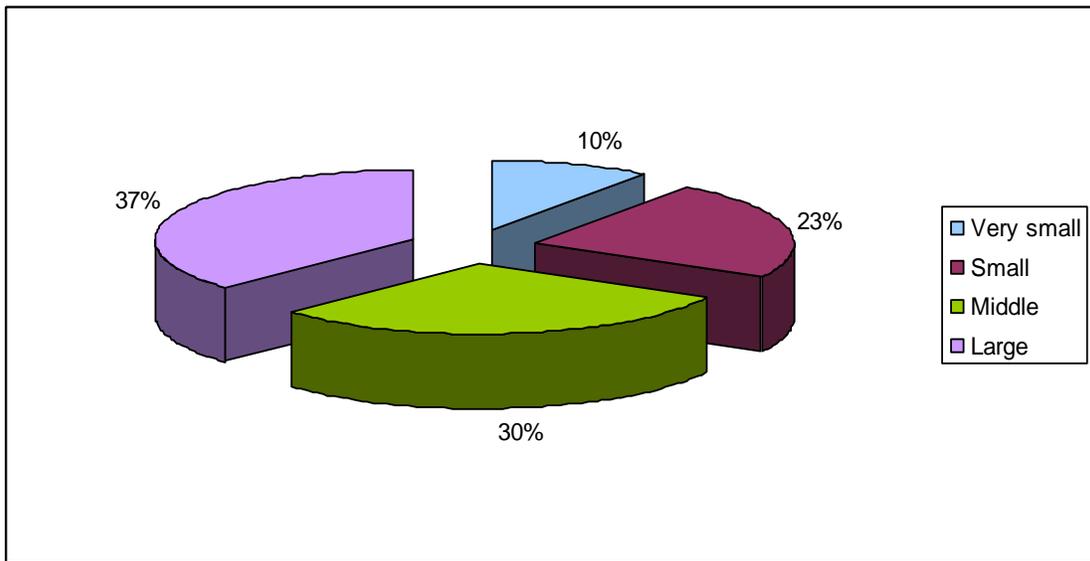


Figure 5.7. Percentage share of the total value-added in business sectors in 2010

The results of calculating macroeconomic efficiency indicators for micro, small, medium-sized and large enterprises before the economic crisis (in 2007) and coming to an end crisis (in 2010) are presented in Figures 5.8 and 5.9.

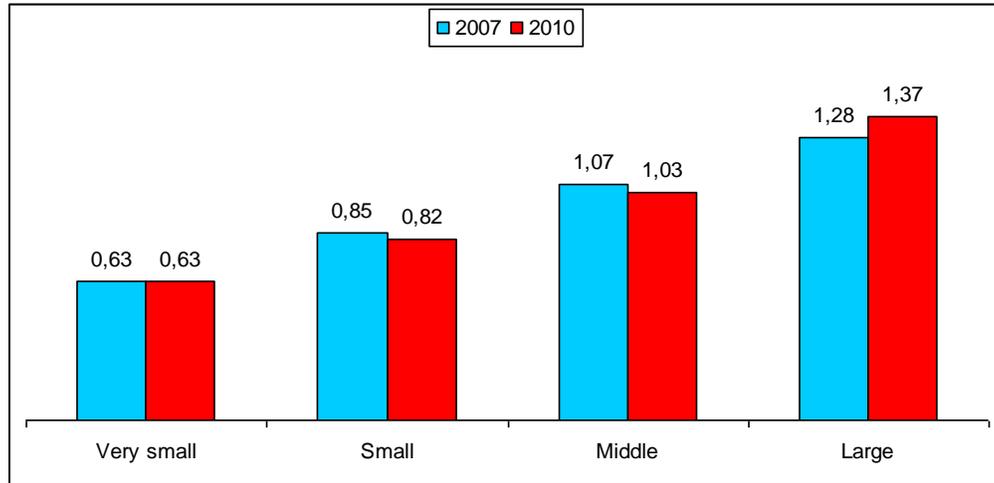


Figure 5.8. Macroeconomic efficiency coefficient for one Lithuanian worker in 2007 and 2010.

Source: data of the Department of Statistics under the Government of Lithuania.

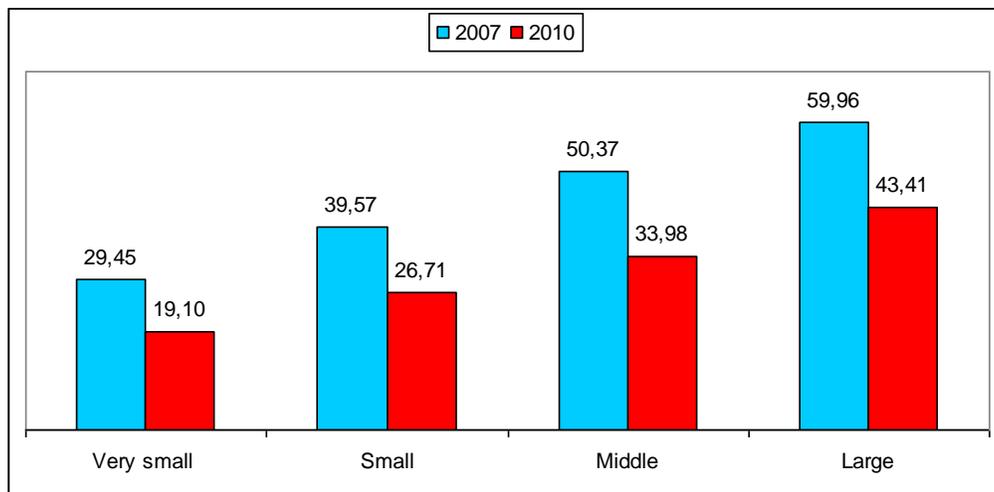


Figure 5.9. Macroeconomic efficiency indicator for one Lithuanian worker in 2007-2010 (on thousands of Litas).

Source: based on the data of the Department of Statistics under the Government of Lithuania.

The results of calculation show that large enterprises are most efficient in terms of the considered topic. In line with the calculation we see that large enterprises are most efficient according to the indicators, and after them in decreasing efficiency order follow medium-sized, small and micro-sized enterprises. This is in due to the scale of economic effect, because larger enterprises have more

abilities to use the advantages of work specialization and to apply more modern and more efficient technologies. The macroeconomic efficiency of SBE both in 2007 and 2010 differ, but a little, and in 2010 this indicator did not exceed that of 2007. Meanwhile the efficiency coefficient of large enterprises calculated in 2010 was larger than in 2007, which means that during the crisis there remained only stronger enterprises that worked more effectively.

When calculating the macroeconomic efficiency for one Lithuanian worker in thousands of Litas, another tendency is noticed: in 2007 all business sectors were more efficient than in 2010. One of the most significant reasons is the circumstances of the economic state in the country, because in 2007 Lithuania was in the boom phase, and in 2010 still there were some consequences of the economic crisis. Obviously, the tendency both in 2007 and 2010 remained the same: larger enterprises are more efficient than the smaller ones.

Conclusions

Small and medium-sized business is an inherent part of the country's economy that is helpful in solving both economic and social problems. Establishment and development small and medium-sized enterprises make the basis of the country stability and economic reinforcement. The number of SBE in Lithuania amounts more than to 99 % of the total operating enterprises. Due to small and medium-sized business subjects new jobs are created as well as more than a half of the gross value-added. Though there are various possibilities of providing support to SMB in Lithuania, unfortunately, there are indeed not a few problems and obstacles for developing small and medium-sized business, such as high taxes, quite complicated legal basis, deficit of turnover of working capital, poor purchasing power of consumers, complex procedures of support, etc. On the other hand, internal reasons also hamper the development of SMB, the lack of competence of enterprise managers and inability to adapt themselves to market changes rapidly. Though the macroeconomic efficiency analysis of enterprises has shown that large enterprises are more efficient due to the scale of economic effect, however, this fact does not diminish the significance of the SMB sector to the country economy, small and medium-sized enterprises are of great importance to economics, therefore, with a view to seek both economic and social progress, it is necessary to render favorable conditions for their prosperity.

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Chapter 6: Risk Management in the National Budget and Sustainable National Development

ARTURAS BALKEVICIUS,

Introduction

The purpose of the section is to analyze and discuss the development of the risk management in the Lithuania National Budget. Analyze interdependence between risk management in the Lithuania National Budget and Sustainable National development. Effective risk management in the Lithuania National Budget is essential for promoting Lithuania sustainable development.

In today's globalized world are increasingly highlighted uncertainties in the economy, finance and development of the country. Emerging countries only start applying the principle of sustainability of public finances. Complexity of sustainability within public finances points at the importance of good management of time, risk and funds as well as at the necessity to grow revenues from high value-added and innovations, knowledge and technology-intensive activities or actions in the longer run. The corporate world and government, increasingly look to internal control and risk management to give calm and reassurance. These fields are so young, so chaotic, so muddled, and churning with change. The risk management increasing importance and development in various fields.

The forecast of world economic trends is made in view of the still continuing high uncertainty in financial markets, therefore changes in any state and the reaction to them must be especially carefully, continuously analyzed and, as far as possible, predicted and controlled in order to prevent overheating or, conversely, its inefficiencies would not hinder the progress of the state sustainable development.

Risks can come from uncertainty in financial markets, project failures (at any phase in design, development, production, or sustainment life-cycles), legal liabilities, credit risk, accidents, as well as deliberate attack from an adversary, or events of uncertain or unpredictable root-cause.

The state budget is mostly seen as an end in itself rather than an instrument for achieving long term sustainable development. Risk management in the National Budget is a program designed to

identify potential events that may affect the government and to protect and minimize risks to the government's property, services, and employees. Effective risk management ensures the continuity of government operations. The importance of risk management has been growing steadily over the last several years for a variety of reasons including legal, political, and medical liability, increased use of technology, and higher litigation costs. Risk management is geared to achieving a government's objectives through strategic decisions that flow through high-level goals, effective use of resources, reliability of reporting, and compliance with applicable laws and regulations.

The first paragraph is dedicated to theoretical background of problem of risk management in public sector, to Social risk management and close connection between social innovation and social risk management.

The second paragraph is dedicated to overview and analyze situation in Lithuania, the risk management in the National Budget, risk management in public sector, social risk management, social innovation.

The conclusions highlighted the risk management Lithuanian national budget success stories and areas for improvement.

Contribution use general scientific methods, especially analysis, synthesis, comparison, induction and deduction. Essential sources of information were professional publications, data of Lithuania Statistics Department, Budget Law, the Ministry of Finance and Ministry of Economy documents, Government documents and resolutions, other states Governments documents related to Budget or public sector risk management.

Theoretical background

In order to understand the theory, it is necessary to get acquainted with the existing theoretical risk management research, with the latest risk management techniques, systems, and automated information systems. Focus on risk management in the public sector and budget specifics and characteristics.

The article is mainly concerned with evolution of risk management process and its current application in the Lithuania National Budget and public sector entities. There have been several remotely relevant studies about risk management in custom office (Stankevicius, 2005), public sector

reforms development, convergence and divergence (Backunaite, 2006), on the Sustainability of Regional Competitiveness: Development Considering Risk (Rutkauskas, 2008), about effectiveness, reliability and subject risk – shaping drivers for the set of possibilities and utility function when investment decision is made under uncertainty (Rutkauskas, Stasytytė 2010), risk management in Lithuania public sector, starting point, current situation and future perspectives (Kolisovas, Skarnulis 2011). On the subject, risk management development in the Lithuania public sector is not widely discussed.

The notion of risk management has entered the Lithuanian public sector, its incorporation into the overall internal public management control system has not reached (legally and practically) the sufficient level yet (Kolisovas, Skarnulis 2011). The lack of positive attitude among public sector managers and administrators also prevails from employing and benefiting from risk management to its ultimate potential. However, it is very likely that due to ‘good practices’ acquired from private sector and especially regulated financial sector, risk management will be more appreciated by the public sector entities in future.

The adoption of risk management in the public sector has reached the level where public sector entities specify standardized risk management frameworks and issue or recommend issuing (Rudokiene, 2009) legislation that would finally institutionalize risk management in the public management system.

Risk management has been successfully applied by various Lithuanian financial institutions banks, credit unions, investment and insurance companies, but the majority of the bureaucratic apparatus still remains rather unfamiliar with it. This can be explained by public sector’s inherent reluctance to accept innovations or changes (Vann, 2004) and politics of resistance in the Public Services (Thomas, Davies, 2005). The lack of interest of public sector entities to employ risk management framework may have negative implication on the sector performance and even result in the loss of its competitiveness in terms of attracting foreign and social investments (Rutkauskas, 2008).

Highly influential document was published 1992 in the USA, written by accountants Coopers & Lybrand for the Committee of Sponsoring Organizations of the Treadway Commission, and called the "COSO framework". The COSO framework took the traditional concept of "internal controls" and pointed out that internal controls had to provide protection against risks (COSO ERM, 2008)and that

those risks would change over time, so organizations would have to monitor their risks and change their internal controls to meet their changing risks (Shaw, H., 2006)

In 2001 United Kingdom Treasury produced “Management of Risk – A Strategic Overview” which rapidly became known as “The Orange Book”. That publication provided a basic introduction to the concepts of risk management that proved very popular as a resource for developing and implementing risk management processes in government organizations. This means that the main risk management challenge does not now lie in the initial identification and analysis of risk and the development of the risk management process, but rather in the ongoing review and improvement of risk management. This guidance aims to reflect that – for instance, it now includes guidance on issues such as “horizon scanning” for changes affecting the organization’s risk profile. It also focuses on both internal processes for risk management and consideration of the organization’s risk management in relation to the wider environment in which it functions.

Risk is defined as this uncertainty of outcome, whether positive opportunity or negative threat, of actions and events. The risk has to be assessed in respect of the combination of the likelihood of something happening, and the impact which arises if it does actually happen. Risk management includes identifying and assessing risks (the “inherent risks”) and then responding to them (Orange Book, 2004).

In the USA the Sarbanes-Oxley Act of 2002 was enacted very quickly to put in place a range of new laws to make big scandals less likely. Included in this Act were two very interesting new requirements concerning internal controls, including the risk management processes that are supposed to keep internal controls up to date.

The majority of the public sector establishments aims at achieving qualitative, not quantitative, objectives, the establishment of risk management content encounters the problem of developing risk impact and probability measures (Woods, 2009). In order to solve the former segment of the problem, the public sector entities can apply two options: either define risk measures for each qualitative criteria (failing to achieve the objectives, loss of reputation, legal procedures against organization or the management, health issues, etc.) and financial loss, in terms of important, but not always applicable measure of impact; or assign financial figures to each qualitative risk measure, so that every risk can be evaluated in the currency amounts.

As for the risk probability part, normally, it is defined from the internal or external loss event database, yet in the public sector entities loss event data is often insufficient, therefore, the alternative of assessing the level of resistance of the internal control system to the certain risk events (egg. resistance against human error) should be used instead. Though the more explicit the definition of risk measures is, the more confident and comparable risk assessment can be, it tends to complicate risk management process, which then can burden public sector entities and restrain them from their initial activities (Kolisovas, Skarnulis 2011).

Risk management in the National Budget is a program designed to identify potential events that may affect the government and to protect and minimize risks to the government's property, services, and employees. Effective risk management ensures the continuity of government operations. The importance of risk management has been growing steadily over the last several years for a variety of reasons including legal, political, and medical liability, increased use of technology, and higher litigation costs.

Risk management is geared to achieving a government's objectives through strategic decisions that flow through high-level goals, effective use of resources, reliability of reporting, and compliance with applicable laws and regulations.

The Government Finance Officers Association (GFOA) recommends that governments develop a comprehensive risk management program that identifies, reduces or minimizes risk to its property, interests, and employees. Costs and consequences of harmful or damaging incidents arising from those risks should be contained. Adequate and timely compensation for restoration and recovery is another consideration.

The management of risk at strategic, programmed and operational levels needs to be integrated so that the levels of activity support each other. In this way the risk management strategy of the organization will be led from the top and embedded in the normal working routines and activities of the organization.

Managers at each level therefore need to be equipped with appropriate skills which will allow them to manage risk effectively and the organization as a whole needs a means of being assured that risk management is being implemented in an appropriate way at each level. Every organization should have a risk management strategy.

The management of risk is not a linear process; rather it is the balancing of a number of interwoven elements which interact with each other and which have to be in balance with each other if risk management is to be effective. Furthermore, specific risks cannot be addressed in isolation from each other; the management of one risk may have an impact on another, or management actions which are effective in controlling more than one risk simultaneously may be achievable. The whole model (Figure 6.1) has to function in an environment in which risk appetite has been defined.

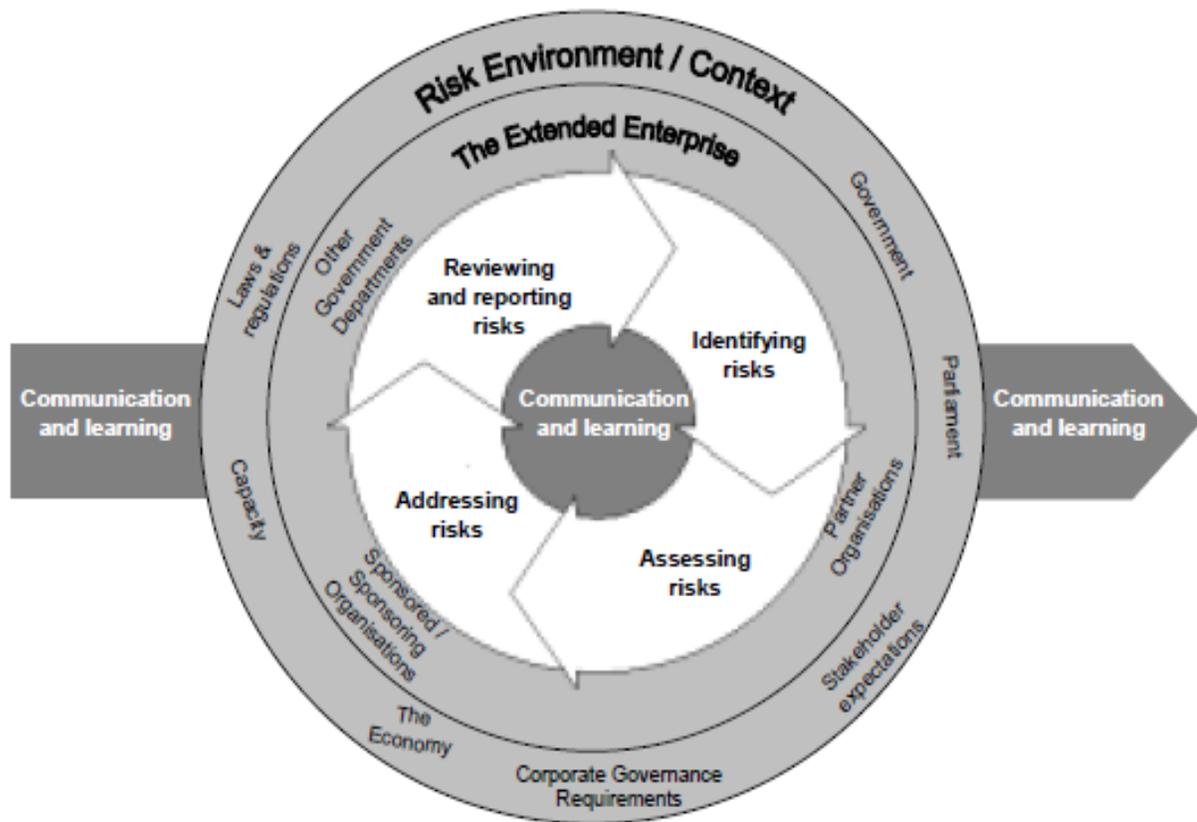


Figure 6.1. Risk Management model.
 (Source: The Orange book, 2004)

Risk Management Model (Figure 6.1) – developed from the model in the Strategy Unit’s November 2002 report: “Risk – improving government’s capability to handle risk and uncertainty” The model presented here (Orange book, 2004), by necessity, dissects the core risk management process into elements for illustrative purposes but in reality they blend together. In addition, the particular stage

in the process which one may be at for any particular risk will not necessarily be the same for all risks. The model illustrates how the core risk management process is not isolated, but takes place in a context; and, how certain key inputs have to be given to the overall process in order to generate the outputs which will be desired from risk management.

In order to manage risk, an organization needs to know what risks it faces, and to evaluate them. Identifying risks is the first step in building the organization's risk profile. Next steps are assessing risks, addressing risks, reviewing and reporting risks. Having reviewing and reporting risks process results, must return to first step identifying new risks disclosed in reviewing process Subsequent go to next steps. Have cycle process.

Another cycle "The Extended Enterprise" overwhelm other Government Departments, partner organizations, sponsored and sponsoring organizations (Figure 6.1).

The external cycle " Risk Environment/Context" take Government, Parliament, Law and regulations, the economy, corporate governance requirements, Stakeholders expectations. Communication and learning is very important, it is in centre and go over all stages of risk management process. Communication is very important among all participate of Risk Environment like Government, Parliament, Stakeholders, Economy and all participate of Risk Management process like Government Departments, partner organizations, sponsored and sponsoring organizations. Communication and learning must be everlasting.

Despite the rapid improvement of economic indicators so far and a very gradual change of the economic structure towards sustainability, there are growing concerns about the lack of a clear long-term vision in the currently pursued economic policy. Undeniably, the government and Parliament must be able to accomplish substantial consolidation and to maintain the country's financial stability.

Social risk management (SRM), it is a new conceptual framework designed by the World Bank, specifically its Social Protection and Labor Sector (Holzmann, R. et al. 2003). It has been espoused by other development banks, bilateral development institutions, and academic research centers. It is one of social innovations. Conceptually, social protection is shifting towards social risk management to reduce the economic vulnerability of households with appropriate instruments and to help them smooth consumption patterns.

The objective of SRM is to extend the traditional framework of social protection to include prevention, mitigation, and coping strategies to protect basic livelihoods and promote risk taking. SRM

focuses specifically on the poor, who are the most vulnerable to risk and more likely to suffer in the face of economic shocks. Through its strategies SRM aims to reduce the vulnerability of the poor and encourage them to participate in riskier but higher-return activities in order to transition out of chronic poverty. Social risk management must be a part of Risk Management in national budget.

The European Commission issued recommendations on how social innovations could be fostered and expanded to a greater extent for the amended European social agenda. "Creativity and innovation in general and social innovation in particular are essential factors for fostering sustainable growth, securing jobs and increasing competitive abilities, especially in the midst of the economic and financial markets crisis" (European Commission 2009). Social innovations will assume central importance in the context of the Europe 2020 strategy in light of growing social challenges. The Bureau of European Policy Advisers (BEPA) for the European Commission formulated in its memorandum entitled "Social innovation as part of the Europe 2020 strategy" that "social innovation can offer one way forward to cope with the societal challenges and the crisis the EU Member States are facing" (BEPA 2010). The erosion of the social security system or the intensification of ecological risks cannot be overcome without implementing social innovation. New innovation system takes hold it leads to far-reaching changes in the entire structure of the institution. We see the close connection between social innovation and social risk management.

Some types of risk lend themselves to a numerical diagnosis – particularly financial risk. For other risks - for example reputational risk - a much more subjective view is all that is possible. In this sense risk assessment is more of an art than a science. It will be necessary, however, to develop some framework for assessing risks.

This assessment needs to be done by evaluating both the likelihood of the risk being realized, and of the impact if the risk is realized.

It is not the absolute value of an assessed risk which is important; rather it is whether or not the risk is regarded as tolerable, or how far the exposure is away from tolerability, which is important. In ideal risk management, a prioritization process is followed whereby the risks with the greatest loss (or impact) and the greatest probability of occurring are handled first, and risks with lower probability of occurrence and lower loss are handled in descending order.

The resources available for managing risk are finite and so the aim is to achieve an optimum response to risk, prioritized in accordance with an evaluation of the risks.

Risk is unavoidable, and every organization needs to take action to manage risk in a way which it can justify to a level which is tolerable. The amount of risk which is judged to be tolerable and justifiable is the “risk appetite” (Orange book, 2004).

Results and findings

Paragraph is dedicated to overview and analyze situation in Lithuania, the risk management in the National Budget, risk management in public sector. It is equally important to ensure the risk management in budget preparation, in preparation budget programs, for the implementation, enforcement and collection of budget and control its costs.

During the last two decades Lithuanian public sector overcame a series of changes, including transition from the stiff soviet inheritance to the more flexible new public management practice. Rapidly changing financial and social environment, increasing growth of the EU requirements and public expectations, improve the performance of the public sector institutions.

Risk management has been widely and successfully applied by Lithuanian financial institutions, banks, credit unions, investment and insurance companies, information technology companies. Risk management in public sector today is innovation.

“Structure of the Budget of the Republic of Lithuania” (2003-12-23), is the main document regulating the state budget and local budgets, revenue creation and use of appropriations to the legal framework, as well as drafting budgets , approval, implementation, evaluation and control of key provisions, procedures, of appropriations managers duties, rights and responsibilities. Aim of the law - to long-term, comprehensive economic and social welfare of the citizens of the Republic of Lithuania, to ensure that the preparation and implementation of the budget monetary resources are used efficiently.

The law does not regulate the risk management in budget preparation, approval, implementation, evaluation and control procedures. However, the understanding of risk management in Lithuanian national budget importance is increasingly providing risk management procedures and methods in sub statutory Lithuanian and EU documents. Effectively managing risks in the national budget as a consequence controlled risk and sustainable development of the country.

Risk management in Lithuania national budget and Lithuania sustainable development has interdependence. It is clear that risk management in Lithuanian national budget affects the sustainable development of the Lithuanian and vice versa sustainable national development reduces the risk of impact, expands risk tolerance limits and facilitates risk management in Lithuanian national budget and budget execution.

Preparing the budget, must be evaluated macroeconomic risk, external risk: Euro zone, EU, Russia, CIS countries, major trading partners, exports, debt management, etc. Should be design up several scenarios to acts of occurrence of major external risks.

Risk assessment and management considered as good practice. Risk-based supervision is an integral part of most of the world's currently ongoing business care reform. Such reforms are implemented in the United Kingdom, Denmark, the Netherlands, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, as well as the Central and Eastern European countries. Risk-based approach is more often highlighted European Union documents a shift from compliance with acts of Control (rules based supervision) to care when dynamic risk assessment and management quality system (called risk based supervision).

As mentioned risk management in the public sector in Lithuania has not regulated by law, but there are more public sector institutions start develops risk management and the application of their work. Certain innovation developments we see the State Tax Inspectorate, Customs, the Food and Veterinary Inspectorate. Consider the public sector regulatory documents related to risk management. A lot of attention for innovation in risk management found in Ministry of Economy: “Risk assessment based activities of operators’ supervision guidelines” (2011).

Risk assessment and prioritization of activities is a prerequisite to public administration to be effective and fruitful. The new public management paradigm, focusing on evidence-based decision-making and focus on results, mean and risk-based maintenance application: only identification of the major risks can be to manage them efficiently, and to achieve the best results. Institutions with the limited resources for supervision shall be used most efficiently when they are directed to the most important and most risky areas.

As innovation success story can mention the State Tax Inspectorate under the Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Lithuania. One of the innovative ways to determine the taxpayer riskiness is the State Tax Audit Information System (hereinafter - Audit IS). The Audit IS registered in the State Register of Information Systems. Special Audit IS module is evaluated taxpayer risk exposure scores.

For each criterion may be granted from 1 to 5. Total taxpayer's risk score is calculated by summing up a special algorithm in accordance with all the criteria for the score. The risk analysis process is controlled by the State Tax Inspection Selection and audit department. Audit IS risk analysis in 2011 applied to nearly 300 risk identification rules (criteria). Risk analysis is used as much as possible taxpayer data and indicators that can help identify tax risks. The tax office tax risk management process is carried out taxpayer segmentation. Taxpayers are grouped by segments: residents of small taxpayers, the average size of the tax payers, large taxpayers, non-profit organizations, state and municipal enterprises, excise payers. Risk management system ensures better budget collection.

Another case the State Food and Veterinary Service (hereinafter - SFVS) develops and implements the Government's policy in food safety and quality as well as in animal health and welfare. Information system, include all of the SFVS activities and consists of the following major components: health inspection, food inspection, import and export controls and National Food and Veterinary Risk Assessment Institute. SFVS control in accordance with the principles of risk assessment. All SFVS supervisory entities are recorded in the information systems. In 2011 Office of state control items were: food business operators - 33,636; veterinary control subjects - add 201 970.

Let us consider other public-sector regulatory documents affecting risk management.

Regrettable that Ministry of Finance "Program evaluation methodology recommendations", 2011, provides an opportunity, but not an obligation to carry out implementation of innovation programs on risk analysis. Program implementation risk - enabling the evaluation plan can be carried out in implementation of programs of risk analysis, which allow the assessment of most risky programs to choose. Risk factors may be associated with the management of the program, contextual factors (funding, public trust, political support), or other aspects.

The Ministry of Finance "Public investment cost-benefit analysis of methodical recommendations", methodology consistent with the provisions of the following document: European Commission "Guide to Cost-benefit analysis of investment projects" (Final report 16/06/2008). Public investment in cost-benefit analysis of methodical recommendations is used to incorporate granted to certain years of state investment program for new investment projects with an expected value in excess of 50,000 thousand LTL justified. The innovative recommendations of alone chapter is devoted to risk and sensitivity analysis.

Lithuania Government “Strategic Planning Methodology” (2010-09-01) establishes a strategic planning system, planning, and document preparation and approval procedures. Regrettably, the methodology is not intended to focus on risk management.

Ministry of Finance “Guidance for financial risk management guidelines for state-owned enterprises” (2013-01-21) is important that state-owned enterprises would be given proper attention to effective innovative financial risk management policy and to implement it. Enterprises are facing financial - market, credit (counterparty) and liquidity (investment) - the risk that affects the management of the resources of companies.

Social risk management, it is a new less developed segment of budget. The Ministry of Social Security and Labour is responsible for the planning of funding, implementation and monitoring of the EU structural funds under the measure “Development of Social and Economic Infrastructure” and “Development of Human Resources” specified in the Lithuanian Single Programming Document (SPD) for 2004-2006 and 2007-2013. Aim of the SPD measure „Prevention of social exclusion and social integration” is reduce social exclusion, carry out its prevention and to ensure equal opportunities on the labour market by promoting equal opportunities of men and women and integration of social risk groups into the labour market.

The development aspect of social protection, presents the social risk management concept and its operationalization in risk and vulnerability assessments, explains the focus on vulnerable groups. In Lithuania just first steps of Social risk management is done. The identification of risk, social risk groups, vulnerable groups. Assessments of the Risk and Vulnerability much more needs to be done at conceptual, empirical and policy level.

Vulnerability comes from the finding that the poor are typically most exposed to a wide range of risks (natural and man-made), but have fewer instruments to deal with these risks. Conceptually, vulnerability to poverty is the combined result of risks, risk exposure and household coping capacity. In Lithuania was identification of five social risk groups: handicapped person, person dependent on psychoactive materials, prisoners and persons released from imprisonment places, vulnerable women, and national minorities. Validate innovative solutions to integrate disadvantaged groups into the labour market is the largest programme to support social innovation in the fields of social inclusion and employment.

The Lithuanian National Budget and public sector does not employ risk management to its ultimate potential and does not benefit enough from it. The risk management framework into the overall Lithuanian National Budget management control system remains rather limited from legal and practical point of view. We need to implement more innovation, social innovation, risk management, social risk management in national and consolidated budget of Lithuania. The field of social innovation remains fragmented systems, and there is a need for more developed networks as well as innovation intermediaries for brokering the connections needed to nurture and scale up social innovations.

Conclusions

Effective Risk Management in the Lithuania National Budget is essential for promoting sustainable (harmonious) Lithuania development.

The state budget is mostly seen as an end in itself rather than an instrument for achieving long term sustainable development.

Risk management is designed to protect and minimize risks to the government's property, resources, services, employees, customers, citizens, reputation and general public from negative events.

Lithuanian National Budget planning and controlling entities have started to develop internal risk management function.

A lot of attention for innovation risk management found in Ministry of Economy: "Risk assessment based activities of operators' supervision guidelines" (2011). Risk assessment and prioritization of activities is a prerequisite to public administration to be effective and fruitful.

Success story of innovation, risk management practices is the State Tax Inspectorate under the Ministry of Finance of the Republic of Lithuania. One of the innovation ways to determine the taxpayer riskiness is the State Tax Audit Information System. The risk analysis process is controlled by the State Tax Inspection Selection and audit department. Audit IS risk analysis in 2011 applied to nearly 300 risk identification rules (criteria). Innovation - the risk management practices ensures better budget collection.

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The risk management framework into the overall Lithuanian National Budget management control system remains rather limited (from both, legal and practical, point of view).

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Chapter 7: The Innovation and Economic Growth: An Exemplary Government-Backed Policy in Estonia

GEDIMINAS MACYS

Introduction

In modern-day global economy, the nations must compete untiringly to attract and retain the mobile investment. But in contrast to states competing by “smokestack chasing” supposed to be forty years ago, the most nations now compete by “innovation chasing”, trying to grow and attract the highest-value-added economic activities they can: the high-wage, knowledge-intensive mass production, research, software, information technology, and services jobs that power present-day global, innovation-based economy. The Estonia could be an exemplary government-backed innovation chasing policy country.

It no longer touts its abundant clay, but now markets itself as a place “where the innovation, discovery, and success are nurtured,” and “that provides a pipeline of bright minds and new thinking”. It is an intense and endless race for global innovation advantage that most clearly distinguishes a modern-day global economy from the collection of national economies that competed to attract “smokestacks” a generation ago (Atkinson, Ezell, 2012). Today most nations especially in American and European continents recognize that they have to be the intense and tireless competitors if they are predisposed to be successful, as more and more firms can now produce the same goods and services virtually anywhere on the globe. And most nations also realize that high-wage innovation- and knowledge-based industries would be the ones that play a key role in driving their prosperity. Briefly put, the technological progress or innovations has become a main engine of economic growth of modern-day society. This is a sort of growth that allows continuous improvement in incomes and welfare, and enables an economy to grow even as its population decreases. However, a little progress has been done so far in measuring and assessing the driving factors of knowledge-based economy and

the degree of economic dynamism that it brings forward. Evidently is the **rational to investigate** these driving factors.

Theoretical background

There are many literature sources dealing with factors affecting the economic growth overall and productivity growth especially. Some of factors that have recently been examined include the managerial ability, technology and regulation (Bartelsman, Doms, 2000). The UK government emphasizes the following five drivers of productivity growth: the investment, innovation, skills, enterprise, and competition (DTI, 2006). The increasing interest in different factors of growth, other than the capital deepening or savings, over the past two decades, both at macro-, and microeconomic level, can be traced to the development of endogenous growth theory (Lucas, 1988; Macys, 1999, Aghion, Howitt, 1992; Aghion et al., 2005). Endogenous growth theory underlines the role of innovation, competition and incentives to create the knowledge for economic development. The core ideas of that strand of literature are related to the ideas of Joseph A. Schumpeter (Schumpeter, 1975). He states that the economic processes are organic and that the change comes from within the system and not simply as an exogenous factor. It means that the changes come through the innovations. Several models of economic growth have been developed based on Schumpeter's process of creative destruction. The article of P. Aghion and P. Howitt has increasingly been used as the basis for developing the endogenous growth models. The clearly documented evidence that the research and development (R&D) has an important effect on productivity growth and also on competitiveness is presented in paper (Amendola et al., 1993). According to D. Brécard the R&D produces its full effects on two forms of innovation: the aggregate productivity gains of factors and the improvements in product quality (Brécard et al., 2006).

According to P.M. Romer, a new growth theory introduces endogenous technological change as a function of the level of human capital into the Solow model (Romer, 1990). The first generation of this model considers the assumption of constant returns to technological knowledge and predicted that long run growth rate of an economy increases in the level of R&D inputs and thus larger economies should grow at higher rate (Grossman, Helpman, 1991). C.I. Jones finds that first-generation models of endogenous growth are inconsistent with empirical evidence for the USA and refutes the scale effect

prediction (Jones, 1995). To solve the empirical problems associated with these models of economic growth, second-generation models of endogenous growth have been developed.

The endogenous growth theory does not postulate that the sole determinant of economic growth is an investment in R&D, and argues that the capital accumulation cannot be even seen in the mass as a sole determinant of economic growth. The important findings in these papers are based on population data about Estonian enterprises, say that both the entry of high productivity firms and exit of low productivity enterprises contribute a lot to the productivity growth in Estonia (Masso et al., 2004; Bartelsman et al., 2004, Vahter, 2006). One key conclusion from this strand of literature is that the growth results from the technological progress, which in turn results from technological competition among firms that generate the innovations. The firms are motivated to innovate by higher payoffs or by the prospect of monopoly rents in the form of higher profits in the future that can be captured by the successful innovator firms (Howitt, 2006). Those rents however, are temporary and will be in turn destroyed by the next innovations made by other firms that make the former innovation obsolete (Aghion and Howitt, 1992).

So, when the technological progress affects the economic growth in overall and productivity growth especially most effectively? R. Griffith argues that innovation and technology transfer provide two potential sources of productivity growth for countries behind technological frontier (Griffith et al., 2004). They examine whether the R&D has a direct effect on productivity growth in a panel of industries across twelve OECD countries and state that the greater the potential for technologies to be transferred through R&D, the higher will be the rates of productivity growth. The R&D contributes to growth not only through the innovation but also through a technology transfer. These scholars argue that R&D has played a role in the convergence of production magnitudes within industries across OECD countries (see CIRCA, 2012). The growth impact of R&D has also received considerable attention within the context of spillovers (Griliches, 1979). The cross-country R&D spillovers are the greatly important sources of productivity growth (Grossman, Helpman, 1991). The impact of R&D on productivity assessed from a macroeconomic perspective, analyzed on base of model similar to that of P.M. Romer (Jones, Williams, 1998). They estimate that optimal investment in R&D is two to four times larger than actual investment in the United States. In addition, it argue that own- country R&D determines productivity growth which in turn determines domestic output growth (Aghion, Howitt, 1998). M. Zachariadis finds evidence of a positive impact of aggregate R&D intensity on the growth

rates of productivity and output, using aggregate and manufacturing sector data for a group of ten OECD countries for the period 1971–1995 (Zachariadis, 2004). The coefficient for the impact of aggregate R&D intensity on aggregate economy productivity is estimated to be 1.66 for the most basic specification. Moreover, the null hypothesis that growth is not induced by R&D is rejected in favour of the Schumpeterian endogenous growth framework without scale effects (Zachariadis, 2003).

Others scholars investigate whether a directly observed measure of technical change - R&D intensity - is closely linked with the growth of more highly skilled workers in the context of USA and other six OECD countries (Machin, Van Reenen, 1998). They show a significant association between skill upgrading and R&D intensities in all study countries. However, the macro level analyses of non scale endogenous growth models are limited to a few studies that cover only a small number of OECD countries. For instance, other researchers examine the relationship between aggregate level of productivity and R&D intensity and find a positive relationship between these variables (Zachariadis, 2004), (Guellec, Van Pottelsberghe, 2004). Despite a large amount of economic literature on these topics, the relationship between the levels of R&D investment and productivity growth has not yet been wholly clarified.

It ought to be outlined that the role of R&D and innovation in growth is not always self-evident. The endogenous growth theory has undoubtedly given a lot to our understanding of growth. However, there are some other influential papers that are critical about this line of models. The growth accounting exercises claim that technological progress may be a less important source of economic growth than capital accumulation (Jorgenson, 1995). The enormous increase in R&D in the post WWII period in the USA has not been accompanied by the corresponding rise in productivity that might indeed be expected based on Schumpeterian growth models (Jones, 1995). He supposes that the relatively constant long-run growth in the face of enormous structural changes, such as trade liberalization, increases in years of schooling, increases in R&D, refutes many of the implications of endogenous growth theory. Thus, the impact of innovation inputs or outputs on productivity, similarly to the effects of competition on productivity, may be not as clear as sometimes expected.

It is also true that different types of innovation play different roles at various stages (OECD, 2012). In earlier stages, the incremental innovation is often associated with adoption of foreign technology, and a social innovation can improve the effectiveness of business and public services. The high-technology R&D based innovation matters at the later stages of development, when there are both

factors of competitiveness and of learning that allow for completing the “catch-up” processes. The latter innovation type can be denoted in Estonia.

The first paper in series “The innovation and economic growth” stresses the leader role of Estonia in raising the investments in R&D sector and boosting the high-tech and export-oriented production (Macys, 2013). The few factors remind the derivation of Estonian leadership. An index of national debt particularly clearly shows the leader role of Estonia. The public debt has been more or less declined before the crisis in all Baltic countries. A huge difference between these countries becomes evident if we are approaching the government policies during the crisis and economic recovery period: the national debt has clearly boomed in all three Baltic countries except in case of Estonia (Macys, 2012). The reasons were clear: the national GDP’s were promptly slumping and the budget deficits were booming even more in opposite way. Only the Estonia has adjusted the right counter crisis policy measures - a strong fund of economic stability has been constituted before the crisis. It permitted for Estonian government to retain the surplus national budget and stable slim budget debt. It permitted equally to keep the fast growing investments in R&D overtaking and surpassing even the average investment level of EU27 at this time.

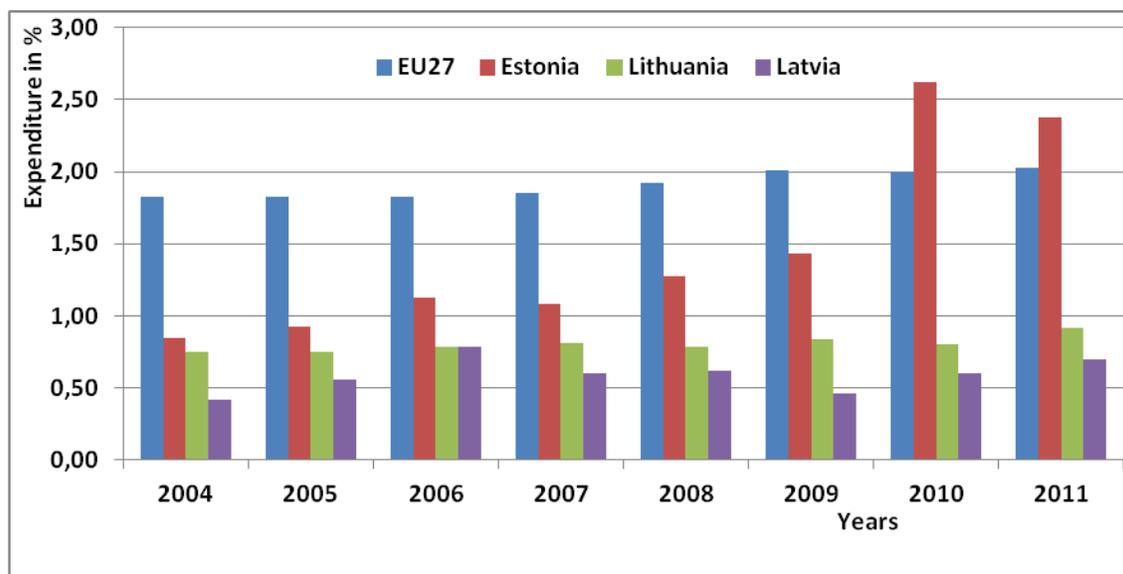


Figure 7.1. The gross expenditures on R&D in the Estonia, Latvia, Lithuania, and EU27 as a share of national and European GDP, 2004-2011.

(Source: Macys, 2013)

Summing up, it is extremely interestingly to examine the way of undeniable Baltic leader - Estonia – in boosting the high-value-added and export-oriented production from the endogenous growth model viewpoint. The present third paper in series “The innovation and economic growth” presents the nonlinear regressive analysis and forecast of whole driving factor chain, starting from the investments in R&D and leading up to the boost of productivity in Estonia.

Research methodology

The both high-tech production and innovation driving factors in Estonia are based on panel data from 2003-2012 and were withdrawn from the Estonian national statistic surveys. The selected descriptive statistics from these surveys on the high-tech production of firms in Estonia has been withdrawn too. For the measurement process, the 8 variables were used, which were grouped into two categories, namely the "investments and high-tech production". Then the time-series of basic determinants of high-tech production, their dispersion, including inputs like the investments in high education, R&D, and labour and sector specific differences in technology etc. were evaluated, and finally, the endeavours to relate the remaining differences to the innovative activities of firms were undertaken.

For estimation method, the „Pooled Time Series“were used. As a result of Pooled Least Squares and GLS methods, following estimation results are found. However R-squared is favourably high (no less 0.9) and more importantly, a probationary F-statistic shows too that this equation High-tech production function explains quite well. On other side, a thorough discussion of several problems related to the estimation of production functions is provided in the papers (Griliches, Mairesse, 1995), (Olley, Pakes, 1996), (Levinsohn, Petrin, 2003), (Vahter, 2006). The process of innovation is usually modelled as a function of the incentive structure, i.e. the institutions, assumed to have an access to the existing knowledge, and a more systemic part of creation and development of economically useful knowledge. An innovation also implies that the stock of knowledge increases. In other words, innovation is one vehicle that diffuses and upgrades an already existing knowledge, thereby serving as a conduit for realizing the knowledge spillovers.

The present model examines the link between high-value-added production function and eight familiar determinants: starting by the R&D budgeting and finishing by the labour resources and skills

of R&D sector denominated by lagged independent variables X_1, \dots, X_8 . In the context of the Cobb-Douglas production function the statistical relationship between production and eight factors could be presented:

$$\Delta \ln(Y_{\text{htp}}) = \alpha_0 + F(X_1, X_2, X_3, X_4, X_5, X_6, X_7, X_8) + \varepsilon, \quad (1)$$

where Y_{htp} denotes a depended High-tech production function, X_1 - the investments in high education sector as a share of national GDP, X_2 – the number of high-tech patents, acknowledged annually by the European Patent Office (EPO), X_3 – the gross expenditure of high education institutions on R&D, X_4 - the gross expenditure of private sector on R&D, X_5 - the gross expenditure of public sector on R&D, X_6 - the gross expenditure of Estonian national budget on R&D, X_7 – the number of high-tech enterprises, working in Estonia and X_8 – the labour resources of R&D sector, α_0 – the intercept parameter, ε – the statistic error term.

Looking at the statistical outcomes, even with eith variables of high-tech production function, a good statistical fit is obtained, which shows the importance of namely these variables even for the complicated case of economic growth during the serious crisis period. So the high-tech production is clearly defined by the investments and high-tech production terms. On the other side, the time series of determinants X_3, \dots, X_8 demonstrate the relatively even and usually rising record in case of Estonian statistics. The time series of determinants X_1 and X_2 show slightly complicated record and are presented below.

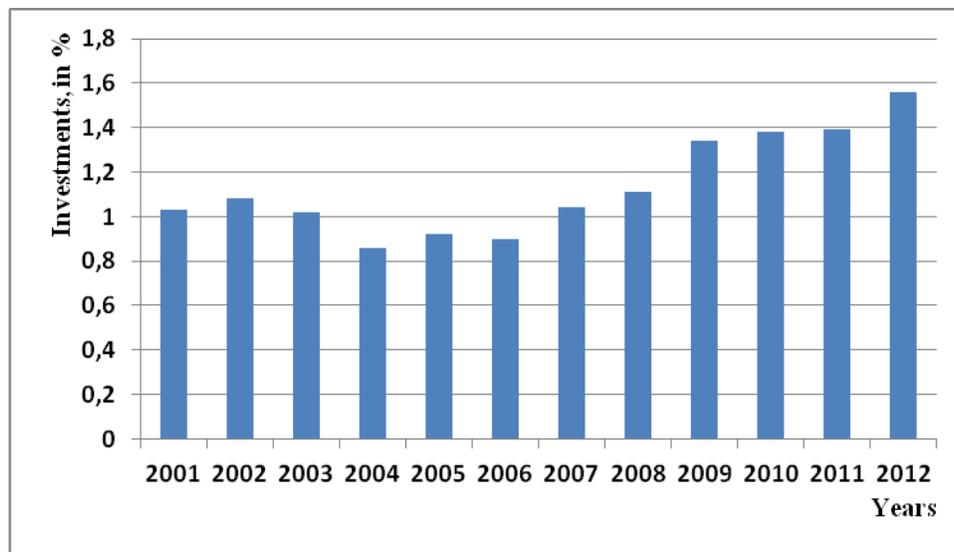


Figure 7.2. The gross investments in High education sector as a share of national budget, 2001-2012.
(Source: EstNDS data)

The gross investments of Estonian national budget in High education sector show two local slumps of education budgeting in 2004 - 2006 and in 2010 – 2011. The first denotes the beginning of Estonian membership in EU and the unforeseen deficit spending of Estonian government at the expense of education budgeting. The second denotes the period of reduced public expenses after the crisis (Macys, 2012).

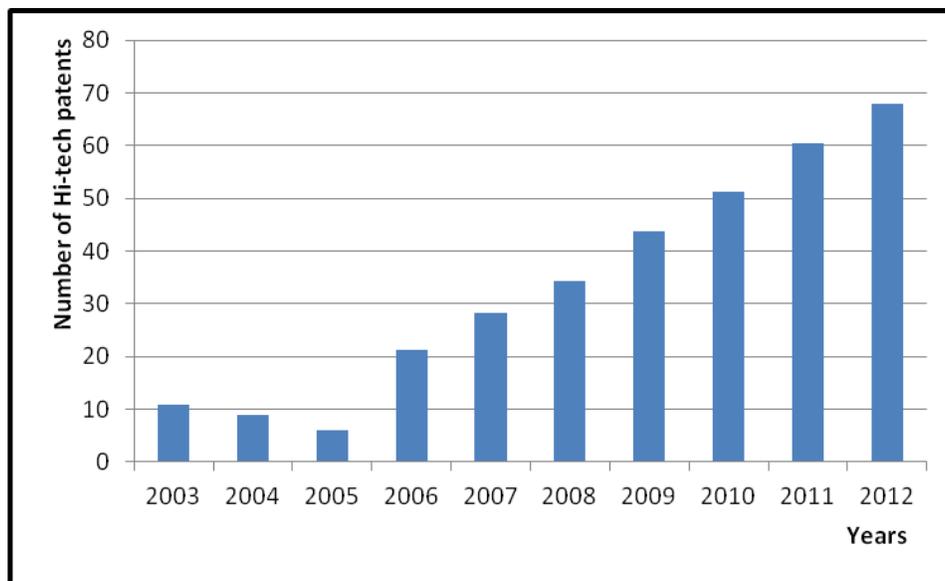


Figure 7.3. The number of patents of Hi-tech production, acknowledged annually by the EPO in 2003-2012.
(Source: EstNDS data)

The number of Estonian high-tech patents, acknowledged by the EPO, shows a clearly rising trend after the admission into EU in 2004. The high-tech patent increment has risen more than 11 times during the last seven years. This small fact illustrates excellently the successful R&D policy in Estonia. On the other side, the high-value-added production composes largest 38.7% part of Estonian national export. It is a highest level of export oriented high-value-added production in Baltic States (Macys, 2013). The high-tech export prevails in Estonian national export, and encompasses the electric

appliances, machine components or air appliances. The high-value-added commodities for international mechanical engineering compose the biggest part of Estonian national export. A considerable part of export encompasses the conventional production.

The present econometric analysis has been accomplished by the well-known Nonlinear regression analysis program (NLREG, 2013). NLREG uses a model/trust-region technique along with an adaptive choice of the Hessian model. The algorithm is essentially a combination of Gauss-Newton and Levenberg-Marquardt methods. The adaptive nonlinear least-squares algorithm is always in use.

The tests of normality, Kolmogorov–Smirnov and Shapiro–Wilks, applied on variables show a level of significance equal to 1%, such that it is possible to apply correctly the econometric models of parametric estimations. Models estimated with OLS method present negative serial correlation. As a result, this model has been corrected by the Prais–Winsten estimation method. In the OLS model, this method eliminated the problem of negative serial correlation at the fourth and final iteration. These corrections have made the estimates robust and unbiased, the t-test returns meaningfulness of the parameters equal to 1%. The explanatory power of the model is good, as indicated by uniformly high adjusted R^2 (0.9). The result of the Durbin–Watson test, after the correction with the Prais-Winsten estimation method, is no serial correlation (5% significance level). In short, the performance of corrected model is excellent. The specification of general dynamic nonlinear regression model (lagged dependent variable) also shows robust and unbiased estimators. The estimated relationships are polynomial functions (continuous and differentiable functions) such that it possible to apply classic optimization methods (Rudin, 1991).

Results and findings

The main findings of present research are:

a) The high-value-added export-oriented innovative production has followed the curve of investments in high education and R&D sectors. The clearly expressed upturn in 2006 denotes the opened European markets after adhesion into EU. The present upturn shows the upsurge of Western demand and the reorientation in turn of Estonian export in overall and high-tech export especially to Western markets.

b) The present-day upturn of Estonian high-tech production has achieved the highest in Baltic States level of Bill. € 1,421 and retains relatively stable range. It was already denoted that the goodness-of-fit was high. The differences between the actual and calculated are small, so in the issue they are not revealed in the next figure.

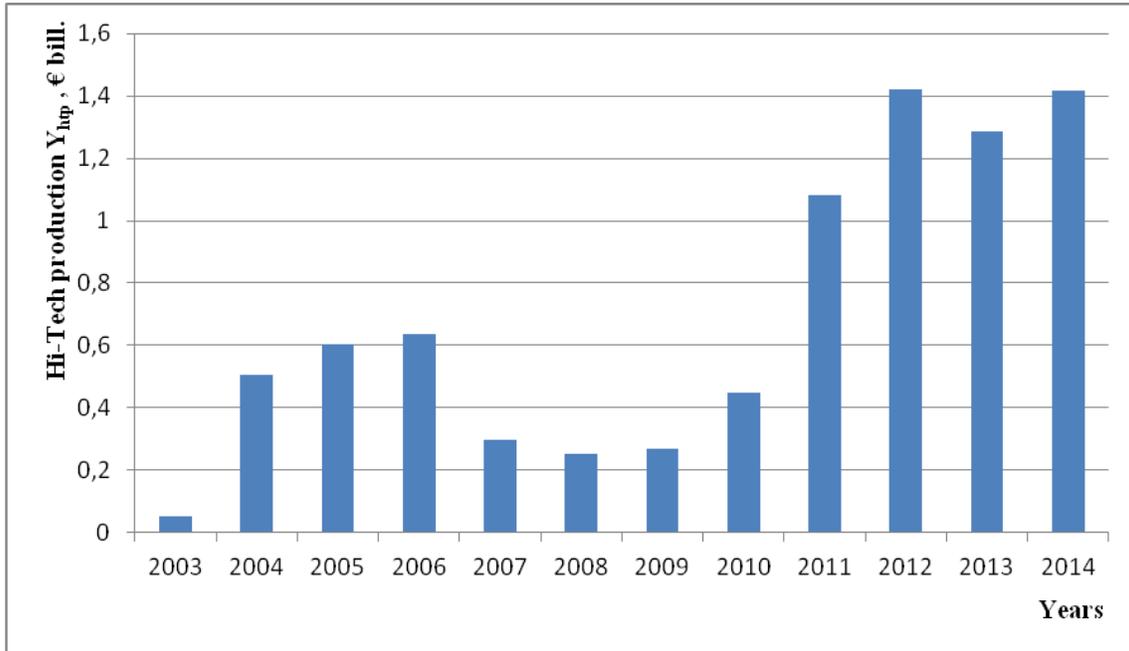


Figure 7.4. The dynamics of the Hi-Tech export-oriented production (Y_{htp}) in 2003-2014, in € billions.

c) The future level of Estonian high-tech production was estimated to grow at 15.2% and achieve a value of Bill. € 1.415 in 2014. It ought to be outlined that the regressive prognosis of Bill. € 1.415 level is notably daring but high level of model fitness of past periods allows trustiness completely on the estimation of future level of Estonian high-tech production in 2014 and ever after.

d) The most impacting on level of Estonian high-tech production driving factors are the investments in high education sector and their gross expenditures on R&D. It proves the statement of endogenous grow theory that the growing budgeting for R&D gives the direct and strongest effect on the level of high-tech export-oriented production.

Conclusions

The innovation has become now the central driver of national economic wellbeing and competitiveness. That is why so many nations are engaged in the race for global innovation advantage. But what actually is the innovation? Most believe it pertains only to the R&D, transfer of technology to the production organizations, production and deployment, or marketplace usage. The innovation traditionally has been understood in an engineering context, entailing either the creation of new or improved consumer-product goods, enhanced machines and devices like the computer-controlled machine tools by which products are manufactured. But innovation in services has become increasingly important, as services industries now account for more than 80% of U.S. economy and 75% or more of most European ones.

The innovation – the wellspring of that “gale of creative destruction” discussed by Schumpeter – achieves its outsize economic impact through two principal channels: empowering productivity improvements and spurring the dynamic creation of new firms or activities that create new value. As a result, the production and innovative use of information technology has been responsible for at least 50% of acceleration in the growth in U.S. total factor productivity between 1995 and 2008, contributing to U.S. economy that is approximately \$2 trillion larger in terms of annual GDP than it would be otherwise (Atkinson, Ezell, 2012).

Now, more than ever, the nations need the innovation to remain globally competitive. This is true for developed nations, which without innovation have a hard time competing with the low-income, low-wage nations. Especially critical is their ability to lead in process innovation and to move up the value chain to develop the higher-value-added products and services that the less-developed nations simply can't make, at least not as well for the near and medium term. This is true for underdeveloped nations too. Finally, a healthy traded sector enables economies of all types to avoid high trade debts that will ultimately have to be paid off by future generations consuming less of what they produce.

The innovation is greatly important at all stages of development. The creation and diffusion of technologies matter for economic growth across all economies. However, it is also true that different types of innovation play different roles at various stages (OECD, 2012). In earlier stages, incremental innovation is often associated with adoption of foreign technology, and a social innovation can improve the effectiveness of business and public services. The high-technology R&D based innovation matters

at the later stages of development, when there are both factors of competitiveness and of learning that allow for completing the “catch-up” processes. The latter innovation type can be especially denoted in Estonia.

On other side, the countries that lead the world in developing innovation policy have followed a three-step process. First, they recognized the need to approach innovation systematically. Second, they effectively brought attention to the need for innovation to the body politic, putting forth and inspirational vision and strategy for action, replete with clearly articulated goals and ambitions. Finally, these countries made the tough decisions necessary to not only implement institutional reforms to drive their innovation strategies but also to adequately fund them, including R&D budgeting, even at expense of other government spending or lower taxes for individuals. Summing up, it is completely clear that is the way Estonia is following on. The denoted pathway of technological progress and global leadership is especially desirable for Lithuanian industry and academic sector in overall and governmental sector especially.

The models of R&D-induced growth can serve as empirical templates to assess the potential of different growth policies for countries. The present regressive analysis of Estonian high-tech export-oriented production clearly shows that the government-backed R&D policies retaining the growing levels of main driving factors are really correct and warrant a high future grow of production in question. It is a meaningful lesson to be learned in Lithuania where the technological progress of production is still slow and inert (Macys, 2013).

Suggestions

The following suggestions of research can be denoted:

a) To raise more R&D finances from private sector. It would raise the efficiency of R&D overall and especially the high-tech part of gross export.

b) To rise up to 3% of national GDP the public R&D finances in Estonia. An appropriate progress can be already noticed. The revised strategies and policies for innovation, entrepreneurship, and the functioning of knowledge economy in Estonia, and the flexibilities in order to respond to the challenges of world race for leading position are reasonable too.

c) To continue the analysis on the grounds of total factor production, product market competition and concentration of the sector, and knowledge diffusion in productivity improvements.

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Part Two: IMPROVING LIFE QUALITY AND ENHANCING EMPLOYMENT POSSIBILITIES

VIDA GUDZINSKIENE

This part deals with problems on improving the quality of life and employment. The content reflects the essence and quality of life in a systematic approach. Employment problem is considered together with the quality of life, as one of the most important and complex parts of this topic. Increasing employment and wealth improvement ideas are closely related to the strategic documents of European Union (the Lisbon Strategy, the EU economic and social cohesion policy instruments, the EU "Europe 2020") principles: the economic success of a country can be achieved and consolidated only with a strong social base.

In the part "Improving Life Quality and Enhancing Employment Possibilities" a comprehensive study on the legal, social, psychological and teaching assumptions of the Lithuanian population to improve the quality of life and increase employment opportunities, are presented and obstacles and reasons for the effective quality of life and employment are discussed. Basing on the research results effective methods how to overcome the obstacles and recommendations for wealth and employment, policymakers, public authorities, and practitioners are proposed.

Relevant papers of the various opinions of scientists are analysed and on the basis of their point of view the development of consensus in their efforts to eliminate the loss of employment, unemployment and emigration are discussed, with the decisions of the rising trend by providing ways of improving the quality of life.

The part includes following topics:

1. Political and social aspects of quality of life of Lithuanian residents is analysed in the context of globalization and EU accession.
2. Migration and the decision guidelines.

The first chapter of the part „Improving Life Quality and Enhancing Employment Possibilities“ is dedicated to analyze political and social aspects of quality of life of Lithuanian residents analysis of

in the context of globalization and EU accession. The chapter begins from with description of guarantees to the workers with family responsibilities in Lithuania. By analysing legal acts of Lithuania issued after 2004, when Lithuania has ratified Convention No. 156 of International Labour Organization “Concerning Equal Opportunities And Equal Treatment For Men And Women Workers: Workers With Family Responsibilities”. By analyzing legal acts highlights the scientific perspective of Lithuanian law had no complex research and nobody has analyzed legal guarantees to workers with family responsibilities, identifies groups of workers with various family responsibilities and provides gaps in legal regulation on unequal guarantees for persons when the duties are performed for other family members, the workers with dependent children in respect with their marital status, family composition, number and age of children. It is suggested to equalize the guarantees to the workers with family responsibilities, both to the single parent and parents raising children together regardless the age of the children, since either there is a child under the age of 14 or 16 years, they all require care and attention equally. Accordingly, it is suggested to delete the word “single” in corresponding provisions of the Labour Code. Because such amendments will eliminate discrimination and will provide analogical protection to the persons taking care or attending other family members and to have better quality of life workers with family responsibilities in Lithuania and their family. Parents of such families can to have an opportunity to balance family and work. Characteristics of the life style of adolescent male convicts imprisoned in Kaunas juvenile correction facility and their values of social life are highlighted. Analyzing the current situation and defining the key issues focusing on the objective and subjective factors affecting the youth crime in Lithuania. 15-18 years old juvenile males convicted and imprisoned from one to four years in correction institution for serious crimes have participated in the research. The majority of the respondents had been sentenced to prison for the fourth time; however, most of them were 17 years old. It is important to note that many juveniles had been raised in the single headed families, grew together with their grandparents or in the social risk families, which are distinguished by the lack of parental responsibility, incapability to solve problems and conflicts in a positive and constructive way which sometimes leads into anti-social behaviour and criminal activities as well.

Important factors influencing the juvenile delinquency are discussed: biological, psychological, socio-educational, socio-economical, moral-ethical factors. The style of life within the family that can be a trigger of antisocial behaviour of the juveniles are also analyzed: (a) poor emotional relationships

between parents and children or even absence of such; (b) conflicts within family, the divorce, poor bringing-up or lack of parental care; (c) the neglect and too much occupied parents; (d) the misuse of the substances; (e) being a social risk family, and (f) aggression towards the children.

The study revealed that many juveniles had been cared by the lack of parental responsibility. The teenagers had no examples of developing positive social skills in their environment that could enable them to solve complicated situations of their lives, changing the life styles and to form attitude towards socially accepted life. It can be proposed that the lack of social skills, as well as the example of socially acceptable life style within the family is one of the main factors influencing the negative nature of behaviour of the juveniles sentenced to imprisonment in the correction institutions. Teenagers participating in the research had no adequate concept of spending time together with their parents. The vast majority of juveniles filling the questionnaire of qualitative research stated that they spend their free time together with their parents; however the qualitative interview focused on the details of how the respondents spent their time together with their parents. According to the results of the research the majority of the juveniles had no responsibilities at home. It is obvious that many juvenile delinquents had no authoritative social skills training model within their closest family environment, which will change the way of life, would encourage acting positively in everyday situations, solve conflicts that arise and develop the concept of pro-social life style. The majority of the juvenile delinquents declared that the parents did not organized the living of the family, did not controlled their children behaviour, the communication and relationships were poor and the lack of positive upbringing was identified. Based on the results of the empiric and theoretical analysis we can claim that the family is the primary and the most important micro-environment that has significant influence on the juvenile model of the behaviour and the life style. The antisocial behaviour of the teenagers could be triggered and influenced by the unfavourable circumstances within the family. Analysis of the life-style characteristics of the juveniles sentenced to imprisonment, before the conviction and the attitudes towards pro-social life, revealed that the majority of adolescents involved in the survey would have spent the time with their peers or all alone using personal computer. The juveniles serving the sentence in correction institution had not gained the skills of the sapid occupation and the parents were not much interested in their children before their conviction. The majority of the juveniles who participated in the survey did not have the right model in the family and the poor upbringing had influenced the delinquency.

The second chapter “Migration and the decision guidelines” is focused on disclosure of volunteering expression using different models of social work with Third-countries citizens. Migration is an old phenomenon in the world and is researched in various aspects. In Lithuania long time migration was analysed as emigration – when Lithuanian citizens leaving Lithuania. On the other hand when Lithuania become a member of European Union (EU) (2004) and when joined Shengen area (2007) accelerates immigration process in Lithuania. According to the Department of Statistics in the year 2012 immigrated the large number of people since the year 2000. Following the number of immigrants was also increasing cultural and ethnically diversity; broaden by Asian and African nations. This brings new challenges for Lithuania as country, integrating new people into society. Social work area is taking this responsibility and seeking to help with integration process for TCC's and for citizens of Lithuania. But social work with integration of immigrants is not always similar to any other field of social work and is mostly happening in NGO's. Social work in NGO's is often having relation not only social worker-client (in this case TCC), but adding one more actor: social worker-volunteer-client. Volunteering is one of the strengtheners of the NGO's and can be used more strategically in social work. Studies have substantiated that in Lithuania citizens of the Third-countries seeking to help to integrate into Lithuanian society, three models of social work with immigrants were applied in international dimension. Volunteering expression using different models of social work with the citizens of the Third-countries show that Integration into citizenship model, with emphasizes the role of social worker or volunteer as the enablers. Social worker or volunteer acting in this model helps for immigrant to settle down in a new society, to aware economical, political and social differences, which can influence their life. Main work is directed into empowerment of immigrants for inner change, which increase possibilities for actions overcoming complicated situations and strengthening progress. Social worker together with volunteering is educating immigrant for constructive behaviour in a new society. When Lithuanian volunteers are invited to cooperate with social workers by implementation of integration into citizenship model, then volunteering reinforces the entrenchment of immigrants in Lithuania. Also relationship with volunteering Lithuanians helps for immigrants to create close relationship not only with immigrants from other countries (these relations natural are becoming with time close), but also with Lithuanians, offering help for them and giving for them time. Community social work model is connected to the Integration to citizenship model, because integration is orientated into community level. Community social work model is based on volunteering and interaction of social

workers with volunteering community. The objectives of social work are fulfilled, when social worker is acting together with community and when the volunteers are in the basis of giving the services. When community social work model is open for voluntary work, it gives opportunities not only for qualitative social services with a help of Lithuanian volunteers, but also appears possibility to invite into volunteering immigrants. Immigrants are invited to present own culture for diverse groups in the community and through it to know better their social environment. Thus, volunteering immigrants are becoming more open-minded for Lithuanian culture and for community, which accept openness of them by sharing in presentations. It should be noted that anti-oppressive model is emphasising what is not dominating and non exceptional. Immigrants coming into new country have to find place in the society and to be part of it, but forgetting own culture, rather keeping and contributing with diverse national culture. Anti-oppressive model in social work emphasise learning together of social worker, volunteers and clients. With learning together immigrants are more able to present their culture and to integrate into society without losing the “roots”. Pursuant to the data of the research when anti-oppressive model is used in social work, then volunteering can be a tool for learning if TCC volunteers are volunteering together with Lithuanian volunteers organising common activities or planning parallel separate activities. Survey shows, that even not seeking deliberately to apply anti-oppressive mode in social work, but creating opportunities for TCC and Lithuanian citizens to volunteer together, social work is implemented on the basis of anti-oppressive model principles. Thus, this chapter focuses on analysis of quality of life of Lithuanian residents in the context of political and social aspects under conditions of globalization and EU accession, as well as on volunteering expression using different models of social work with the citizens of the Third-countries.

Chapter 1: Guarantees to the Workers with Family Responsibilities in Lithuania

INGRIDA MACERNYTE PANOMARIOVIENE

Introduction

Today, when men and women are equally involved in labour market where dominates “the culture of long working hours, intensive pace of work, high requirements of work quality² and introduction of new technologies”, families with young children or taking care of elderly or disabled relatives very often face the dilemma of work and family balance.

According to the Appendix of the European Social Charter (revised, 1996), the concept of “family responsibilities” has to be interpreted as the responsibilities of men and women workers concerning maintenance of their dependent children and other close family members, who need immediate care for and protection (support). The object of the Paragraph 3 Article 27 of the European Social Charter (revised) and Convention No. 156 of the International Labour Organization (hereinafter the ILO) is to prevent these responsibilities from restricting workers’ possibilities of preparing for, entering, participating in or advancing in economic activities. The concept of “family responsibilities”

² Work quality includes the following various aspects: elimination and reduction of risks to health, work organization at the workplace, social insurance, including adequate remuneration, possibility to raise qualification and improve skills, as well as tools to improve balance between family and profession. Special emphasis falls on the voluntary industry programs for employees’ health enhancement. Safe and harmless workplaces, as well as work organization forms granting employees with more autonomy in their work, are important elements increasing work productivity and innovation capacity. Social conditions also influence such work organization. This has to be taken into account by corporate structures and culture. Therefore, Lisbon Strategy has to be implemented on the enterprise-level, economic and social goals have to be integrated. See more in: Approved Framework of Work-Life Balance Model under the Thematic Area „Work-Life Balance“ of the European Commission Initiative EQUAL.

is not defined in the regulatory acts of Lithuanian law, therefore, both “responsibilities” and “persons who can implement these responsibilities” are interpreted differently in various legal acts. Current legal framework has been developed and is applied to the “workers with family responsibilities” in a narrow sense. In respect with the European Union and International Labour standards, the Labour Code of the Republic of Lithuania (hereinafter the LC) includes a number of problems concerning the implementation of employee’s (both men and women) rights with family responsibilities.

Lithuania has implemented a number of projects “Work-Life Balance” and has approved “Framework of Work-Life Balance Model” under the Thematic Areas “Work-Life Balance” of the European Commission Initiative EQUAL. Moreover, a substantial number of scientific research have been conducted and publications released, for example, the research on “Dilemmas and Opportunities of Work & Life Balance” under the support of the program of the Initiative EQUAL of the European Commission, The Study of Work-Family Balance Opportunities in Lithuania, Czech Republic, Spain and Germany (G. Malinauskas, 2006), Implementation of Family-Friendly Policy In Lithuania: Challenges and Opportunities (R. Jančaitytė, 2006), The Dilemma of Reconciliation of Work and Family Roles, The Role of the State and the Employers In Creating A Family-Friendly Environment (J.Reingardė, 2006), Reconciliation of Work and Family Life Including Maternity/Paternity/Parental Leave And Career Breaks (2009), the Study On “Analysis of the Model of Work-Family Interface And Application of Continuity And Flexible Work Organization Forms” (2012) under the project “Employers For Family-Friendly Workplace” and other publications including suggestions on the specific arrangements for the implementation of the principle “work-life balance”. However, none of the previous works had included comprehensive legal analysis concerning the compliance of the Labour Code of the Republic of Lithuania³ and other certain regulatory acts with the implementations of equal opportunities and the principle of “work-life balance”, except the scientific study on „Employment, Family and Social Security: The Problems of Ensuring the Human Rights in 2008-2012“ (2013)⁴, which provides the analysis of the gaps in the implementation of certain provisions related with the work and family balance opportunities in Lithuania. So far, the scientific perspective of

³ The Labour Code of the Republic of Lithuania. Official Gazette 2002. No.64-2569.

⁴ E.Kavoliūnaitė-Ragauskienė, I.Mačernytė Panomariovienė, V.Petrylaitė. „Darbas, šeima ir socialinė apsauga: žmogaus teisių užtikrinimo 2008-2012 metais problemos“ („Employment, Family and Social Security: The Problems of Ensuring the Human Rights in 2008-2012“) [Scientific study], V., 2013, Pages 14-18, 26-27.ISBN 978-9986-704-24-9 (Online edition);

Lithuanian law had no complex research and nobody has analyzed legal guarantees to workers with family responsibilities. The article identifies groups of workers with various family responsibilities and provides gaps in legal regulation on unequal guarantees for persons when the duties are performed for other family members, the workers with dependent children in respect with their marital status, family composition and number and age of children.

The object of the research is to invoke linguistic, systematical, logic and analytical-critical methods and to identify the gaps in the Lithuanian law, which impede the implementation of the principle “work-life balance”, and to provide the suggestions for their elimination. The article will discuss such concepts as “family responsibilities”, “persons who implement such responsibilities” and concrete guarantees which are granted to persons performing these duties in order they do not encounter difficulties in getting the job, at work, making the career or in order family responsibilities do not constitute a valid reason for the termination of employment and etc.

Results and findings of the research

The content of the term “Family responsibilities”

In 2004 Lithuania has ratified Convention No. 156 of International Labour Organization “Concerning Equal Opportunities And Equal Treatment For Men And Women Workers: Workers With Family Responsibilities”. The Article 7 of the latter Convention maintains that “all measures compatible with national conditions and possibilities, including measures in the field of vocational guidance and training, shall be taken to enable workers with family responsibilities to become and remain integrated in the labour forces, as well as re-enter the labour force after an absence due to those responsibilities”. The term “family responsibilities” of this Convention applies to the workers with responsibilities in relation to their dependent children, as well as other members of their immediate family who clearly need their care and support, where such responsibilities restrict their possibilities of preparing for, entering, participating in or advancing in economic activity. The concept of “dependent child and other members of immediate family who clearly need care of or support” of this Convention applies to persons defined as such by national laws or other regulatory acts, collective agreement or work rules, court decisions and etc. Under the Article 1 of the ILO Convention No. 156 “Concerning Equal Opportunities And Equal Treatment For Men And Women Workers: Workers With Family

Responsibilities” and the Article 27 (Appendix) of the European Social Charter (revised), the term “family responsibilities” has to be understood as the responsibilities of men and women in relation to their dependent children and other members of immediate family who clearly need care of and support.

The term “family responsibilities” is not regulated by Lithuanian legislation. Current Lithuanian legal framework is formed and applied to “the workers with family responsibilities” in a strict sense. The Article 38 of the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania⁵ identifies the following duties: to bring up the children and support them until they come of age; to take care of the parents in their old age. The laws provide various duties both for parents and their children; however, the terms “family members” and “relatives” are not clearly and unanimously defined⁶. Thus, the responsibilities and guarantees for their implementation differ in respect with the scope of each law.

The object of the Paragraph 3 Article 27 of the European Social Charter (revised) and Convention No. 156 of the International Labour Organization is “to prevent these responsibilities from restricting workers’ possibilities of preparing for, entering, participating in or advancing in economic activities.”⁷ In other words, persons who perform these duties shall be granted guarantees for equal opportunities, shall not be discriminated for gender and both men and women must be provided with equal conditions in getting the job, at work, making the career or in order family responsibilities do not constitute a valid reason for the termination of employment, and etc. Lithuanian laws do not define all persons who have to perform family responsibilities. For example, Article 2 of the Law on Support for Employment of the Republic of Lithuania (hereinafter as the LSE) provides the term “persons with family obligations” as persons whose employment opportunities are restricted by familial circumstances (required nursing or care for children under 3 years of age, or for sick or disabled family members who under the decision of Disability and Working Capacity Assessment Office at the

⁵ The right and duty of parents is to bring up their children to be honest people and faithful citizens and to support them until they come of age. The duty of children is to respect their parents, to take care of them in their old age, and to preserve their heritage.

⁶ K. Ambrazevičiūtė, E. Kavoliūnaitė-Ragauskienė, V. Mizaras. Šeimoms kai teisinės kategorijos turinys Lietuvos Respublikos įstatymuose. (“The Content of A Family As A Legal Category In The Law of The Republic of Lithuania.”). Teisės problemos, (Journal “Legal Issues”), 2012, No.4(78), p.100.

⁷ Conclusions 2003, Statement of Interpretation on Article 27 p. 3, Bulgaria, p. 89: [interactive].

<http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/monitoring/socialcharter/Digest/DigestSept2008_en.pdf>(access on 9 January 2013)..

Ministry of Social Security and Labour are approved a permanent nursing and maintenance). Brackets list only a part of responsibilities which restrict human's possibilities for full work, employment or any other activity. Respectively, other articles of the above mentioned LSE list a more concrete group of persons who are additionally supported by the State including pregnant women, a mother (adoptive mother) or a father (adoptive father), a guardian or a custodian who actually raises a child under 8 years of age or a disabled child under 18 years of age (before 1 July 2005 – a child recognised as an invalid) and persons taking care of sick or disabled family members who under the decision of Disability and Working Capacity Assessment Office at the Ministry of Social Security and Labour are approved a permanent nursing and maintenance.⁸ According to the authors of the Comments on the Labour Code of the Republic of Lithuania, Subparagraph 2 Paragraph 1 Article 135 LC provides a priority right to retain the job for the employees who care alone for other family members; however, it does not specify who might be recognized as the “other family member”. Therefore, the provisions of the Chapter XVI Part VI of the Civil Code of the Republic of Lithuania (hereinafter as the CC) should be taken into guide since they regulate the responsibilities for the maintenance of the other family members, i.e. sisters and brothers (Article 3.236), grandchildren and grandparents (Article 3.237).⁹ However, as the group of researchers has found, the Lisbon Strategy recognizes a much wider circle of people with family responsibilities than it is provided in the existing Lithuanian legislation.¹⁰ On the other hand, in the Conclusions on the implementation of the European Social Charter (revised, 1996) in Lithuania the European Committee of Social Rights¹¹ has emphasized that “family responsibilities” shall be understood in a broader sense than just the duty to bring up, support and maintain the children, especially the disabled ones. It means care, nursing and maintenance of relatives and other family

⁸ Law on Support for Employment. Article 4. Official Gazette, 2006, No. 73-2762.

⁹ Comments of the Labour Code of the Republic of Lithuania. Part III “Individual Employment Relations”. [Authors] II volume. V.: Justitia, 2004, P. 152.

¹⁰ The Study On “Analysis of the Model of Work-Family Interface and Application of Continuity and Flexible Work Organization Forms” under the project “Employers for Family-Friendly Workplace”. Vilnius: PI “Socialinės gerovės projekcija”, 2012.. P.60. [interactive].

<http://www.zef.lt/zef/modules/document_publisher/documents/4/Studija_Seima_darbas_final.pdf> (access on 9 January 2013).

¹¹ Conclusions 2003, Statement on Interpretation of Article 27 p. 3, Bulgaria, p. 89. [interactive].

<http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/monitoring/socialcharter/Digest/DigestSept2008_en.pdf>. (access on 9 January 2013).

members, such as spouse (partner), older parents, grandparents and other persons. And all this must be in balance with work. Consequently, the State has to ensure that the employer will be socially responsible, flexible and tolerant towards such responsibilities. Besides, the State must provide guarantees, protection and insure that the workers will not be dismissed because of their family responsibilities

In summary it might be stated that Lithuanian legislation does not define a clear term of “family responsibilities”, as well as provides a narrower circle of persons with such obligations. Hereinafter, we will analyze the guarantees which are provided to the persons with family responsibilities in respect with employment, work, career and other activities.

Guarantees to persons trying to balance between work and family responsibilities

LC has no single system which would provide guarantees for the performance of certain responsibilities; neither has it included a clear regulation to which workers these guarantees should be applied. The analysis of the legal norms on family responsibilities or obligations of certain employees has distinguished corresponding guarantees to these workers. Exceptionally large group of guarantees is provided to the workers who raise children, a slightly smaller group to those who care of, nurse or maintain family members and the least group includes guarantees for other responsibilities, for example, to contract a marriage or for a funeral of a family member.

Guarantees to the Workers Growing Children

The analysis of the norms of LC has revealed that guarantees to the workers raising children cover an exceptional part. They may be provided with the guarantees in respect to the age and number of children, depending on whether children are raised by divorced, widowed or unmarried (single) persons, according to their responsibilities (care of, nursing):

- a) To a pregnant woman or a woman who has recently given birth and a woman who breast-feeds, a husband/child’s father (Article 96 par. 1 subpar. 1, Article 129 par. 3, subpar.4, Articles 132, 146, 150, 154, 155, 161, 162, 169, Article 170 par. 1 subpar. 4, Articles 178, 179, 179¹, 220, 278 of LC);

- b) To employees growing child (children) under three years of age (Article 132 par. 2, Articles 146, 150, 154, 155, 161, 162, Article 170 par. 1, subpar. 3, Articles 178, 180, 184, 214, 220, 278 of LC);
- c) To employees growing a child with disabilities before he has reached 18 years (Articles 184, 214 of LC),
- d) To employees growing two or more children before they have reached the age of 12 (Article 214 par. 1),
- e) To employees growing a child before he has reached the age of 12 (Article 214 par. 2),
- f) To employees growing children under 14 years of age (Article 129 par. 4, Articles 130, 184 of LC).
- g) To employees who are solely growing:
 - ☞ Children under 14 years of age (Articles 146, 147, 150, 154, 155, 161, 162, 166, 169 and 220 of LC),
 - ☞ Child under 16 years of age (Article 135 par. 1, subpar 2),
 - ☞ A disabled child under 18 years of age (Articles 146, 150, 154, 155, 161, 162, 166, 169, 220 of LC).

The discussion on guarantees should note that general non-discrimination provisions promoting the principle of equality in employment relations are embedded in Article 1 Par. 1 Subpar. 4 LC, while special provisions, i.e. Article 96 Par. 1 Subpar. 1 LC and Article 129 Par. 3 Subpar. 4 LC, prohibit to refuse to employ and to terminate the employment with persons for their intention to have children or on the basis of their marital and family status. It should be also mentioned that LC does not exclude persons with family responsibilities by gender, except pregnancy and maternity leave is granted for women and paternity leave is granted for men¹². However, the law does not provide equal protection until the child reaches the age of 1 month, i.e. if, according to the Article 132 Par. 1 LC, the mother is covered with the protection for 1 month after pregnancy and maternity leave, the husband

¹² Here a person's physical, not marital state is considered, since in 2005 the experts of the European Committee of Social Rights have provided their conclusions concerning these provisions (see: [interactive].

http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/monitoring/socialcharter/Conclusions/State/Lithuania2005_en.pdf (access on 9 January 2013)) and after criticism the legislator has changed the provision of Article 179¹ par. 2 of LC and has deleted the part „if child's father is married to child's mother“.

(child's father) is not provided with such guarantees, except a right for paternity leave (Article 179¹ LC). On the other hand, there are authors¹³ who distinguish guarantees for child care only to the biological parents, though Article 180 LC clearly states that children might be taken care not only by their parents, but also by grandparents, other family members or even by persons without family ties – guardians, foster parents and others: at the choice of the family, to the mother/adoptive mother, to the father/adoptive father, to the grandmother/grandfather or to any other relatives who are actually raising the child, and also to the worker who has been recognized as the guardian of the child.

As it can be seen in the table, the age of children in LC varies from 3 to 18 years (3, 12, 14, 16 and 18). It should be mentioned that the Law on the Support for Employment of the Republic of Lithuania distinguishes one more child age limit – child under 8 years of age: “the state supports persons who actually raise child (foster child) under 8 years of age” (Art. 4). According to the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania, children should be cared of and maintained until they come of age, i.e. until the age of 18 years, while the Labour Code differentiates the guarantees to persons raising children in respect with their different age. In terms of privileges, the attention should be drawn to the fact that persons raising children are protected sufficiently, especially the ones raising children under the age of 3 years (LC provides them even with 15 guarantees) or solely raising children under 14 years of age (LC provides them with 10 additional guarantees). Moreover, the number of guarantees depends on whether both parents raise a disabled child (LC provides only with 2 protection norms) or solely (LC provides even with 9 additional protection norms). For example, Article 129 Par. 4 LC states that employment contract with the employees raising children under 14 years of age may be terminated only in extraordinary cases where the retention of an employee would substantially violate the interests of the employer. Due to extraordinary cases, employees must be given notice of dismissal from work at least four months in advance. Article 132 LC protects only those employees who raise children under the age of 3 years, i.e. employment contract with such employees may not be terminated without any fault on the part of the employee concerned (Article 129 LC). Article 135 Par. 1 Subpar. 2

¹³ The Study On “Analysis of the Model of Work-Family Interface and Application of Continuity and Flexible Work Organization Forms” under the project “Employers for Family-Friendly Workplace”. Vilnius: PI „Socialinės gerovės projekcija“, 2012. P. 60 [interactive].

<http://www.zef.lt/zef/modules/document_publisher/documents/4/Studija_Seima_darbas_final.pdf> (access on 9 January 2013).

LC distinguishes the privilege of “the right of priority to retain the job in the case of redundancy” and applies it to the workers who are raising children under 16 years of age alone or caring for other family members who need care of or nursing. Here might be mentioned other provisions which are provided to the employees raising children solely: Article 146 Par.1 Subpar. 3 LC determines cases when part time daily or part weekly working time is provided; Article 147 Par. 5 LC provides a possibility to have a priority right to choose a shift; the employees raising child alone may be assigned to do overtime work (Art. 150 LC), to night work (Art. 154 LC), to work on rest days (Art. 161) or during holidays (Art. 162 LC) may be appointed to be on duty at the enterprise or at home (Art. 155) or sent on a business trip (Art. 220 LC) only with their consent; according to Art. 166 LC they are provided with longer minimum annual leave (35 calendar days) and Art. 169 Par. 4 Subpar. 2 LC entitles them to choose the time of annual leave after six months of uninterrupted work at an enterprise. However, the implementation practice of the provision “raising child as single parent” encounters a number of problems¹⁴. Therefore, the Senate of the Supreme Court of Lithuania¹⁵ explained the term “single parent”. Workers are acknowledged as “single parents” if they actually raise a child alone (for example, a widow, a single mother, the other parent is serving a sentence in prison, the marriage is terminated or parents live separately and under the decision of the court a child lives with one of the parents). This list is not exhaustive, since in practice there might be other cases when one of the parents is acknowledged as single parent. The interpretation of this term does not heed whether the worker maintains the child alone or whether another child’s parent also implements the obligation to maintain the under-aged child financially. Accordingly, there is a question why the employees raising a child alone are granted with more supports and protection than those who are raising children together, i.e. in marriage, since the care and raising of a child is the obligation of both parents, regardless of the fact that they are married, live together or separately? The attention is drawn to the Conclusions on the implementation of the European Social Charter (1996)¹⁶ in Lithuania where the European Committee of Social Rights (hereinafter Committee)¹⁷ indicated that discrimination based on the marital or family

¹⁴ Resolution in Administrative Case No. I-1002-121/2009 of Vilnius Regional Administrative Court.

¹⁵ Resolution No. 44, par. 12.2 of the Senate of the Supreme Court of Lithuanian, 29 December 2003.

¹⁶ European Social Charter (revised) (NEWS, 2001, No. 49-1704).

¹⁷ Homepage of the European Committee of Social Rights [interactive].

<<http://www.coe.int/T/DGHL/Monitoring/SocialCharter/>> (access on 9 January 2013).

status, as well as on the ground of gender, is prohibited and that the term “family responsibilities” is a broader concept independent of whether persons performing these duties are married or live separately, whether a father or a mother takes care of a child or another family member¹⁸. Accordingly, there might be made a conclusion that the LC includes provisions which violate the above mentioned rights; therefore, guarantees should be equally applied to a single parent raising a child, as well as to a family where both parents maintain a child. On the other hand, as it has been already mentioned, “persons raising a child” should be interpreted broader than just a father and a mother or a foster father/mother, since they might also be the custodians, adult brothers or sisters, grandfathers, when both parents are absent or are incapable to maintain their children (for example, serve a punishment, are sick themselves or are deprived of maternity/paternity and similar).

Guarantees to Workers Having Responsibilities to Other Family Members

Several articles of the LC mention the guarantees to the workers attending family members: 1) Nursing: A sick family member (Article 133 Par. 3 LC, Article 146 Par.1, Article 184); Persons suffering chronic diseases (Article 169 Par. 8 LC); Disabled family member (Article 155 Par. 4 LC; Article 169 Par. 8; Article 170 Par. 1 Subpar. 8); 2) Alone adults: Taking care of a person with disabilities (Article 184 Par. 1 Subpar. 5 LC); Care for other family members recognized as the disabled with less than 55 percent of working capacity or who have become entitled to the full old age pension and according to the law are recognized as persons with moderate or severe special needs (Article 135 Par. 1 Subpar. 2 LC).

The worker must take care of the other family members and relatives, who are provided with the above listed guarantees, in case if they are sick or have special needs and etc. Such guarantees include part time work (Art. 146 LC), annual leave at the time of their choice (Art. 169 LC), unpaid leave (Art. 184 LC), the right of priority to retain the job in case of redundancy (Art. 135 LC), retain their position and duties if they are absent from work due to temporary loss of functional capacity for not more than 120 successive days or for not more than 140 days within the last 12 months where the period during which an employee was in receipt of a state social insurance benefit for attending a

¹⁸ European Social Charter (revised). European Committee of Social Rights Conclusions. 2011 (LITHUANIA). Articles 7, 8, 16, 17, 19, 27 and 31 of the Revised Charter. January 2012. P.28 [interactive].

<http://www.coe.int/t/dghl/monitoring/socialcharter/Conclusions/State/Lithuania2011_en.pdf> (access on 9 January 2013).

family member is not included (Article 133 Par. 2-3 LC). However, as it might be seen in the table, not all guarantees are applied equally to the workers with such responsibilities who want to balance duties and work. For example, a person taking care of the disabled or elderly family members has no right to part time work unless he makes an agreement with the employer. Moreover, the guarantees are not provided to the workers who have responsibilities for other family members (except employees raising a child until the age of 14 years) in case of termination of the employment contract without any fault on the part of the employee (Article 129 Par. 4 LC)¹⁹. Article 135 Par. 1 Subpar. 2 LC improves the situation only in part, since it provides the right of priority to retain the job in case of redundancy for the employees “caring alone for other family members recognised as having severe or moderate level of disablement or working capacity of less than 55 percent, or family members who are entitled to full age pension and have severe or moderate level of special needs”. As it might be seen, this protection is applied only to those who take care of above mentioned persons alone. In repetition, it might be made a conclusion, that those provisions are discriminatory and violate the rights of the workers who live together with their spouses, are married and have responsibilities to corresponding family members. Moreover, they do not implement the provisions embedded in Paragraph 3 Article 27 of European Social Charter and in the Article 8 of ILO Convention No. 156 which state that „the member states shall ensure that family responsibilities shall not constitute a valid reason for the termination of employment”. Therefore, it might be stated that they do not guarantee the protection against termination of employment to the workers who have responsibilities to other family members. LC provides one more privilege to the employees who, on their own, take care of a person with disabilities, i.e. unpaid leave (Subpar. 5 Par. 1 Art. 184 LC). And again there is an issue on equal opportunities to workers who are not single, but still have similar responsibilities.

Just a few norms are provided for the implementation of other responsibilities related with other family members:

- To contract a marriage (Art. 184 LC);
- For a funeral of a family member (Art. 184 LC).

¹⁹ An employment contract with employees, who will be entitled to the full old age pension in not more than five years, persons under 18 years of age, disabled persons and employees raising children under 14 years of age may be terminated only in extraordinary cases where the retention of an employee would substantially violate the interests of the employer.

Mandatory provisions only provide a privilege to get unpaid leave, but there are still no guarantees over the protection of such workers. Guarantees over other responsibilities and other family members might be included in the collective agreement; however, this issue will not be discussed in this article.

Conclusions

International law and regulatory acts of the European Union recognize the need of protection in the field of work and family balance and it is quite bigger than the protection provided in Lithuanian law. The latter statement may be well grounded by the following facts: (1) Lithuania does not implement the provisions embedded in Paragraph 3 Article 27 of European Social Charter and in the Article 8 of ILO Convention No. 156 which state that „the member states shall ensure that family responsibilities shall not constitute a valid reason for the termination of employment”, since neither the Article 129, nor the Article 135 of the Labour Code do not indicate how to protect the employees with responsibilities to other family members (for example, for the spouse or partner, elderly parents, grandfathers, sisters or brothers and etc.) against the termination of employment; (2) without any reason greater protection is provided for the persons raising children alone, though, the Conclusions (Lithuania) of the European Committee of Social Rights has noticed that discrimination based on the marital or family status, as well as on the ground of gender, is prohibited and that the term “family responsibilities” is a broader concept independent of whether persons performing these duties are married or live separately, whether a father or a mother takes care of a child or another family member.

Suggestions

Therefore, it is suggested to equalize the guarantees to the workers with family responsibilities, both to the single parent and parents raising children together regardless the age of the children, since either there is a child under the age of 14 or 16 years, they all require care and attention equally. Accordingly, it is suggested to delete the word “single (alone)” in corresponding provisions of the

Labour Code. Such amendments will eliminate discrimination and will provide analogical protection to the persons taking care or attending other family members.

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Chapter 2: The Characteristics of the Life Styles within the Family of the Juveniles Sentenced to Imprisonment in Correction Institutions (Before Conviction)

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Introduction

The social and economic changes in the country are also triggering the changes within the family, home, school and society in general. The juveniles are particularly sensitive towards such changes and these of course influence the formation of the behaviour and the values. The life style of the grownups, especially parents, appears to be a model for the juvenile behaviour. *The adolescence is one of the most complicated stages of the human development, when the teenager is straining to break free from the control of the parents and he wants to hide his internal hollowness and uncertainty through misbehaving* (Bukeikaitė, Pruskus, 2006, p. 362).

Many authors believe that the delinquency of the juveniles is formed during the process of socialization, when the deviation is influenced both by the biological and social factors. The behaviour of the children which is thought to be learned depends on the living environment and successful process of the socialization. According to Valickas (1997), some of the most common and important factors that influence anti-social behaviour of the teenagers are the mistakes of the upbringing and the isolation and repulsion among other children. Lawrence (2007), Taylor (2007), Robertson (2010) claim that the correlation between juvenile delinquency and unfavourable circumstances within the family are very distinct.

The objective of the section is to disclose the life style characteristic of the juvenile delinquents serving imprisonment service in correction institutions. The objective is defined by the following goals:

to provide accurate survey of the factors that can influence the juvenile delinquency phenomenon; to disclose the influence of the family on the life style of the minors and provide the self-evaluation of the life styles of the juveniles before conviction.

The research methodology – quantitative research, questionnaire, the analysis of the quantitative research and standard interviews with juveniles sentenced to imprisonment in correction institution, qualitative analysis of the research.

The factors influencing juvenile delinquency

The juvenile delinquency is the phenomenon what has been in focus of many European countries targeting the rising crime rate. The negative or anti-social behaviour of the minors has got an significant impact on the public opinion towards juvenile delinquencies According to Jurkonytė (2010) – the aggressive behaviour of the children and adolescents is a global problem existing all over the world. “The recent years studies had proved that this negative social phenomenon is been rising rapidly and had gained new, IT related forms (Jurkonytė, 2010, p. 67). It is also very important to notice that the juveniles committing crimes often target other adolescents. Sakalauskas (2000) claims that the persons who committed crimes and reach certain legal age can be brought to trial no matter what kind of crime they committed or what involvement form they took. The 2nd part of the 11th article of the Criminal Code states that the 14-16 years old teenagers can answer for their criminal activity what has been recognized as intentional according to criminal legislation. Moreover the 14 years olds can only answer for the crimes mentioned in the mentioned article (Sakalauskas, 2000).

We can surely agree that the juveniles can commit crimes for many reasons and circumstances. Galaguzova and others (2001) speaks about the factors, that can influence criminal activity and these can be grouped into: biological, psychological, socio-educational, socio-economical and moral-ethnic factors.

Biological factors – the adverse physiological and anatomical changes in the teenager’s body that can obstruct the successful adaptation of the minors.

Psychological factors – the presence of various psychopathological and personal characteristics which materializes in different neurological and psychological dysfunctions. These of course can provoke many inadequate reactions of the minors towards some people, phenomena etc. Bulotaitė

(2009) claims that some personal characteristics (low self-esteem, the lack of the responsibility) would trigger the criminal behaviour of the minors.

Socio-educational factors - appear as the gaps or defect of the education within family, school and society. The teenager gets essential information and knowledge in school, family during the process of educating which in first instance can ease difficult period of adolescence. However such phenomena's as failures in the school, absence from school, lack of sapid occupation can influence the substance abuse, harmful behaviour, need for challenging parents or friends, which of course can predetermine the life style in grown up age. According to Kuginytė-Arlauskienė (2009), the environment of the growing child (family, school, peers, and mass information measures) is vital to the successful development. The lack of social skills is one of the preconditions of criminal behaviour and oppositely – well gained and strong social skills are preventive measures for risky behaviour.

Socio-economic factors cover such phenomena's as social inequality; division of the society to classes; equal opportunities, etc.

Moral-ethical factors are distinguished by low moral level and deformed system of values in the modern society. In the modern society we see escalated material objects and the spiritual ones are pushed back and lost their value. The society has been ignoring different negative processes (the juvenile delinquency as well) for a long time (Leliūgienė, 2003). We should also take into account that the juvenile delinquency is also triggered by the abuse demonstrated via mass information measures (Kuginytė-Arlauskienė, 2009).

Of course these factors aren't the only ones responsible for the negative behaviour of the adolescents. Structural changes in the family (separation, divorce) or the difficulties combining the family and job predetermine the poor attention towards the children and ignorant upbringing style. In many cases the adolescents these gaps fill with the participation in teenagers gangs which are unified by ideological, ethnical or common interest's principles. These gangs often can be of antisocial or even criminal nature (graffiti, vandalism) (Kuginytė-Arlauskienė, 2009).

Another important factor correlating with the inclination for juvenile delinquency is social and economic exclusion and poverty. The teenagers experience difficulties integrating into society in such cases which are more common among immigrants' families and the specific "ghetto's" of the big cities. These areas are distinguished by the vast environment triggering aggression and despair of the citizens (Leliūgienė, 2003).

The absence from school and the failures in school is another factor connected with antisocial behaviour. The researchers had identified that great influence on the fall of the motivation to get education is made by the attitudes towards the education system. The lack of the motivation is more common among the adolescents with behaviour difficulties and those who fail in school. It is important to mention that the least influence towards the falling motivation has got the complexity of the subjects (Indrašienė, Suboč, 2010). If the pupil fails in school he is labelled and faces the social condemnation which can be a straight way to the antisocial behaviour.

The mass information measures has got an enormous influence on the society and children, often taking over the role which belongs exceptionally to the family and the school and forms the values, attitudes and models of behaviour. The video material what demonstrates *violence and abuse, also the video games* form young people's system of values where the violence is tolerated and accepted.

Substance and drug misuse. Addicted adolescents most often commit crimes because of their wish to get drugs. On another hand because of the influence of these substances or the feeling of the abstinence the natural internal drags on self-control simply cease. The misuse of the alcohol is also responsible for forms of antisocial behaviour, such as vandalism, drink driving, etc. The correlation between drug abuse and poor relationships with teachers, low motivation, and absence from school, smoking and alcohol drinking in young age had been identified by the researchers. The drug abuse is less often found if found at all among the pupils that have got good relationships with their teachers, excellent motivation and appear actively involving in school life as well as have a possibility in sapid occupation.

The adolescents who grew in disharmonious families, where children are poorly looked after, abused or explicated are ascribed to high risk groups (Kibickienė, Tureikytė, 2007). Social risk families are the families where at least one of the parents abuse alcohol, drugs and other substances are addicted to gambling, is not capable or lack skills to look after the children, abuse them and other family (The concept of Governmental Family policy, 2008). Child abuse and neglect is often distinguished within social risk families. On another hand the factors mentioned above can influence the lack of social skills and poor social integration of social risk children.

Disharmonious families often are distinguished by the lack of respectable relationships; the conflicts, anxiety are common among such families and criminal behaviour is also present. Ganišina (2004) talks about seven types of disharmonious families: 1) alcoholics 2) antisocial; 3) conflict; 4)

criminal families; 5) families where the parents have got mental conditions; 6) educationally excluded; 7) drug abusers' families. First two types of the families influence the occurrence of the delinquent behaviour of the adolescents. The children who come from such families are distinguished by the lack of communication skills, their achievements in school are also poor and cannot find suitable way to spend their free time in spite of the regulations of Children rights law (1996) which declares that every child has got a right into free time and recreation according to his or her age, health and needs. Local governments establish and support the day care centres, sport, health, art clubs and camps, health resorts for families. „The catalogue of social services“ (2006) define that all types of residential care should also provide leisure organizing services. However the children who don't have responsible grownups in their environment who could encourage them to go on the right way and find appropriate occupation often miss classes. These children by the way are also disliked by the teachers and peers. According to Vaitekoniene et. al. (2002), the position of the excluded, anxiety, instability and continuous conflicts push the teenagers in search for the way out. Excluded from the possibilities within their school or class, such children actively reach for the environment and group that could accept them, for the peers who could understand and support them.

Another factor that is believed to influence the negative behaviour is belonging to the groups of social exclusion. Long term jobless people with low education, alcoholics, people who live in isolated settlements, etc. are among these groups (Juodraitis, 2003, p. 32). Foreign scientist had disclosed the correlation between the criminal behaviour and unfavourable circumstances in the family: substance misuse, children abuse and neglect, antisocial and criminal behaviour of the grown-ups (Lawrence, 2007; Taylor, 2007; Robertson, 2010).

Vaitekoniene and others (2002), focuses on upbringing mistakes' in the family influence on the process of the socialization and exclusion and isolation among the peers. The relationships of the parents undoubtedly have got an enormous influence on the emotional and psychological wellbeing of the child. Gudžinskienė, Barkauskaitė (2012), claim that the family is the first and the most important micro environment that has got influence towards the life style and roles of the adolescents. The formation of the antisocial behaviour of the teenager is influenced by the aggression of the parents and destructive upbringing models in the family. Kibickienė and Tureikytė (2007) notice that children and adolescents who lack responsible and intelligent upbringing in the family, would form specific worldview and chose very specific values and behaviour models. The main feature of the emotional

deprivation is child's emotional repulsion. Such a child often starts to act aggressively, misuse substances, misses classes, and gets involved in the activities of the criminal groups. This kind of behaviour – is the aspiration to receive at least some attention as acting positively they had no chances to receive any warmth and love from their parents.

The structural changes of the family system (the divorce, death of the family member and others) can trigger anti-social and criminal behaviour of the child (Wallerstein and others 2002, 2003). Bukeikaitė, Pruskus (2006), Šadrakova, Pruskus (2007) believe that the children/adolescents who'd grown in single headed families or lost parental care won't necessarily become antisocial, however the possibility in such circumstances gets much bigger.

The lack of the sapid occupation - precondition for juvenile delinquency. Šinkūnienė (2003) wrote that the way individual spends his or her free time is his or her choice and right, however it is also connected with the values and attitudes of that person. The rationality of the free time – social responsibility: the more responsible person spends his free time the more purposefully develops the personality. According to this understanding – the main objective of the free time – ensuring the formation of the personality capable to be flexible and adapt to the ever changing requirements of the society. The incapability to use the free time in the rational way is the cause of many social issues: substance abuse, criminal behaviour, suicide, etc. On another hand nowadays we can find new form of the free time that is also problematic and related to great psychological anxiety (video games, horror films, pornography). These of course cannot be accepted as prime occupation. Studying the teenagers' choice of the free time we can identify higher risk groups. Widmer et. al. (1996) had focused on the research of the personal choices of recreation and leisure in line with ethnical components, the free time took as the criteria and tool to identify the risk groups of the adolescents, they have also developed Adolescent Ethical Behaviour and Leisure Scale / AEELS. American sociologists believe that the leisure time is the true essence of human being shored up by free choice, as the work is only the mean of subsistence.

Summing up all the factors connected with the criminal activity of the adolescents, we can claim these can be grouped into moral; economic; biological; psychological and socio-environment factors. The family is the primary and the most influential micro-environment that is important to the development of the personality of the teenagers; the life style and roles. The appearance of the criminal behaviour can be predetermined by the unfortunate circumstances for the socialization within the

family. Of course we cannot exclude one factor of others that could universally help us determining which children will become criminals in the future, however there are a number of factors that correlate with the juvenile delinquency. The aggressive behaviour of the parents, poor relationships within family, conflicts, structural changes in the family, neglect and lack of children stimulation and toleration of psychoactive substance abuse and many others would increase a chance for juvenile delinquency. The lack of sapid and rational leisure can be a precondition for the criminal behaviour; on another hand – the juvenile delinquency rate is higher in the families that do not pay much attention to the organization of family free time and insufficient possibilities for free time and positive life style in the family and community.

Research methodology and results

The research was conducted in Juvenile Interrogation Isolator – Correctional Facility of Kaunas from January to March in 2012. Juvenile convicts' survey was carried out taking into account the fact that convicts are busy in the correction facility. They were divided into groups of 20 convicts in the classroom, where the authors of the article worked on the project “Development of Parental Skills” in this institution. The questionnaire survey forms were distributed, the goal of the research was explained, the respondents were instructed regarding filling in the questionnaire forms and confidentiality of the responses was guaranteed. During the research 120 questionnaire forms were distributed and returned; however, only 102 forms were properly completed. 102 forms returned and were included into the research striving for as reliable scientific research results as possible.

It is important to note that the leisure (according to Šinkūnienė (2003) – is the time free from the indispensable activities, which is meant to meet the personal, needs, explore the knowledge and develop personality. Another term – recreation – is also widely used latin *recreation* –restoration) – restoration of the physical and spiritual strengths, visible through the interaction processes of the human being and the environment; activity, that frees the individual from various social roles and encourages his creativity. The term free time is used when spoken about time and recreation – when having a concrete activity in mind. However in the study, making sure the respondent understand what they are asked for, we used the concept of the activity reserved for the free time. We understand that communication with peers is essential for the adolescents, that are why we wanted to identify the relationships of the respondent with their peers. The majority (80.4 percent) of the respondents claimed

that they used to spend the free time with their peers from the street before the conviction. (2.1 Fig.) or friends from the school (31.4 percent). Here we can see that the juveniles sentenced to imprisonment in correction institution would rather spend time in company of peers than together with their parents, carers or class mates. We can assume that spending time together with the peers from the streets; teenagers took their values and models of behaviour.

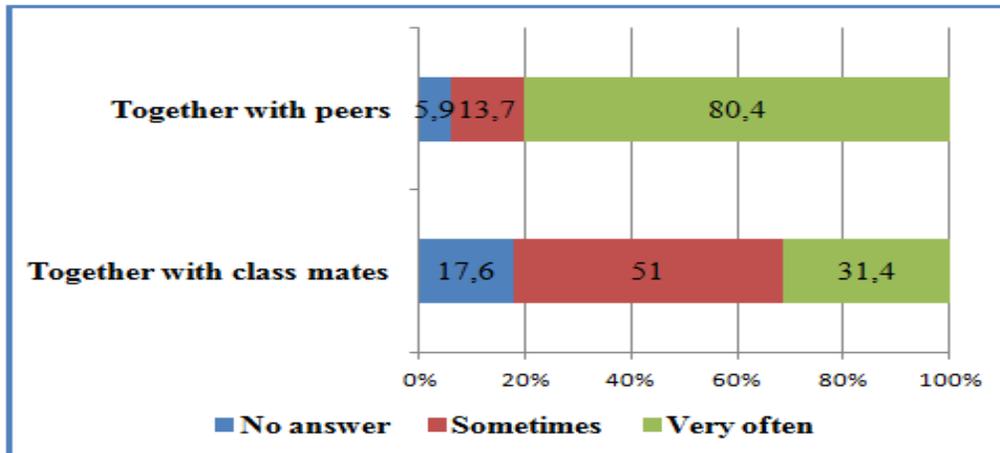


Figure 2.1. The free time of the juveniles sentenced to imprisonment.

It is also very important to mention that almost one third of the respondents had preferred to spend their free time all alone or using PC's (27.5 %) (Fig. 2.2). The juveniles, who had claimed spending their free time using personal computer, would have spent their time in social networks or playing video games.

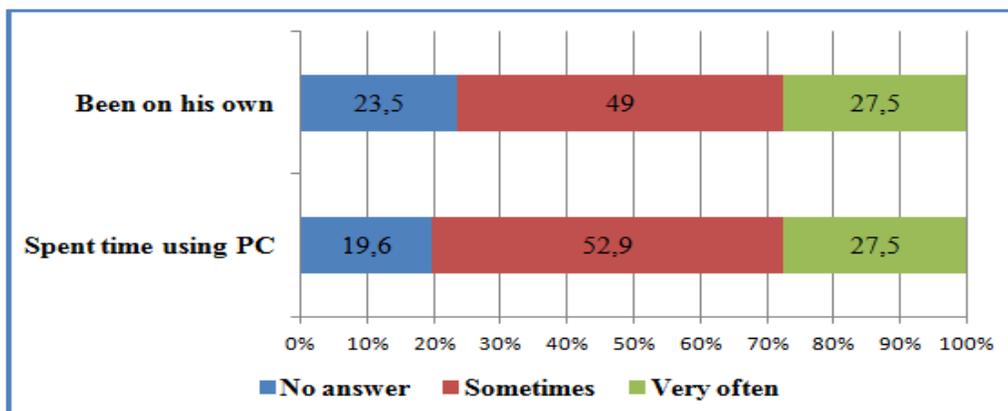


Figure 2.2 The subjective evaluation of the juveniles spending their free time all alone or using PC before conviction.

The results of the qualitative research had disclosed that a bit less than a half (47.1 percent) of the juveniles would have preferred spending their free time together with their parents or carers. However, using the semi structured interview we identified that the understanding of the free time spent with the parents/carers is not adequate. The adolescents had not the appropriate understanding of the free time spent together with the parents. Asking the question which should have clarified the ways the adolescents spent the free time with their parents, we found that: *"the parents simply were home and had their own occupation as we had our own things to do"*, *"well they (parents) simply were home but we did nothing together"*, *"parents had their business to do and we did whatever we wanted..."*.

As we already mentioned – the concept of spending time together with parents is not adequate. Moreover, this has also been proved when asking the question about the activities they did together. The respondents would have stated: *"none..."*, *"I don't know, well, we did nothing together...or maybe the father tells us something to do. They work at home and I do something"*, *"I had nothing to do... well, I had to do homework and the parents...they...didn't do anything with us, what could they do?"*. These answers also confirmed that the convicted juveniles had no responsibilities at home and they even were surprised when asked the question about the responsibilities and rules at home: *"my home is not a prison, what a rules...this is nonsense..."*

When analyzing the family structure (2.3 Fig.) of the respondents we come to the results, that almost half (48 percent) of the juveniles serving the sentence in the correction institution grew in a

single headed family. 42.2 percent of the respondents stated that they grew in the full families, however it is also important to note that approximately half of these families were social risk families, distinguished by the child abuse and neglect and where the parents had not gained the habit to spend the time with their children or there were no family traditions related to the family free time and communication with the children. 5.9 percent of the respondents had stated that they grew together with their grandparents while another 3.9 percent – together with stepfather and mother.

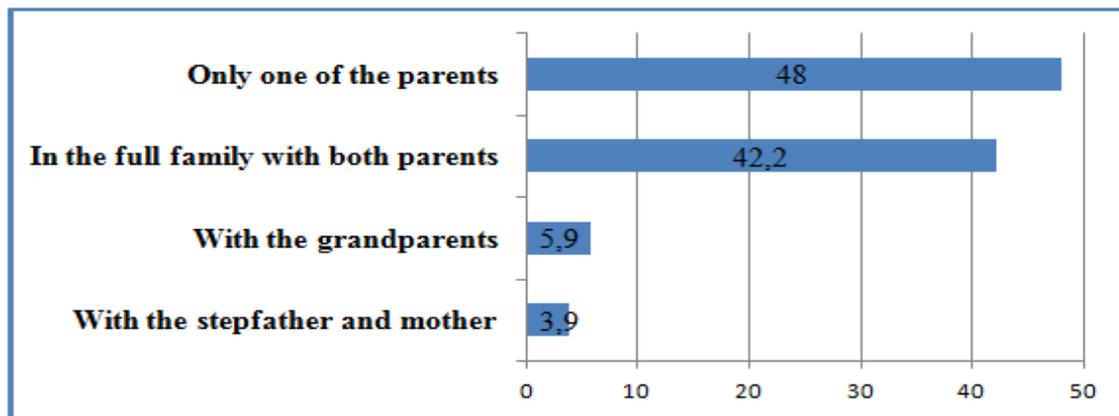


Figure 2.3. The structure of the family before the conviction of the juveniles.

The great influence on child’s behaviour is made by communication in the family, upbringing, interest in child and his activities and feelings. Analyzing the expression of the upbringing of the juveniles sentenced to imprisonment within the family before conviction is been revealed (2.4 Fig.) that over the half of the parents’ of the adolescents sentenced to imprisonment (51.0 percent) would have known where they child was, 37.3 percent of parents knew where their children were and asked where and whom with the children spent their time, sometimes even strictly controlled children; however 5.9 percent of the respondents claimed that their parents never knew where they were and they were not interested at all; another 5.9 percent – have not provided the answer at all.

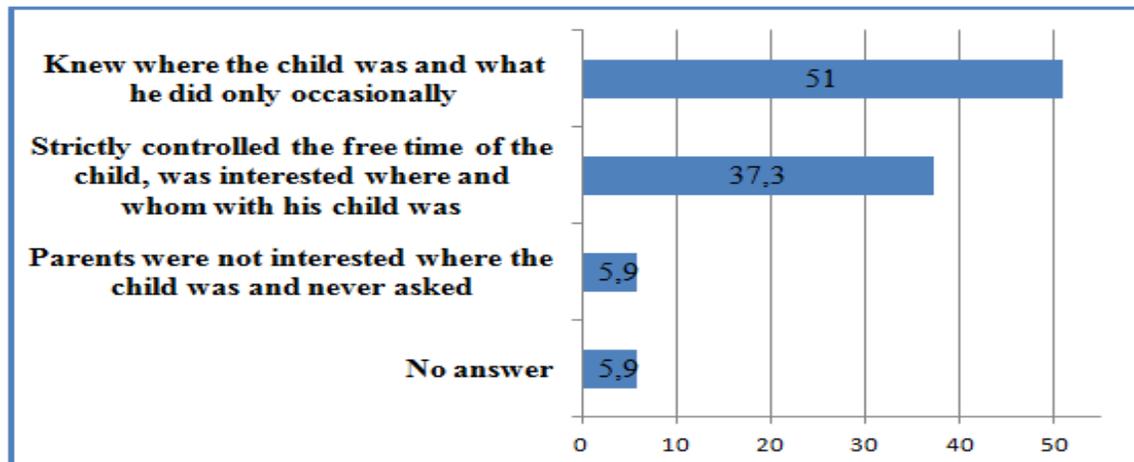


Figure 2.4. The interest of the sentenced juveniles' parents in their children whereabouts (before the conviction).

Using the semi structural interview we focused on the upbringing of the children before the conviction. The majority (n=5) of the juveniles who took part in the survey had underlined that the main upbringing style was ignorant. The answers revealed that the parents were not interested in the adolescents, their activities and did not controlled them: „*them, the parents, didn't care what I did*”, „*I did whatever I wanted, I wasn't up brought at all...I grew and that's it...*”, „*do you think I was here if they brought me up?*”, „*well, the parents simply were home but they did nothing together with us...we even barely spoke...*”, „*the parents had their own business at home, we had our own... what can we speak about with them?*”

One informant (n=1) had provided the examples proving that the autocratic upbringing style was used by the father and free will from mother. Informant was forced to do what his father ordered him to do: „*...my father tells me something to do*“. However if asked to do something by the mother, the teenager would rather listen to his father: „*depends on who tells me to do, if this is father I would do, if mother...*”, „*...if mother I would do sometimes, sometimes not...I did if I wanted...*”.

Free will style was underlined by two of the respondents who were raised with their grandparents: „*they tell to do something, you either do and then it's OK, or not – they would scream but I leave outside and I don't care...*”, „*the nanny spoke to me, told me off, but I would get tired of these talks and I did what I wanted, let her speak...*”. This upbringing style is also common in social

risk families, (n=3) juveniles underlined that their parents ignored them or only sometimes told something to do, however they were not constructive and strict - if asked to do something, wouldn't take any actions to stop inappropriate response: „*they asked me come back home at 11, but I returned at 1.30 val. so what? Nothing...*“, „*parents would moralize me when they were sober but I didn't listen, I did what I decided to do...*“.

None of the respondent had provided that statements that could distinguish autocratic upbringing style – when the teenagers is not allowed to express his opinion and the final decision is always taken by the parent. The survey has not identified the democratic or equal opportunities style.

Summarizing we can state that the majority of the informants declared that the parents did not organized the living of the family, did not controlled their children behaviour, the communication and relationships were poor and the lack of positive upbringing was identified. In general we can conclude that the majority of the juveniles who participated in the survey did not have the right model in the family and the poor upbringing had influenced the delinquency.

Conclusions

Based on the results of the empiric and theoretical analysis we can claim that the family is the primary and the most important micro-environment that has significant influence on the juveniles' model of the behaviour and the life style. The antisocial behaviour of the teenagers could be triggered and influenced by the unfavourable circumstances within the family

Analyzing the life style characteristics of the juveniles sentenced to imprisonment sentence before the conviction and the attitudes towards pro social life, has been revealed that: the majority adolescents involved in the survey would have spent the time with their peers or all alone using personal computer. The juveniles serving the sentence in correction institution hadn't gained the skills of the sapid occupation and the parents were not much interested in their children before their conviction.

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Chapter 3: Volunteering Expression Using Different Models of Social Work with Third-Countries Citizens

VIDA GUDZINSKIENE & NERINGA KURAPKAITIENE

Introduction

Migration is an old phenomenon in the world and is researched in various aspects. In Lithuania long time migration was analysed as emigration – when Lithuanian citizens leaving Lithuania. Emigration in Lithuania was explored by many Lithuanian scientists – A. Junevičius (2002), V. Stankūnienė (2003, 2005), G. Kasnauskienė (2006), A. Sipavičienė (2006), D. Prakapienė (2007), D. K. Kuzmickaitė (2008) and others. Many of them emphasized processes and tendencies of migration. Importance of family for the person in the migration process was described by G. Navaitis (1996), L. Rupšienė (2001), K. Miškinis (2003), A. Juodaitytė (2002), A. Dumčienė (2004). In 2007 year was made research „Family on both sides of the walls“ by A. Maslauskaitė, V. Stankūnienė, which evaluates family and the processes of migration as integral complex process.

When Lithuania become a member of European Union (EU) (2004) and when joined Shengen area (2007) accelerates immigration process in Lithuania. According to the Department of Statistics in the year 2012 immigrated the large number of people since the year 2000. Following the number of immigrants was also increasing cultural and ethnically diversity, broaden by Asian and African nations. This brings new challenges for Lithuania as country, integrating new people into society.

Social work area is taking this responsibility and seeking to help with integration process TCC's and citizens of Lithuania. But social work with integration of immigrants is not always similar to any other field of social work and is mostly happening in NGO's. Social work in NGO's is often having relation not only social worker-client (in this case TCC), but adding one more actor: social worker-volunteer-client. Volunteering is one of the strengtheners of the NGO's and can be used more strategic in social work.

Objectives of the research were: i) to survey social work models, used with immigrants in Lithuania; ii) to reveal experiences of Lithuanian and TCC volunteers, volunteering together and separately in Multicultural Volunteering centre connecting lived experiences with social work models; iii) to reveal volunteering expression in social work with immigrants, using different social work models.

Theoretical background

In order to help TCC's to integrate into Lithuanian society can be used different models. In international context most prevalent models of social work with immigrants are integration model to citizenship; community social work model; anti-oppressive model.

Integration into citizenship model. This model emphasizes the role of social worker or volunteer as the enablers (Ruškus, 2010). Social worker or volunteer acting in this model helps for immigrant to settle down in new society, to aware economical, political and social differences, which can have influences to the life of them. Main work is directed into empowerment of immigrants for inner change, which increase possibilities for actions overcoming complicated situations and strengthening progress. In other words social worker together with volunteer is educating immigrant for constructive behaviour in new society (Shah. A, 2008).

This model is orientated not only into the action of immigrants integration into society, but also into prevision of effective tools for citizenship development in democratic society. Model is based on needs of immigrants during all integration process. The needs are divided into basic needs; social, emotional and practical needs; and qualitative life needs. In this model is emphasised, that successful integration depends on both sides – immigrants themselves and the actions of society, it means from mutual interaction (Citrin, Sears, Muste, & Wong (2001).

In basic immigrants needs is noticed, that first of all needs to fulfil are food, health care, place for living, work, education and finance management in this country areas. Seeking to respond to the immigrants' questions and to fulfil the needs is important to offer primary services – native language learning, integration into labour market, individual or family counselling, advices for living place, translation service and also mediation service when it's needed. Vogel and others (2008) is stressing, that possibilities of immigrants' participation for civil participation are usual very diverse – into active

civil life becoming involved more *wealthy* and *high education having* people. People with lower socio-economical status usual give less attention for integration. Civil activity can have differences also according to demographical characteristics – *gender and age*. Research findings of the same scientists showed, that women are less active, then men and older immigrants are more active then young once. And of course immigrants are less active in civil life, then native citizens. Main causes of it are named as lower incomes of immigrants, lower status in labour market and weaker language skills. *Citizenship in this model is perceived* as the action of citizens, for seeking common ad not only personal benefit. In the model citizens are not taken as legal status having citizens, more people living in the country. The main focus is given to the immigrants' civic participation from Third-countries and immigrants, received citizenship in other EU countries.

Social workers should be able to offer all information and help for immigrants during all integration process and also when volunteers are involved into work with immigrants – to give trainings for volunteers.

Community social work model is connected to the previous model, because integration is orientated into community level. Chung-Chow (2009) emphasized, that social service in community level is important in three aspects: people are living and communicating in communities; in community are acting social work institutions; social services can be giving in community.

In this model main function of social institution is to offer social services for new coming immigrants adopting them and involving them in to community and also representing their interests in the community and policy (Galinsky, Ku, & Wang (2005). Community social work model is based on volunteering and interaction of social workers with volunteering community. The objectives of social work are fulfilled, when social worker is acting together with community and when the volunteers are in the basis of giving the services. Usual community social work offer services:

Information service – is provided all needed information;

Advising service – advice is given seeking to help for immigrants to adapt themselves in the community. Advice can be given also in the area of health, violence etc.;

- *Mediation service* – social workers or volunteers becoming mediators when the help is needed in other institutions;
- *Prevention service in drugs abuse* – is work area especially with young immigrants, informing and preventing drugs abuse;

- *Other service in abuse* – for children and week members of families, when abuse in family is happening;
- *Professional/educational service* – for adults and parents having children;
- *Youth service* – is organized help for young people to orientate themselves in new circumstances;
- *Accommodation connected service* – is given all needed information about accommodation and help to find place for living;
- *Employment service* – all information about job possibilities is transferred for immigrants and in all aspects is explained in for immigrants accepted forms. Also social work is offering possibilities to gain new needed skills for labour market in this country.

All social services are important for immigrants, but particularly for TCC in addition is an important socio-cultural service. Etzinger, H. (2003), Brewer, M.B., & Gaertner, S.L. (2004) describing areas of immigrants integration are naming cultural integration during community into society. As asserts Sakomoto (2007), by integration of immigrants into society is necessary help of social worker to balance acceptance of new culture and maintains of old culture. In this case social workers organising socio-cultural activities with immigrants are helping to encourage process of cultural acceptance and balance. According to Šinkūnienė and Savickaitė (2008), individual, groups or organisational cultural and social activeness can be reached with a help of socio-cultural service. Social activeness can contribute education, recreation and community creation of immigrants. In work with immigrants socio-cultural action has to be priority (Sakamoto, 2007). Socio-cultural action can be expressed by diverse cultural presentations, life libraries, cultural meetings, evenings etc.

In social work with immigrants is important intervention possibilities, which can be understood as social help. This social help according to Sheppard (2004, 2011) can be directive and non-directive. Directive help can be given by direct activities of volunteer and TCC. Non-directive help in this case is given by using other sources – other organisations, groups etc. Potocky-Tripodi (2002) also is presenting aspects of directive and non-directive service for immigrants. Directive social help is given by directive work with client in health and mental health, childcare, drugs abuse and education areas Torrico (2010). In the process of integration social workers are initiating social activities in which immigrants can be accepted in new role and in which is giving other responsibilities and duties in new „social contexts“(Ryan, Casas, & Thompson (2010).

Non-directive social work is also playing important role, because social worker is seen as fundamental connection for interaction (Sakamoto, 2007). According to the author non-directive social work is involving other persons, in this case volunteers and empowers them to act. Then social work is giving services not only presented by professional worker, but also by personal engagement extending people. These persons are also advising, teaching, assisting and helping immigrants in other areas. Valtonen (2001) also asserts, that non-directive social work requires preparation of into social work involved persons, it means volunteers has to be trained to give help in named areas.

Social worker, working with immigrants not only is choosing methods for work, but also is creating relationship with client, which enables social work. Involving non-directive social work partners into work with immigrants training stress is relationship building with immigrants. This creates main focus to the persons and needs of them and to to the action. All methods and action possibilities with immigrants can be referred to the partners/volunteers according to the situation.

Anti-oppressive model is emphasising what is not dominating and non exceptional. Immigrants coming into new country have to find place in the society and to be part of it, but forgetting own culture, rather keeping and contributing with diverse national culture. Sakamoto (2007) invoking experience of Chinese immigrants in Canada and presenting anti-oppressive work with immigrants model. Anti-oppressive model in social work emphasise learning together of social worker, volunteers and clients. Emphasized, that both sides (native citizens and immigrants) are equal and for both are open possibilities to learn. Social worker and (or) volunteer from common learning, or from learning approach is gaining knowledge, skills for work with immigrants from immigrants (Riley C., 2011). Also offered services with expressed respect and trust can create a space, were immigrants can feel equal importance with other members of community. With learning together immigrants are more able to present their culture and to integrate into society without loosing the “roots”.

Research methodology

Semi structured interviews with individuals and focus groups were implemented. Data analysis implemented with a help of content and meta-analysis method. It included the analysis of the legal-functional environment. In the research were participating 12 Third Countries citizens (TCC) and 12 Lithuanian volunteers, volunteering in Multicultural Volunteering centre. Saturation of the research is

repeated content. Research participants agreed voluntarily to participate in qualitative research and to use their data for the research. All data is performed with confidentiality and respect for the content.

Results and findings

Integration into citizenship model and volunteering in Multicultural Volunteering centre. As already presented social worker and volunteer working with immigrants are not only following expressed needs, but also try to understand main problem and work with it together with immigrants. In the research was asked TCC's how they value help of the volunteers in fulfilment of *basic needs* and what essential components are for them of volunteers work. Findings showed, that volunteers are helping to adapt them self, to get to know with new culture, to understand important aspects of new culture, to communicate in this culture, to reach destinations, to find living place and also volunteers advising in daily questions. Sometimes social workers seems more in distance with immigrants, but volunteers almost always are „online“: „*Volunteers helped to start new life in Lithuania, to settle down in new cultural environment.*“; „*The volunteer gives me always supper, helped to buy food, to find right transport, when it was necessary explained how to reach needed destination. Many things I couldn't do because of language barer, that is why I felt permanent support from the volunteer. I knew, that I can call always and ask all things, what is unclear for me.*“; „*In the first years in Lithuania she (volunteer) helped me really a lot, she did many good things for me: I got to know where is better to buy, she helped me to find where to live, explained for owners who am I and why I'm here. I didn't understand the language, but after explanation, that I'm student non-verbal expression of the owners was positive. So I could adapt myself quite fast, because she did many things for me, that is why I could enjoy the life here.*“; „*volunteer helped me to find migration office, we were going there together, chatting by the way.*“; „*...helped to open bank account. In the beginning – to pay taxes, because I felt like functional illiterate.*“; „*Sometimes this help was very simple, but exactly this help was very important for me – to find room in the university, right bus station on the street etc.*“; „*I received help in finding the flat for suitable price and in safe district. We also are spending free time together.*“

Research shows when the social workers are organising volunteers activities, TCC's in Lithuania can fulfil basic needs with a help of volunteers. When the basic needs of immigrants are fulfilled, then is growing importance in *quality of life needs* – to reveal advantages, what can lead them into

constructive actions. This need empowers immigrants to make decisions, to open their competences and to create network with social environment (emotional support network, including family of immigrant and also network as activeness in society, when integration is in the process and immigrant by himself can establish new contacts.).

How mentioned before volunteers are helping to find living place for immigrants and to maintain owners to rent their flats. Volunteers knowing safe and unsafe places can also recommend and help to find enough secure living place: *„I could adapt myself very fast, because she (volunteer) helped me a lot. ...every day I felt better and better.“*, *„she helped to find me place to live..“*

When basic needs and quality of life needs are fulfilled, then starts the process of third needs group – social, emotional *and practical needs*. These needs are connected with neighbourhood, community development and policy. With this purpose could be organised special activities, orientated into encouraging community to open and to accept immigrants. *„together we were spending free time and we were communicating very much, so I started to understand some Lithuanian words.“*; *„...together we are spending free time.“* Volunteers are naturally helping for immigrants to make connections with the society: *„This is very important, because the volunteer helped me giving the information about Lithuania, culture of Lithuania, explained many things, which are useful until now. He helped me from the first days.“*; *„...even not all in Lithuania are friendly, volunteers are warm, supporting us people.“*; *„Work with volunteer was pleasant. If volunteers are good will having people, they are more free and more open-minded with us, opposite for other people from your culture.“*; *„The volunteer presents new country and culture. He is moderator between two cultures and is nice to compare communication and social networks of two cultures. Is interesting to find similarities, but I also find a lot of diversities.“*; *„volunteers are socially protecting us (laughing), very interesting, how here people behaving in friendship, what is the role of friend in different cultures.“*; *„...helped to understand society regulation norms in Lithuania.“*; *„...together we were spending free time by playing table tennis.“*; *„When volunteer explains, everything seems so simple. It gives security for me, he helped me to avoid negative experience, advised where better not to go.“*; *„She showed me the city, most visited places.“*; *„Here in the Multicultural Volunteering centre I always feel comfortable, welcomed and for is nice to meet people here, which are accepting and supporting us... Volunteers advising us... Thanks for them.“*

The core of this model is immigrants integration into society meeting three main groups of needs. When the needs are fulfilled, person is able to feel valuable in society. The role of volunteers is directly connected to the process of fulfilment immigrants needs

Community social work model and volunteering in Multicultural Volunteering centre. This model is orientated into community integration with help for immigrants. Social services, such as information, counselling, advising, mediation and representation are one of the most needed for immigrants. Implementing this model in Multicultural Volunteering centre were organise activities – language (Lithuanian and other) learning, discussions with reflection, life libraries, cultural evenings and meetings.

Community social work model is emphasizing not only influence of community and integration importance into community, but also native language learning as the entrance into the culture and community. TCC immigrants mentioning: *“language course helped to overcome language barrier, I reached needed level and now I can understand more and more, even if not always I can speak.”*; *“Now I can understand something in Lithuanian language and I can say main words.”*; *“ Language learning is very important. Excellent, that lessons were for mixed groups, because we can talk then about various cultural things, we can find out more about cultures, habits et.”*.

Usual language course is understood as professional activity of language teachers or social workers. But this experience showed, that volunteering in this area bringing more value. Volunteers are seeking more non-formal relationship with immigrants and searching for non-formal methods of learning: *“For me language teaching wasn't easy thing, because I had to understand motivation of learners. But it was so interesting – I start to understand in a new way Lithuanian language, to see it with the view if foreigners. We also discussed many important topics for them in the lessons and I understood the life of them in Lithuania.”*

With immigrants social workers are working directive and non-directive, giving services and involving into cooperation volunteers. Applying community social work model social worker with volunteers are fulfilling functions of informant, counsellor, mediator and representer. Suitable prepared volunteers can help in directive and non-directive social services and voluntary work can be access for immigrants into community trough presentation of cultures.

In community model special attention is given for own culture presentation and exchange of cultural awareness. In Multicultural Volunteering centre TCC's volunteered in organisation, preparation and leading cultures Fair (Tab. 3.1).

Table 3.1. Cultures fair benefit (experience of Lithuanian and TCC volunteers).

Lithuanian volunteers experience	TCC volunteers experience
<p>„In my opinion cultures Fair is giving a lot new and interesting information about other cultures, countries and religions.”</p> <p>„Cultural Fairs gives opportunity to communicate with presenters of other cultures personal, it helps to feel the spirit of other culture, not only to hear about it from others. And not only I can hear about other culture, I can see eyes of full of kindness and joy.”</p> <p>“These Fairs gave for me possibility to spend good and meaningful time, to make contacts with many people and to find new friends.”</p>	<p>„It helped for me to meet new people, to meet new culture and not only of Lithuanians, but also of other people.“; „Such culture Fairs helps to meet other people, their traditions, to improve relation with them. Into such events are coming very sincere people.“.</p> <p>„When you know more about traditions of this country it makes easier orientation.”; “Fairs are helping to improve and to change some social questions with some people.”; “Presented own culture people feel more respected, heard... People feel understood and honored, they see, that during aculturation process they can create their life better.”</p> <p>“Such and similar cultural events helps for foreigners to integrate themselves into Lithuanian society. Also volunteers are helping a lot, explaining Lithuanian culture.”</p>

Culture Fairs are giving more opportunities for Lithuanians to meet TCC culture, to understand attitudes and this is a way how to reduce tension in-between cultures. Also TCC presenting own cultures can feel more understood and this opens motives to accept Lithuanian culture. One more aspect of acting in culture Fair – volunteering of TCC. Volunteering is changing the role of immigrants in the community from help receivers into contributors to the community through socio-cultural activities. This change of role is making immigrants to feel more accepted and interesting for community members. And seeing immigrants as volunteers changing attitude of the community to them: *“One man is very good playing with drums – how it comes, that he is so professional, maybe he could give some lessons?”*. Community starts to perceive immigrants as resource and communication with them as sharing opportunity.

Anti-oppressive model and volunteering in Multicultural Volunteering centre. Working with diverse cultural backgrounds immigrants social workers and volunteers are learning – getting the skills, knowledge, increasing own intercultural competence, flexibility and open-mindedness. In the research learning and relationship was analysed during common voluntary work of TCC's together with Lithuanian volunteers (Tab. 3.2).

Anti-oppressive model is particular, because it creates possibility for work with TCC in a specific way – immigrants have special needs and they are involved into fulfilment of those needs by themselves.

Table 3.2. Benefits of voluntary actions indicated by TCC's and Lithuanian volunteer.

Learning areas	Statements of TCC volunteers	Statements of Lithuanian volunteers
Learning to be tolerant	„From the beginning your people are avoiding us, but later, when we are communication more, they are tolerating more us...“, “when I got to know Lithuanian history, I understood, why Lithuanians don't like foreigners – because they were so many times occupied, longer then independent.”	„We, Lithuanians, are becoming more open-minded and more tolerant.“, “we becoming more tolerant, more forbearing.”
Intercultural learning	“Cultural events helps for foreigners to integrate themselves into Lithuanian society, also from Lithuanian volunteers foreigners are getting more knowledge about new culture and this helps to be more open-minded to the traditions of this culture.”, “I got to know many things about your culture, traditions.”, “when you are communicating with people with different cultural backgrounds, you start to understand, that culture of these people is totally different, but I have to accept every culture, to respect traditions of this culture	„I got to know about traditions of different cultures in families and in community.“, “I know now what religion is most prevalent in Africa, ceremonies of this religion, peculiarities.”, “so interesting rituals they have, they have so many rituals.”, “for example “Dar Zu” feast...”, “in my opinion culture Fairs are giving a lot new and interesting information about other countries, religions and cultures.”, “Communication with representatives of other cultures let's not only personally to know the person, but also to feel the spirit of the culture.”, “These Fairs gave me opportunity to spend good and meaningful free time, to make contacts with many people and to find new friends.”

	and faith of people.”	
Languages learning	“Use of English language helps for us to find common understanding and interaction with one another.”, “you can many things to know about other culture, you can improve English language”	“I make my English knowledge very strong speaking direct in English, I learned to say many things, because I have to think what I say.”, “In the beginning was difficult for me to remember English language, I don't talk English every day, but when somebody is asking (how I learned) and I advised to make vocabulary of specific Lithuanian words to understand and to start to talk in Lithuanian.”, “in the school, in the university English lessons are boring and orientated only to specific topics. Here I learned English through communication, through talking.”, “

Except cultural events and volunteering in them of TCC and Lithuanian volunteers is important to describe main component for learning in anti-oppressive model in this survey. Implementing anti-oppressive model as learning together way was selected volunteering. Volunteering was happening: 1) when Lithuanian volunteers were helping for integration of TCC's; 2) when TCC's were presenting their culture in different events and 3) common volunteering together of TCC's and Lithuanians in organization and implementation of different events (sport games, language courses etc.). Common volunteering of TCC's and Lithuanians, presents findings of research, is area, were was happening most learning together and it means it was best conditions for anti-oppressive model. Volunteers and social workers, taking responsibilities in diverse activities were joining all tasks together without any hierarchical approach. This was the way, where ideas were implemented in a way of common learning and work. This describes table 3.3.

Table 3.3. Learning moments during volunteering together (TCC's with Lithuanians).

Learning areas	Lithuanian volunteers	TCC volunteers
Discovery of personal borders and possibilities.	“In very truth I learned here, that I have to understand, that in some point I have to say “stop”, because otherwise I'm taking too much responsibility, which I am not able to carry out.”	„I can accept opinion, different point of view of others“ „Now I am more opening myself. If not volunteering I wouldn't be more popular, having more friends. Everyday I'm communicating with a different person.“
Reflection of own and foreign culture	“for me is very important, that we can be together in one group, where we can share and change our cultures.”, “I start to understand, how Lithuania is for foreigners – bureaucracy, order of documentation is very complicated, discrimination etc.”	“We want to introduce our culture, we want to understand your culture and then we can be together.” „We always see Lithuanian people and asking – why they act like this? But I understood – we can't change them. Of course we came from different countries, but we have to accept them because we came and for me acceptance is very important“
Language reflection	“Learning the language it is absolutely key in too culture” “Teaching language is changing my view in to Lithuanian language”	“ I start to learn language – I just communicate with people and I learn language”
Self-discovery	„I never thought, I want to be a leader, but during volunteering I realized – I'm leader“ „Volunteering helps to know myself in unexpected situations“	“I changed my behaviour – when people dislike me I want to understand them, not to hate them.” “In Christmas feast I was witch and I was talking a lot of nonsense, and I was surprised – I can do it!”

In all three models research presents different types of volunteering enriching integration process. Research shows how can contribute Lithuanian and TCC volunteers in specific models of social work

with immigrants and how volunteering together (of TCC's and Lithuanians) can help to reach the goal of the model. This is presented in the Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Interaction of social work models with immigrants and volunteering.

Models of social work with immigrants ↓			
Anti-oppressive model			III. Integration is through common TCC's and Lithuanians volunteering, which is seeking cultural and intercultural awareness. Through common volunteering are stressed similarities and is increasing openness. This makes open space for learning.
Community social work model	II. Integration is through presentation of own culture, when immigrants are volunteering in Lithuanian communities. It opens communities and immigrants aswell		
Integration into society model	I. Integration is through acquisition to live in Lithuania and through close relationship with Lithuanian volunteers.		
Volunteering in integration process with immigrants →	Volunteers from Lithuania are helping for immigrants to start life in new country and to settle down	Immigrants are volunteering presenting national culture for Lithuanians	Common volunteering of Lithuanians and immigrants, organizing cultural exchange events

In all models can be organised volunteering and can be developed voluntary work programs. Integration model to citizenship and community social work model can exist without volunteering, when help is given only by social workers. Research shows, that for anti-oppressive model volunteering is very important, because immigrants in country of asylum are feeling not equal with native citizens. Findings shows, that volunteering together is a tool to reach the goal of the model – to learn together. Through volunteering hierarchical structure of native citizens, social workers and immigrants is shaped into common interests having group. This group is happening when Lithuanians and TCC's volunteers together and helping each other in diverse tasks are reaching the same goal. It means importance of volunteering to the social work with immigrants is growing with each model. Looking in to interaction in between the models it can be presented with Figure 3.1.

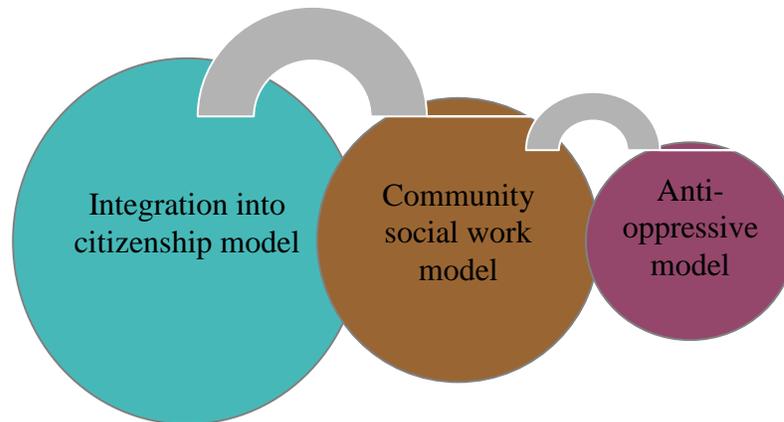


Figure 3.1. Interaction between models.

In social work with immigrants, seeking integration of them into society is important not only high competence in using one or other model. Integration process is more successful if the models can be used together with interaction between them. Volunteering in different models can take different form, but is possible in all phases of integration and with all types of social work with immigrants. Moreover volunteering brings tools to reach more natural and more personal objectives, foreseen in the models. The models are growing from one to another, because in implementation of one model is needed background of other model. In this scheme as background for all models is integration into citizenship model, because with the objectives of this type social work with immigrants can be settled backgrounds for life in foreign country. As the next following model is community social work model. In this model can be, that not all immigrants will be participating, because in relation with community is needed more time, energy and free will to be active in community. It can happen, that many immigrants stepping into relation with community, but this is mode challenging for them. And anti-oppressive model is very suitable model for the cooperation and non hierarchical relationship and this model can happen when volunteers from community meeting immigrants are creating together voluntary actions. Even less immigrants are joining this type of integration and not all volunteers are ready to volunteer together with immigrants.

Research shows, that for immigrants in Lithuania better adaptation into the new culture are used various models – integration to citizenship model, community social work model and anti-oppressive

model. All models can be suitable together in one organisation, working with TCC immigrants in long term integration process.

Using different models in work with immigrants' voluntary work can be successful way for enhanced relationship of TCC immigrants and Lithuanian citizens. It can create multi faceted opportunities for integration in new culture.

Even when anti-oppressive model deliberately is not chosen in work with TCC immigrants, but if is initiated and coordinated voluntary work, which is organised not only into results of the work, but also into TCC and Lithuanian volunteers cooperation, then anti-oppressive model is implemented communicating, acting and learning together in volunteering.

Conclusions

In Lithuania, seeking to help for Third countries citizens to integrate into Lithuanian society, are applied in international dimension prevalent social work with immigrants' models: integration to citizenship model, community social work model and anti-oppressive model

Analyses of Lithuanian and Third countries citizens' experience, volunteering together and separately, connected with social work with immigrants models showed, that:

- When Lithuanian volunteers are invited to cooperate with social workers by implementation of integration into citizenship model, then volunteering reinforces the entrenchment of immigrants in Lithuania. Also relationship with volunteering Lithuanians helps for immigrants to create close relationship not only with immigrants from other countries (these relations natural are becoming with time close), but also with Lithuanians, offering help for them and giving for them time.

- When community social work model is open for voluntary work, it gives opportunities not only for qualitative social services with a help of Lithuanian volunteers, but also appears possibility to invite into volunteering immigrants. Immigrants are invited to present own culture for diverse groups in the community and through it to know better their social environment. Such volunteering area is often acceptable and sometimes even desired, because presenting own country, culture, traditions is spoken, presented and acted this, what in short past was daily life of them, and what was normal. In this way volunteering immigrants are becoming more open-minded for Lithuanian (hopefully also for other

native countries) culture and for community, which accepted openness of them by sharing in presentations.

- When anti-oppressive model is used in social work, then volunteering can be a tool for learning if TCC volunteers are volunteering together with Lithuanian volunteers organising common activities or planning parallel separate activities. Survey shows, that even not seeking deliberately to apply anti-oppressive mode in social work, but creating opportunities for TCC and Lithuanian citizens to volunteer together, social work is implemented on the basis of anti-oppressive model principles.

In research of volunteering interaction with social work models in work with immigrants exposed, that voluntary work as social work with immigrants component could be invoked in all models, only important is to understand and to apply this volunteering type, which is most suitable for exact model.

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Part Three: NEED FOR TRANSFORMATION OF MORAL VALUES IN TODAY'S LITHUANIA

POVILAS ALEKSANDRAVICIUS

In 1990 Lithuania restored its sovereignty. This is how a long and immensely complex process has started: the system where Lithuanian society as a whole belonged had to be transformed in its entirety, replacing the Soviet system with Western and democratic model. Political, economic, legal and cultural norms, and most importantly the reasoning itself, had to be changed radically. This process is still on-going. In fact, these profound changes are still at their infancy: shift in reasoning takes time. Such a statement might strike by surprise: anyone who compares the situation of Lithuanian society in 1990 and 2013 will notice substantial changes in all spheres of life – from economics to culture and politics. This is why we would like to give some explanation here.

The transformation of a global system embracing the whole of society requires coherent strategy. This strategy was present in Lithuania since 1990. It was formed of two official objectives: accession to NATO and the European Union. Pursuing these objectives led to and structured radical reforms, the implementation of which resulted in the abovementioned global process: democratization of society and liberalisation of all the sectors of public life. Undoubtedly, the wish to pursue these objectives expressed the underlying will of society to live in a democratic, European, and secure country. Whether society was actually ready (i.e. prepared internally, in its reasoning and mental state) to embrace democracy is another question. External social changes occurred rapidly; however, was the inner dimension of society, the public consciousness, equally quick to change? What if the process of external democratization has occurred and continues in society the members of which still think in undemocratic (soviet) categories? This is a fundamental problem, directly related to the question of values.

As is fitting, universities got engaged in analysing this problem and looking for the ways to solve it. For this purpose, a programme called *Continuity and Change of Values in Global Society* has been established at Mykolas Romeris University. The main objective of this programme is to determine

conditions under which there could occur not only the process of external democratisation, transforming the legal basis in accordance with European Union model but also internal transformation of social consciousness of members, which can be referred to as a shift from monological consciousness to a dialogical one. Before I introduce the texts of scholars working for the abovementioned programme, I would like to say a few words on this complex shift of consciousness from monological to dialogical one and this way to provide a necessary context for understanding how they work and how they are related.

Communist dictatorship, prevailing in the societies of Central and Eastern Europe for several decades, established monological consciousness. This consciousness can be defined as a closed system: it proclaims one truth that is incontestable, clearly defined and obligatory for all members of society. It sets a blueprint for constructing private and public spaces, shaping individual psychology, organising educational and political systems that have to embody the image of society as finalised homogenous substance. The contents of communist doctrines reflected particular ideology. However, we are now interested in the structure of consciousness rather than ideological content. Communist ideology has faded into oblivion but the monological consciousness that it established is still present. Today people from postcommunist countries freely choose what culture, national values and religion to follow; however, inhibited by the structure of monological consciousness, these contents often run a risk of becoming a new dictatorship. This is why frequent “syndrome of dissent” in postcommunist countries is rather unsurprising. Those who fought communism in the past today raise their arms against the “rotten West” and those coming from other cultures or religions, attempting to defend their national, cultural or religious convictions in exactly the same way as they were once defended by communists. It has to be noted that this battlefield includes both private and public spheres: mental attitude that all members of society have to profess a single doctrine is still prevailing. This is an ethnocentric attitude, according to which communication can occur only among those who support the same beliefs and ideas, while those who think differently are regarded as obstacles to a “normal” life. Unsurprisingly, a particular longing for totalitarian rule is felt in postcommunist societies: this is not longing for communist ideas but rather longing for “order”, “clarity” or certain security which arises as a result of everyone thinking the same way.

However, according to the definition of authentic democracy, it is incompatible with monological consciousness. Discussion, public choice, and argument arising as a result of change are at

its core. This is why democracy requires dialogical consciousness. Fundamental attitude of such consciousness consists of acknowledging universality of truth. This means following one's culture, religion or ideas while regarding the convictions of others as means to develop. Such universality should be fundamental characteristic of truth, if we acknowledge that human consciousness is never pure and dedicated to only one truth defined in ideological concepts but rather, in the words of Gadamer, always reflects the "merger of horizons" in different cultures. In this sense, dialogical consciousness is naturally "multicultural consciousness" not in a way of cultural relativism or disparaging other cultures but opening up to another person in hope for personal enrichment. Such attitude of consciousness has social consequences; it has an influence on ethical models of both private and public spheres.

Hence the challenge that postcommunist countries were facing could be identified as the challenge to transform consciousness. What should be done so that democracy could be consciously rather than formally experienced, i.e. so that newly chosen model of political organisation would correspond to the inner attitudes of people? In other words, how could consciousness be transformed from monological to dialogical one? The papers of this section should be read bearing this issue in mind. The first paper (Aleksandravičius: *Christianity and Liberalism: the Principles of Partition and Compatibility*) opens a dialogue between liberalism and Christianity. In fact, dialogue between those two traditions forms necessary medium for the transformation of social consciousness from monological into dialogical one. Christianity is deeply rooted into the Lithuanian identity, and this is why even after secularisation its influence on social choice, created order and mental state is immense. However, the form of Christianity dominant in Lithuania is conservative and traditionalist in nature. In its essence, it supports the principle according to which community and collective tradition has absolute authority in respect of an individual. This is how Lithuanian Christianity, where Catholic conviction is dominant, retained attitudes characteristic of Catholic Church before Second Vatican Council or even during the 19th century, when it claimed liberalism to be its official enemy. These attitudes completely match monological consciousness. Paradoxically and nonetheless undeniably, communist dictatorship and Catholic dogmatism exerts the same influence over a particular social order: they form individual thinking in accordance with collectivist categories and hence become unfavourable for liberal democracy and fostering of dialogism. On the other hand, the influx of liberalism in the last decade of the 20th century also did not result in the creation of dialogical

consciousness. The form of liberalism of the Western world that had a great influence on Lithuanian society was radical economic neo-liberalism, also known as libertarianism. This form of liberalism, when introduced into society without strong democratic foundations, results in a particular process of individual fight for survival, loss of the sense of solidarity, radical individualism, atomisation of society, and finally – resignation in despair. This is why such liberalism, having partitioned society into the minority of “winners” and majority of losers that strengthened the dominance of monological consciousness even more. Such a partition has started to manifest itself in today’s Lithuania through various forms of xenophobia, anti-democratic sentiments and growing wave of euroscepticism. This is why it is particularly important to reveal different Christianity and different liberalism for Lithuanian society. Christianity that rejects pretentious subordination of individual to society and liberalism that injects the dimension of ethical collectivity into the structure of individual being can become driving force for shift into dialogical consciousness. The paper outlines principles according to which there arises a possibility for rapprochement of authentic Christianity that celebrates human being and fosters dialogue with liberalism that is ethical in nature. Individual is not above society neither is society above individual. Individual and society are of equal importance and their compatibility is what constitutes educating dialogical consciousness and apprehending democracy. The paper of Aleksandravičius, introducing symbiosis between Christianity and liberalism, shatters the foundations of monological consciousness and introduces the principle of dialogism into the most sensitive parts of Lithuanian mental consciousness.

The second paper *The Approach towards the Economy of Happiness in the Baltic States* written by Navaitis, Martinsone and Labutis is set in the context of the same fundamental problem (learning to live in democratic conditions). It examines the state of consciousness of Lithuanians and Latvians through the lense of the notion of economy of happiness. Psychological dimension as if constitutes the empirical process of shifting from monological consciousness to dialogical one. This is revealed through the views of people on the issue of self-fulfilment, in relation with particular living conditions, such as the way state treats them or their working conditions. A thorough sociological-psychological survey completed in 2013 revealed that Lithuanians and Latvians have quite poor understanding about the way their state of happiness is related to political, economic and social state policies. This results in a particular passiveness of society, arising from the state of closed consciousness. Here we are faced with concrete moral values characteristic of human consciousness and influencing the level of its

happiness. The paper of Navaitis, Martinsone and Labutis reveal clear need for transformation of values, which we define as the need to be open to oneself and other members of society. The same topic, although from a different perspective, is approached by Visockaitė and Urbonaitė, in their paper *The Development of Youth Civil Society in Lithuania: the Dimension of the Civil (In)activity*. The object of their research is creation of Lithuanian civil society that we define as the process of democratization, as a shift from one state of consciousness (monologism) to the other one (dialogism). It is often claimed that the success of this process requires generational change. The intention of the authors is to research Lithuanian youth's moral values that help or inhibit the creation of open society.

Further investigation into the transformation of values of social consciousness reveals a crucial role played by education. Paradigmatic shift in education is associated with the restoration of Lithuanian sovereignty; a shift from education based on indoctrination of values and establishment of monological consciousness to liberal education, based on explication of values and dialogue. Having officially declared new four basic principles on transformation in education (democracy, humanity, innovation and change), a systematic reorganisation of Lithuanian educational system has started, and it is still ongoing. Aiming to attain smooth shift from collective system to the one based on needs, firstly the focus was on reforming curriculum of secondary education that lead to the new understanding of quality in education. This is where the research paper *The Concept of the Quality of Studies: the Attitude of the Undergraduate and the Postgraduate Students*, conducted by Žibėnienė and Dudaitė becomes relevant. The paper reveals how youth perceive quality of education that they get. Dissemination of these perceptions aims to determine the level of self-consciousness or awareness during the process of youths' democratisation. The research of Indrašienė and Sadauskas, entitled *Assessment of Future Social Workers' Preparation for Functioning as Facilitators*, and the paper of Bieliauskaitė *Aspects of Value-based Education of Future Lawyers: the Need, Challenges and Possibilities of Legal Ethics Studies* can be regarded as examples of such objective in the environments of specific vocational studies. However, another research project that investigates economic environment is also directly related to the dimension of quality. It is conducted by Dudaitė and presented in the paper *Influence of Economic Home Factors on Student Achievement*. In this paper economic environment is assessed as a factor that has influence on educational environment and impacts students' maturity of thinking as well as the way they relate to themselves and the society where they live. On the basis of sociological case studies, Dudaitė shows the impact that possession of

and having access to books and works of art has on the process of learning and development of reasoning. This is where the need for educator, teacher and university professor and transformation of their values arises from. This concept is researched in the paper of Dromantienė, Prakapas, Indrašienė and Merfeldaitė *Lithuanian Teacher's Qualification Development in the Context of Lifelong Learning*. In the context of the process of democratisation and adaptation to global changes, the change in teacher's role requires radical reforms in the field of teacher training and development as well as specialisation system. The authors of this paper reveal that essential reforms can take place only in the context of lifelong learning. In other words, in an attempt to establish open society, it is revealed that education is important not only at school and among young people but also among all the professional and social strata. Educating public consciousness is a universal process that encompasses the whole of society. Echoing this attitude, another perspective that is important for both social life and scientific reach gets revealed. This perspective is integration of gender aspect into educational change and contents of research and it is investigated in the paper by Jurčiukonytė *Integration of Gender Aspect into the Research and Teaching Content: Problems and Perspectives*.

All the papers that are presented in this section reveal the need for transformation of moral values, i.e. transformation of attitudes of consciousness, in Lithuanian society. Political, educational, psychological and economic dimension all reveal the same need for understanding oneself in conversation with the other, thinking critically and self-critically and living with reliance on both oneself and society.

Chapter 1: Christianity and Liberalism: The Principles of Partition and Compatibility

POVILAS ALEKSANDRAVICIUS

Introduction

We are used to thinking that Christianity is only compatible with one of the three main political doctrines of our times, which is conservatism. Christian democracy is a typical outcome of such grouping. The other political doctrines, namely social democracy and liberalism, stand in firm opposition to Christianity. To find evidence for this claim, we only have to read some official XIX century documents of the Church, such as Pius IX *Syllabus* (1864) or Leo XII *Libertas* (1888). Certain type of liberalism, especially its libertarian branch, and certain type of Christianity, especially the one inclined towards traditionalism and ideological reasoning of modern times, can indeed have nothing in common. However, a more careful analysis reveals that compatibility of liberalism and Christianity is not only possible but also natural if, at the first instance, ethical principle of sociality is integrated and, at the second instance, ideological outlook on individual is rejected.

Liberalism that is incompatible with Christianity and Christianity that is incompatible with liberalism

There is more than one theory on liberalism and not all of them are compatible with Christianity. A theory of extreme individualism, neglecting ethical, i.e. societal character of human nature, can be considered as an incompatible one. This view was already expressed in Aristotle: “Man is by nature a political animal” (Aristotle: 127b). The grounds for such theory can be found in works of radical libertarians, Milton Friedman, for example; and its realisation can be found in the practices of so-called “wild capitalism”. Traditional viewpoint in this type of liberalism regards freedom as a natural opponent to human equality. Meanwhile state that cares about the creation of equal political and

economic conditions in order for every member of society to seek for their own personal goal is perceived as encroaching on freedom and encroaching on resources obtained through free practices (distributive justice, manifesting itself through tax and guarantees for social security). However, even among the libertarians, we can find thinkers who treated compatibility of individual freedom and societal necessities in a rather subtle manner. For instance, Friedrich Hayek did not treat freedom as something for its own purpose but rather perceived it as first and foremost basic drive for the Progress of society. He carefully described the course of social Evolution, subtly revealing positive role of individual freedom and negative consequences of social dictate. Yet the anthropology of Hayek is based on the vision of a human being that is reduced to purely social processes, exactly the same way that most other libertarians see it; and that is what makes their liberalism unsuitable for Christianity (Hayek 1960).

In the meantime, Christian reasoning is also not uniform (here we do not refer to confessional differences) and not all of its forms can be compatible with liberalism. If we consider Christianity to be a selection of obligatory dogmas, a system of particular undisputable believes that are assigned from above or morale of punishment, Christianity will have nothing in common with liberalism. In brief, the Church distances itself from any liberalism if in the name of some traditional or otherwise collectivist vision of society, it neglects *political* right of every individual to choose a worldview that suits him and act accordingly. The sacrifice of individual on the altar of some collective tradition forms a fundamental partition between Christianity and liberalism.

What Christianity and what liberalism are mutually compatible?

Having rejected the forms of liberalism and Christianity that are mutually incompatible, we can now pose a question that concerns us here: what type of Christianity and liberalism are mutually compatible?

The core of any liberalism is an individual and his freedom. However, an individual and his freedom do not necessarily have to be regarded as reinforcement of human ego at the expense of the world that surrounds him. On the contrary, individual can be “promoted” to the rank of *personality*: to some type of relationships field, related to the birthrights of human being, where the principle of responsibility for one’s own actions applies in addition to the principle of responsibility for others. In

popular terms, this ethical principle implies responsibility to aim not only for one's own happiness but also to that of others. Let us emphasize here that this principal is not some naive determination to be good but rather it arises from natural ontological truth about the human being: a human being, as an individual, cannot be happy without a network of positive relationships with others, which contribute to the happiness of everyone. This is not just any type of individualism but ethical individualism (Dworkin 1992). It means that the concept of responsibility for others forms part of the true nature of human individual: authentic "me" of a human being is defined through openness to others; it is this category of relationships that defines the concept of individual (Aleksandravičius 2012: 250-264). Individual is not above society. Each type of liberalism that integrates this into its doctrine becomes compatible with Christianity.

Undoubtedly, a liberal will by and large try to avoid the opposing view: subordination of an individual to society. However, as we will shortly see, fundamentals of Christian teaching also do not support such a view. In Christianity, each individual forms an absolute value because it is the image of God, and that is also why no society can come above an individual. Of course the fact that Christianity would regularly distance itself from this historically grounded truth is undeniable. However, in each case when Christianity proclaims the uniqueness of an individual as the image of God and his right to freedom, it becomes compatible with liberalism. To put it differently, the art of reconciling the necessities of an individual and a society so that no one element would inhibit the other is the arena where Christianity and liberalism can be mutually compatible in practical and theoretical terms.

Historical genesis of liberalism: Rooted in Christianity

From a historical perspective, Christianity enabled the formation of human individual and the concept of his freedom, which in its turn prepared grounds for the emergence of political doctrine of liberalism (Nemo 2004). The teachings of the Bible found in Christian and Jewish theology are based on concepts of status of each human being as an image of God. Thanks to those teachings, there arose a possibility of seeing a human being as an individual who is valuable as himself, as a subject to absolute natural rights, as a unique, irreplaceable and unsubordinated to any other aim except being an individual, and as the most worthy being of this world rather than an atom of society whose function would be limited to serving a particular community. All the dignity of a human being as an individual,

even when expressed in an openly anti-religious or agnostic setting, will lose its validity when facing biblical perception of a human being (Pera 2011). Every human being with liberal attitudes should remember that, even if there is a realisation that perception of a human being as an individual arose from Christianity, it cannot be an asset that belongs solely to practicing Christians. Christians openly accept that in claiming the above their religion states something universal about a human being as such: one does not have to be a Christian to respect human rights. However, historically Christianity prepared the grounds for the foundation of liberalism – perception of a human being as a free individual.

It is in Christianity and Judaism that fundamental ontological manifestation of freedom was founded and this is also where later all the known freedoms of Western civilization could manifest themselves (Nemo 2004). To put it simply, liberalism provided a human being with an opportunity to be free for the first time and this opportunity formed and still forms the major impulse for any other form of freedom to appear, even the anti-religious one. All the pre-Judaist and pre-Christian civilizations can be characterized by a specific social model that is founded on myths. In accordance with this model, each pursuit of truth which distances itself from the official doctrine as well as each attempt to think critically are punished by death penalty. Biblical teaching introduced the opportunity for individual critical thinking that opposed closed tradition and hence the principle of individual freedom. This happened when the principle of separation between spiritual and secular authority was introduced. This principle should be regarded as a distant but direct source for democracy: after separating spiritual power that speaks in the name of God from secular government, there arose an opportunity to criticize the latter with no legal right to use death penalty. A prophet, a unique individual, occupies central stage in biblical teaching (any Israelite can have this vocation – be that a farmer, a noble man or a child; note that later Christians will call themselves a nation of prophets); he hears the voice of God that gives him rights not only to criticise but also to disobey secular government, if its ordinance contradicts the principles of justice. There arises a possibility for inspections of political power that can be performed by any member of society and this is the major principle of democracy. This is where we would like to make a few comments:

1. The principle of separation between religious and secular authorities consolidated in the words of Jesus “to Caesar what is Caesar's, and to God what is God's” was institutionalised in the Christian society of Western Europe during the Middle Ages (Nemo 2004) and later during the protestant (mainly Calvinist) revolutions in the UK and the Netherlands, the formation of the USA and

finally modern liberal democracies, where the most prominent thinkers were openly Christian. It is not a mere coincidence that liberal democracies were formed only in those countries that belonged to Christian civilization.

2. In Christian thought, the already mentioned and possibly heard by every individual “voice of God”, the true source of individual freedom, came to be regarded as a voice of individual conscience. To put it differently, we can find the beginnings of what we call “the freedom of conscience” in Biblical teaching, and this freedom is considered to be “supreme authority of truth”. This means that the doctrine of human rights, which forms the basis of liberal democracy, is rooted in Christian thought. Such an assumption can be supported by researching intellectual traditions, dating from Thomas Aquinas to the Thomist School of Salamanca (XVI century) and to Grotius, Pufendorf, and Locke.

3. The nature of perception of truth in Judaism and Christianity is such that it cannot be enclosed in any conceptual scheme: God and the world that he created in every instance are bigger than what we get to learn and tell about them. This *doctrine of the boundaries of human reasoning* is a typical product of Christian theology that formed symbiosis with the rationality of Greek philosophy. It was professed and developed by practically all the thinkers, from the Fathers of the Church to St. John of the Cross, and their work was continued by the protestant thinkers that unsurprisingly became the founders of liberal doctrine - Grotius, Milton, Locke, Bailey, Mill, and others. At the same time, this doctrine meant the opening of immense horizons in front of human reasoning that searched for truth, as at no moment he could claim to have found the final truth that can be expressed through concepts. There is an imperative arising through this process: an individual has to receive absolute freedom of thought, or, in other words, no one has a right to ban, inhibit or disturb in any other way individual process of the pursuit of truth. Moreover, according to Christian philosophy, no one can fully comprehend God or the final truth, at least not in this world, and hence a human right to err is acknowledged, and from the moment that a mistake is realised, it becomes as a right way to move forward in the pursuit of truth. According to Christian thought, the nature of truth has a character of the nature of “voice of conscience” and conscience has to be obeyed even at times when others perceive it as mistaken (a doctrine that is at the very essence of the moral theology of Catholic Church) and even when “the voice of God” heard through it was perceived wrongly or partially. It has to be noted that the perception of truth arising from Christianity legitimises a degree of tolerance that acknowledges the

right to leave Christianity when pursuing truth, even if it warns that such a step can lead to fundamental loss of the feel of freedom. As claimed by French philosopher Marcel Gauchet: “Christianity is the religion of exit from Christianity” (Gauchet 1985). On the other hand, this understanding of truth does not lead to the doctrine of relativism of truth (instead, professing such doctrine would mean that one has used the right provided by Christianity to leave this religion), according to which truth depends on one’s subjective opinion. According to Christian reasoning, truth is objective and one can get to know it; however, this knowledge is regarded as partial or, speaking in more spiritual terms, as an intuitive participation in the higher, final truth of God that we cannot comprehend fully in this world.

In political realm, the perception of truth rooted in Christianity forms the basis for a state not only to respect but also to provide conditions for every citizen to realise a life project that they have chosen for themselves; and this a requirement that is at the core of liberalism.

4. Economic liberalism and the idea of free market were born for Christian-theological reasons as the best way to get to know poverty of society; their roots should be searched for in the Thomist School of Salamanca (XVI century). The first theoreticians of economic liberalism were Calvinists and Jansenists: Nicole, Boisguilbert, de Gournay, Quesnay, Turgot, Say, Destutt de Tracy, Bastiat, and others (XVI-XVII century). In the texts of these authors, who professed strict asceticism and moral Puritanism, the idea of free market is subordinated to the project of reduction of poverty without any compromise. Their theory is also supported by clear and purely theological reasons: the right to individual initiative, the right to free trade and individual employment, and other fundamental elements of free market arise naturally from Christian morals, even eschatology, i.e. they are regarded as essential measures to prepare for the return of Christ. Thus, the essence of economic liberalism is expressed in a statement that free market is the only driving force for successful economic development of a society and it is obligatorily bound by ethical imperative to serve for the benefit of both an owner and a society as a whole is also rooted in Christianity.

Interface between liberalism and Catholic Church

The interface between liberalism and Protestant division of Christianity was researched on more than one occasion. Meanwhile its interface with Catholicism was always shrouded in suspicion that we would like to dispel here. In our time the teachings of Catholic Church, especially after the decisions of

the Second Vatican Council and documents published by John Paul II, put a strong emphasis on the elements that support the doctrine of ethical liberalism in political realm (Pera 2011).

The statement that adhering to tradition is the main element of the doctrine of Catholic Church is a valid one. In accordance with this principle, Conservatism is often referred to as a political branch closest to the Church. However, this impression frequently arises due to the abstract usage of the concept “tradition”. If we take a closer look at the official post-Vatican II documents of the Church in the fields of fundamental ethics and social sphere (even though the impetus to follow this direction was given in 1891, after the publication of the encyclical of Leo XIII *Rerum novarum*), we can see that the tradition that the Church bases itself on is closer to the movement of ethical liberalism rather than conservatism. After all, the main elements of this tradition prepare grounds for the formation of liberal doctrine: the notion of a human being as an individual, his individual freedom and the collective nature of this individual freedom, and the freedom for the pursuit of truth. This freedom is understood as the freedom of conscience, human rights, free markets, and as the best means to raise the wellbeing of society. Yet all of the above elements were taken from Catholic tradition and became part of the official teachings of Catholic Church, especially after Vatican II. By no means, we claim that these values are foreign to conservative branch of politics. However, the conservative notion of tradition raises serious issues in the field of relations between individual and society; the tendency to sacrifice individual for the well-being of society is often predominant in the politics that conservatism proposes. This alienates Christianity from the above mentioned values and at the same time – from the teachings of Catholic Church on human dignity.

We will not cite all the documents of the Church in relation to the dignity of an individual, human rights, and an imperative to respect freedom in all the spheres of personal and social life. Most of the documents of Vatican II, encyclicals of Popes Paul VI, John Paul II, and Benedict XVI as well as statements of Pope Francis directly talk about it or indirectly base themselves on it. We will just highlight the following elements:

1. The Church firmly opposes individualism that treats a human being as innately closed system contrasting individual with society. This type of individualism is regarded by the Church as a self-destructive mechanism: having lost its links to society, it turns against an individual just because that individual experiences existential vacuum and loses any sense of happiness without society.

However, in a similarly firm manner, the Church opposes collectivism the climax of which was reached in the communist form of socialism: “[...] the fundamental error of socialism is anthropological in nature. Socialism considers the individual person simply as an element, a molecule within the social organism, so that the good of the individual is completely subordinated to the functioning of the socio-economic mechanism. Socialism likewise maintains that the good of the individual can be realized without reference to his free choice, to the unique and exclusive responsibility which he exercises in the face of good or evil. Man is thus reduced to a series of social relationships, and the concept of the person as the autonomous subject of moral decision disappears, the very subject whose decisions build the social order. From this mistaken conception of the person there arise both a distortion of law, which defines the sphere of the exercise of freedom, and an opposition to private property. A person who is deprived of something he can call "his own", and of the possibility of earning a living through his own initiative, comes to depend on the social machine and on those who control it. This makes it much more difficult for him to recognize his dignity as a person, and hinders progress towards the building up of an authentic human community” (John Paul II 1991: 13).

The view of the Church is clear: it supports ethical individualism that arises from the notion of a human being as an individual. We have already analysed philosophical and political implications of these notions; they are also concisely expressed in the document of the Church: “According to *Rerum novarum* and the whole social doctrine of the Church, the social nature of man is not completely fulfilled in the State, but is realized in various intermediary groups, beginning with the family and including economic, social, political and cultural groups which stem from human nature itself and have their own autonomy, always with a view to the common good. This is what I have called the "subjectivity" of society which, together with the subjectivity of the individual, was cancelled out by "Real Socialism"” (John Paul II 1991: 13). Particularly interesting notions of the personality of society and personality of an individual prepare grounds for the notion of a human being as found in ethical liberalism and those two theoretically distinct personalities are perceived as one and the same person in its individual and social dimensions. Above we talked about the impossibility of subordination of individual to society in ethically liberal society, as well as of society’s subordination to single individual. These notions also ground themselves on the teachings of the Church: “The social order will be all the more stable, the more it takes this fact into account and does not place in opposition personal

interest and the interests of society as a whole, but rather seeks ways to bring them into fruitful harmony. In fact, where self-interest is violently suppressed, it is replaced by a burdensome system of bureaucratic control which dries up the wellsprings of initiative and creativity” (John Paul II 1991: 25).

2. By supporting private ownership, the Church distinguished two fundamental principles that also became the principles of economic organisation of ethical liberalism: firstly, no private ownership can become closed in nature but rather has to be integrated into common dynamics of the economy, the aim of which is greater wellbeing. Secondly, this wellbeing must contribute to the increase of happiness of every member of society. We can familiarise ourselves with this notion of private ownership, attuned to the doctrine of universal destination of goods, in the fourth chapter of the encyclical *Centesimus annus* (§ 30 – 43). We would like to add here that John Paul II widens the regular definition of private ownership, claiming that “there exists another form of ownership which is becoming no less important than land: *the possession of know-how, technology and skill*. The wealth of the industrialized nations is based much more on this kind of ownership than on natural resources” (John Paul II 1991: 32).

3. From the perspective of the Church, the first of the above mentioned principles not only legitimizes but also demands for the capitalist free market mechanism, driven by healthy competition and assumption that wellbeing has to be multiplied in order not to disappear. However the second principle, ethical in nature, has to accompany free market, enabling everyone to benefit from the wellbeing that it brings: “The modern business economy has positive aspects. Its basis is human freedom exercised in the economic field, just as it is exercised in many other fields. Economic activity is indeed but one sector in a great variety of human activities, and like every other sector, it includes the right to freedom, as well as the duty of making responsible use of freedom” (John Paul II 1991: 32); “on the level of individual nations and of international relations, the free market is the most efficient instrument for utilizing resources and effectively responding to needs” (John Paul II 1991: 34); “Certainly the mechanisms of the market offer secure advantages: they help to utilize resources better; they promote the exchange of products; above all they give central place to the person's desires and preferences, which, in a contract, meet the desires and preferences of another person” (John Paul II 1991: 40). However, the Church strictly dismisses ethically unrestricted doctrine of “wild” capitalism, embraced by some libertarians: “Can it perhaps be said that, after the failure of Communism, capitalism is the victorious social system, and that capitalism should be the goal of the countries now

making efforts to rebuild their economy and society? Is this the model which ought to be proposed to the countries of the Third World which are searching for the path to true economic and civil progress? The answer is obviously complex. If by "capitalism" is meant an economic system which recognizes the fundamental and positive role of business, the market, private property and the resulting responsibility for the means of production, as well as free human creativity in the economic sector, then the answer is certainly in the affirmative, even though it would perhaps be more appropriate to speak of a "business economy", "market economy" or simply "free economy." But if by "capitalism" is meant a system in which freedom in the economic sector is not circumscribed within a strong juridical framework which places it at the service of human freedom in its totality and sees it as a particular aspect of that freedom, the core of which is ethical and religious, then the reply is certainly negative" (John Paul II 1991: 42).

4. The principle of subsidiarity is very important for ethical liberalism. Its origins derived from the teachings of Catholic Church are well known. Let us demonstrate tight relations between liberalism and Christianity, defining it in the words of the Magisterium of the Church itself: "However, primary responsibility in this area belongs not to the State but to individuals and to the various groups and associations which make up society [...] The principle of subsidiarity must be respected: a community of a higher order should not interfere in the internal life of a community of a lower order, depriving the latter of its functions, but rather should support it in case of need and help to coordinate its activity with the activities of the rest of society, always with a view to the common good" (John Paul II 1991: 48).

Conclusions

Compatibility of liberalism and Christianity raises the problem of interpretation and viewpoints. The way to compatibility or partition of those two outlooks involves solving a difficult problem of relations between individual and society. Neither an individual in respect of society, nor society in respect of an individual can gain superiority. Any type of liberalism that wants to maintain ethical dimensions as well as any type of Christianity has to fulfil the task of finding the societal nature of an individual the realisation of which would fulfil an individual as such.

The ontological nature of this solution involves perceiving a human being as a personality. Historically rooted in Biblical teaching, this perception has become a criterion for the authenticity of

Christianity. At the same time, it provided grounds for the formation of liberalism. Protestant-minded thinkers have obviously embodied the prime manifestation of this process – political and economic liberalism.

The teaching of Catholic Church also provides existential support and stimulus for ethical liberalism. How does that happen? The notion of ethics or responsibility has to always be revitalized through cultural, intellectual and spiritual resources in order to remain functional in liberal model of society. To put it differently, it would be an illusion to think that the sense of responsibility could be maintained by a person who forgot culture, ignored intellectual life and lost the sense of spiritual life. The model of society proposed by ethical liberalism is unattainable for society formed of uneducated and uncultured people. That is why any authentic cultural or intellectual life has to be promoted by liberals in particular: this is the existential question of their continued existence. In that sense, we dare to say that the Church, just as Christianity as a whole, deserves close attention: introducing a human being to the relation with transcendence, Christianity starts to nourish the very roots of the sense of responsibility and ethics. It might be that John Paul II was right when he said that a society that loses its relation with God at the end also loses its freedom.

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Chapter 2: The Approach towards the Economy of Happiness in the Baltic States

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Introduction

The Baltic States: Lithuania, Latvia, and Estonia have achieved their long – term political goals, and even those goals that a quarter of a century ago by the majority of population was considered more like a dream than the specific action programs. Previously annexed and controlled by the totalitarian powers with ineffective planned economy the Baltic States had re-created free market economies and became independent democratic republics. Presently they are members of EU and NATO.

Despite these tremendous achievements of the Baltic States, there is a rather low percentage of the population that positively evaluates the existing public governance and are satisfied with their social and economical status not to forget their personal well – being.

In this connection it is worthwhile to evaluate whether the situation in the Baltic States, i.e. the psychological state of their societies is an exception. Obviously it is not. Some countries that had begun to create a more intelligent and independent life after the collapse of the Soviet Union, in some areas had reached more than in the other ones. However, it is not possible to identify the country that would become the role model for the other former Soviet countries. Is it even more important to note that the Western Europe, the United States and other highly economically developed countries, where the achieved standards of living were probably the highest, had faced with similar problems, like unemployment, underdeveloped health system, low political activity of citizens, etc. It is evident that those developed countries being more wealthy and richer can more effectively cope with above mentioned issues and problems. But the problems remain. This fact indicates that it is necessary to

discuss about the possible future scenarios and directions of the development of modern society and to seek for new viable opportunities that would lead us to a more prosperous and happy life.

The theory and the corresponding practice where a person is assessed as a rational consumer who seeks to produce more, to earn more and to consume more goods and services and thus become happier, apparently was poorly substantiated. Already in the 70's of the last century there was uncovered the "Easterlin paradox" with the following meaning: the wealth in the Western countries had doubled but the numbers of happy population remained at the same level. Therefore, today it is increasingly recognized that in addition to a country's GDP numbers the Index of Total National Happiness has to be introduced. And what is even more important, the economic and social policies should be directed towards increase of the latter. Therefore the happiness of citizens is not only a matter of spiritual development but also a matter of public policies with the purpose to increase the subjective life satisfaction and to increase in the level of happiness of the society. The political leaders become more aware about the need to change the political course towards the aspects of happiness.

British Prime Minister D. Cameron had named the measure of happiness of citizens of the country as "one of the most important political issues" and had announced that the United Kingdom will include the measurement of the level of happiness of the citizens in to the State statistics scorecard in the near future. Former French President Nicolas Sarkozy had stated that the increase of economic well-being is not a sufficient goal for the State as the happiness and happy life had more positive aspects than only economic wealth. President Sarkozy had appealed to the Nobel Prize-winning economists J. Stiglitz and A. Senn and invited them to help him in finding more effective methods for happiness measurement in France. European Commission's President J.M. Barroso supported the initiative to create new indicators of well-being that "would be more in line with current needs and challenges" and would also be as easy to evaluate as GDP and would allow better evaluation the social aspects of growth. According to the King of Bhutan, Jigme Singye Wangchuck, "the general gross happiness is more important than the total gross domestic product."

The future development strategy document, "Lithuania – 2030" sets the following target for happiness: it is stated that in 2030 Lithuania will be in the list of top 10 EU countries with the highest happiness index.

One can present even more convincing examples in order to prove that "the economics of happiness" together with aligned political principles can create the preconditions for increase of

happiness in the societies and that this approach can be applied in the modern world. The countries can establish the prerequisites for transition from a traditional economy with the purpose of gradual expansion of levels of production and levels of consumption towards the "economy of happiness" with the purpose of achievement of the higher level of happiness of the society.

Psychometric assumptions of "the economy of happiness"

The way of influence on social attitudes and ultimately on the political solutions for many social theories are quite similar. The designer of the social theory was announcing his thoughts and ideas that were corresponding to the interests of certain social groups. Later those ideas were becoming the impetus to action for the most active members of the social groups. The origins of "the economy of happiness" came not only from the views of the philosophers and politicians but also from case studies on happiness, on personal and subjective well-being, on life self - satisfaction or life self - dissatisfaction.

National researches of levels of happiness indicate that the feelings about happiness of the citizens of different countries are markedly different. For example, the research on the levels of subjective well-being conducted by "Gallup World Pool" in 2005-2009 in 155 countries had indicated three different groups of population. The first group was made up from people whose welfare/wealth was high, sustainable and increasing. The representatives from this group had positive view of their current status plus on five year horizon. The second group represented the population whose wealth was in the middle level and their welfare/wealth was unstable. The representatives of this group were expressing the reserved view about their current situation and were concerned about their future to come. The third group was mainly the population with low welfare/wealth and well-being. Its members did not believe in positive change. While conducting the research the researchers had identified five happiest countries in the world. Those were the Scandinavian countries - Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden - and the Netherlands. The researchers also noted that the list of five happiest countries in the world did not change for several years. This list was followed by wealthy countries: New Zealand, Canada, Israel, Australia and Switzerland. The data of this research had indicated the substantial differences among the Baltic States. A quarter of Lithuanian population were considered being happy in their lives. Respectively, the share of happy population in Latvia was 11 percent and in Estonia was

17 percent. The majority of population had considered that their welfare/wealth had reached the mid levels but had some doubts about their future. In Lithuania 57 percent of the respondents felt that they were fighting for survival. In Latvia 64 percent indicated the similar survival status, and in Estonia 62 percent of respondents indicated begin in the survival. The portion of unhappy population was very noticeable, Lithuania had 18 percent of respondents who had indicated being unhappy. In Latvia the numbers were equal to 25 percent, and in Estonia – 21 percent (4).

It has to be mentioned about the big numbers of similar investigations devoted to the issues and concepts of happiness. Based on those investigations the set of important conclusions can be designed.

Firstly, the politicians and organizations those claim that their strategic goal is to realize the ideas of "the economy of happiness" stress the importance of measurement of the levels of happiness in the society. As an example, according to R. Layard one of the primary tasks of increasing the level of subjective well-being of the society refers to the task of measuring the happiness in the society and in different social groups (5). Similar requirement is formulated by NOF (New Economic Foundation) experts (6). The authors of "The Manifesto of politics of happiness" claim that the modern society should start measuring what is really important – the happiness of its members (7).

Secondly, the studies of the happiness level in the society together with its social, economic and political characteristics had allowed identifying the main areas of practical actions that would support the growth of happiness of society. According to B.S. Frey and C. Frey Marti the majority of researchers writing about this topic point out the fact that the levels of happiness in the society depend on a certain level of income, on the size of the middle class, on the level of employment and job satisfaction, the satisfaction in family life. The quality of education leading to happy human qualities and accessibility of training was among the key factors not to forget the health care system, particularly with its focus on overcoming the problems of mental well-being (depression, chronic pain, etc.). The finalizing conclusions were addressed to social capital and the involvement of citizens in self-governance and political decision-making (8).

Despite to notable achievements in the research of issues related to "the economy of happiness" the official state statistics usually does not provide State data on the happiness level in various groups of the society. For many citizens the purpose and principles of "the economy of happiness" are very little known. In such a situation, according to M. Haralambos and M. Holborn, it is very feasible to

conduct research that with the aim to clarify the opinions and perceptions towards the ideas of "the economy of happiness" (9).

Basic research data related to the ideas of "the economy of happiness"

The purpose of the empirical study was to clarify the perceptions and opinions towards the ideas of "the economy of happiness", and to i) to identify the prevalence of the ideas of "the economy of happiness", ii) to explore the basic knowledge of population on those concepts and ideas.

The overall objective of this research is to clarify the perceptions and opinions towards the feasibility of implementation of the ideas of "the economy of happiness" in various areas of the society.

The research was conducted with a method of an anonymous questionnaire.

The research related to the ideas of "the economy of happiness" was conducted in 2 phases. In the first - pilot phase was conducted in 2011-2012 where the discuss groups had explored the status of the awareness of "the economy of happiness" and discussed possible solutions related to the implementation of ideas of happiness. The pilot study indicated that the awareness of "the economy of happiness" was very low. The percentage of group members having some basic knowledge of the ideas and methods was only 6.2 percent. The idea of including the measures of "the economy of happiness" into official governmental statistical scorecard was supported only by half of the discussion group members. The main argument for not supporting those ideas was that the need for "the economy of happiness" was of importance not for the society but only for a limited number of scientists and researchers. On the other hand some practical steps translating the ideas of "the economy of happiness" into the real needs were assessed very positively. As an example, three out of the five discussion group members welcomed the idea that the daily work was the key path towards the self – actualization and that one of the primarily tasks of the society was to create the work places contributing to employees' self – actualization.

The first phase of the research was resumed with designing the questionnaire "the attitudes towards "the economy of happiness".

The questionnaire consists of eight questions designed n order to find out the socio - demographic characteristics of the respondents (gender, age, marital status, education, etc.) and 5 group of questions are designed to find out the level of awareness of the respondents about "the economy of

happiness” together with the knowledge or ignorance of this issue. The questions on the awareness of Easterlin Paradox, the rank of Lithuania or Latvia by the index of Gross National Happiness in the World are included. The remaining 15 questions are intended to clarify the opinion of the respondents towards the implementation the ideas of "the economy of happiness” in various areas of life, i.e. workplace, family, education, health care, self government and government of the country. Based on the experience of the first phase of the research there were 2 questions related to the same happiness area. The purpose of the first question was clarify the views of the respondents about the change of direction of the society efforts towards “the economy of happiness” and the second question had the purpose to clarify the respondents' opinions about the possible use of public funds in order to improve the subjective satisfaction of the individual in the different areas of public life. For example, there was the question "would you agree with the fact that tax payers’ money is used to improve the subjective job satisfaction/happiness at work? “

The survey questionnaire "The attitude towards “the economy of happiness”” was used for the research conducted in 2013 in Lithuania and Latvia. Statistical analysis of survey data was completed by using SPSS 12.0 for Windows. Two methods were applied for statistical analysis: i) descriptive statistics, and ii) analytical statistics (Pearson statistics χ^2).

The main socio -demographic characteristics of respondents are presented below.

The total number of the respondents was 292. 158 respondents were Lithuanian residents and 134 respondents were the residents of Latvia. Among them: male - 107 (37.7 percent), female - 185 (62.3 percent). The majority of respondents resided in the capitals of the State - 131 (44.8 percent). The other respondents came from the major regional cities – 102 (34.9 percent), and small cities - 40 (13.7 percent), and rural areas - 19 (6.6 percent).

The distribution of respondents by age was the following: up to 25 years old - 44 respondents (15 percent), 26 - 35 years old - 49 respondents (16.7 percent, 36 - 45 years old - 75 respondents (25.6 percent), 45 - 55 years old - 66 respondents (22.6 percent), 56 - 65 years old - 34 respondents (11.6 percent), 66 - years and older - 24 respondents (8.5 percent).

The distribution of respondents by the level of education was the following: primary elementary education -18 (6.1 percent), secondary education - 97 (33.4 percent), secondary vocational education - 60 (20.5 percent), higher education - bachelor - 58 (19.8 percent), higher education - Master - 47 (16.1 percent), doctoral - 12 (4.1 percent).

The distribution of respondents by social position in the society was the following: students - 35 (11.9 percent), employees - 160 (55.0 percent), self-employed - 41 (14 percent), unemployed - 29 (9.9 percent), retired - 27 (9.2 percent).

By marital status, the main group of respondents were married – 134 (45.8 percent), single - 101 (34.9 percent), divorced - 42 (14.2 percent), widowed - 15 (5.1 percent). 128 respondents (43.8 percent) had children.

The self-assessment by respondents on their financial position had indicated the following results: 5 respondents answered " I can afford whatever I want " (1.7 percent), 61 respondents indicated " I am quite assured" (20.9 percent), 136 respondents identified themselves as "middle" (46.6 percent) ; 62 respondents had indicated that "only partially can afford to buy essential goods" (21.2 percent); 28 respondents had indicated that they did not have enough money even for the basic required needs (9.6 percent).

Based on the answers three main groups were identified. The first group had indicated that their wealth was on the sufficient level (22,6 percent); the second group had indicated that they were on the middle level (46.6 percent), and the others expresses the opinion that their financial situation was poor (30.8 percent).

The general respondents' awareness about "the economy of happiness"

In order to explore the general awareness about "the economy of happiness" five questions asked. 34 respondents responded to at least one of the questions confidently (11.6 percent); 18 respondents (6.1 percent) indicated that they had often heard about "the economy of happiness". 24 respondents (8.2 percent) answered that they knew about the rank of Lithuania / Latvia according to the Index of Gross National Happiness in the world. It has to be noted that nobody knew the exact rank of Lithuania or Latvia. 25 respondents (8.5 percent) indicated that they had heard or had read about the Index of Gross National Happiness. The number of affirmative confirmations on the additional questions related to the general awareness of "the economy of happiness" was negligible. 2 respondents knew Bhutan where the index of Gross National Happiness index was considered more important than the GNP/ GDP. Only 3 respondents had heard about the " Easterlin paradox".

The attitudes of respondents' towards the implementation of ideas of "the economy of happiness" in the various areas and sectors of the society

The correlation with the political and economic goals of the State. Happiness can be seen as the result of personal effort (self improvement, the proper way of life and living, etc.) or as a result of purposeful actions in the Society. Proponents of "the economy of happiness" recognizes that such actions have to be undertaken at the State level and that they are possible and desirable. 192 respondents (or 65.8 percent) had supported this idea. They had answered affirmatively to the question "whether the main purpose of the Lithuanian / Latvian State is the happiness of the population". On the other hand this high percentage of positive answers does not indicate about the strong support of "the economy of happiness" from the population side. The idea of measuring the levels of happiness of the population in Lithuania / Latvia was strongly supported by 168 respondents (or 57.3 percent of respondents). 157 respondents (or 53.8 percent) had agreed with the opinion that "a happy citizen is an economic value as he/she acts successfully and earns more".

The perception towards the goals of employment policies. The relationship of work and subjective well-being was researched in the number of research works. It was proved that the satisfaction or dissatisfaction coming from the job and the workplace had the significant impact on the overall levels of happiness. It was also found that that the job satisfaction was not only related to the levels of income but also on how much it can satisfy the personality needs and the higher level achievements such as belonging to the group or a team, the self-actualization of the person's capabilities, etc. For example, according to some studies in Western countries, 60 to 70 percent of population believed that besides their income they wanted to be respected and valued at the workplace (11). Correspondingly, the public financing can be used to meet those needs in order to improve the subjective job satisfaction. This idea was supported by 184 respondents (or 63 percent). However the idea that taxpayers' money can used to improve the life satisfaction of unemployed subjective happiness was supported by only 134 (39 percent) of respondents who stated that happy unemployed is no longer actively looking for job.

The perceptions towards the family policies. According to Nobel Prize winner in Economics E.Heckman, the family creates the future of society and therefore public investments in the family are the most profitable (12). However, it must be noted that in many EU countries those investments did

not produce the results desirable for the society. One can distinguish two main directions of the State support for families. The first direction is based on the financial support/payments to the families with children. The second direction is geared towards the creation of a more "family friendly environment" and creates the best opportunities for the family willing to combine career and parenting. The system's goal is to provide a variety of benefits, to increase the number of services for the family, etc. Scientists and politicians who give preferences to "the economy of happiness" usually support this second trend. In the research 201 respondent (or 68.8 percent) had agreed with the view that the main form of assistance to the family should be the non-financial benefits gearing towards the creating the "family friendly environment." 150 respondents (51.3 percent) had agreed with the opinion that the main purpose of family policy was to increase the level of subjective satisfaction with the family life. The other respondents stated their opinion that the main goal of the family policy was to solve demographic problems by increasing the birth rates.

The perceptions towards the education system. The features of happy personality had been investigated and analyzed by various researches in different aspects. K. DeNeve and H. Cooper after summarizing the nearly one hundred and fifty studies of happy people have concluded that education had the significant impact on the happiness of the individual (13). Thus it becomes evident the importance of formulation the goals of the educational system. 179 respondents (or 61.3 percent) had agreed with the opinion that the main purpose of the system of education was to educate a person with the capabilities for happiness. 170 respondents (58.2 percent) supported the view that the main indicator of the educational system had to be the number of happy children. The others explained their disagreement indicating that the primarily goal of education was to prepare the person for life and to provide knowledge, skills and capabilities important to their profession and to professional career.

The perception towards the goal of State health system. Various researchers had confirmed the relationship between the levels of happiness and the societal health: happier personalities are healthier. The studies had also showed that the fusion of happiness with mental health can be evaluated as factors that describe the subjective well-being (14). 205 respondents (or 70.2 percent) had agreed with the view that the main purpose of the health care system was to increase the number of happy patients. But the idea that we the government should reallocate funds and should significantly increase funding for mental well-being supported was supported by much smaller number of respondents, i.e. 129 (or 44.1 percent).

Perceptions on social capital. A big impact on happiness reflects social attitudes and values that links members of society. The values such as trust, tolerance, willingness to help, and various social activities - volunteering, participation in non-governmental organizations, etc become the key factors for happiness. R. Veenhoven indicated that the satisfaction in social relations positively impact on life satisfaction and overall level of happiness. This research had shown that these ideas were not in the dispute but in general the social relationships were often perceived as relations that had purely personal interest and had to be freed from the public support. Therefore, respondents were asked not about the overall impact to “the economy of happiness” on the social relations but on a much larger scope of State support meaning that more taxpayer money had to be allocated to non-governmental organizations and for self-development of population, i.e. for clubs, sports facilities, adult education systems, etc.). 169 respondents (or 57.8 percent) had positively responded to both of these questions. The number of distinct responses was 7 (2.3 percent) and was statistically insignificant.

The perceptions towards the objectives of the Governing system. Government, Parliament, Government institutions are commonly called being the "power" and "control ". Those institutions can significantly affect the level of happiness of the Society. 50 respondents (17.1 percent) had indicated that the main goal of the State was to increase the number of satisfied citizens.

As indicated by E. Diener, R. Lucas, W. (Schimmack, Yu Helliwel, the political freedom and participation in the political processes were significantly associated with the levels of happiness of the Society (16). 210 respondents (71.9 percent) agreed on the view that there was a need to increase the participation of citizens in finding the solution for various societal problems (i.e. referendums, consultations, etc.).

Discussion

The research was conducted in Lithuania and Latvia. Comparing the results of the research in two countries some comments have to be added. The statistically insignificant ($p < 0,1$) trend shows that the group of respondents in Lithuania were better informed about the "the economy of happiness". The other parameters did not show any significant differences between the Lithuanian and Latvian groups of respondents. This fact allows us to consider both groups of respondents as one group representing

the perception towards the ideas of "the economy of happiness" in to Baltic countries, Lithuania and Latvia.

As it was already noted the general awareness of the respondents about "the economy of happiness" was relatively low. Perhaps this fact had caused the relatively small number of respondents to choose the categorical answers, i.e. "Strongly agree" or "strongly disagree" in response to questions about the implementation of the ideas of "the economy of happiness" in various areas of society. Therefore, those responses were attached to the responses "agree" or "disagree". Thus, three groups of respondents were identified: i) the respondents expressing a positive attitude towards the ideas of "the economy of happiness", ii) the respondents expressing their opposition to the ideas of "the economy of happiness", and the respondents with ineffable attitude and the response "I cannot answer ". After additional discussions with respondents on ineffable attitudes it was decided that unexpressed attitude was psychologically closer to negative attitudes.

When comparing the groups of respondents it should also be noted that in many cases it was possible to identify the general positive, negative, or uncertain relationship to the ideas of "the economy of happiness" in various areas of the society. The match of the answers about the attitude towards the ideas of "the economy of happiness" in various areas spheres of society is quite high with Cronbch's alpha equal to 0,983. That means that the presented data allow to highlight the possible groups of respondents that agree with the ideas of "the economy of happiness".

Having considered statistically significant ($p < 0,05$) differences between the respondents who had positive, negative or ineffable attitude towards the idea of "the economy of happiness", we can state that the respondents with higher educational degree were more aware about the "the economy of happiness". At the same level of statistical significance the metropolitan residents had expressed more positive attitude to the ideas of "the economy of happiness" in various areas of society. Respondents with primary or secondary education in rural areas were mostly negative towards the ideas of happiness. The respondents aged 36 to 55 years had often expressed their positive attitude to the ideas of happiness. It also has to be mentioned that younger respondents had no opinions on those issues.

In general men were more specific, positively or negatively to the ideas of "the economy of happiness", while women used to choose an uncertain position.

The opinions of respondents with marital status and respondents having children had the visible impact only to the family policy goals questions. Married and having children respondents significantly

more often had agreed with the idea that the main goal of the family policy was not the financial support but the policies geared to “family friendly environment.” It should be noted that this level of significance $p < 0,01$ was detected only for this particular question.

Financial strength, financial resources and social status of the respondents were also significantly ($p < 0,05$) correlating with their relation to the ideas of “the economy of happiness”. The respondents who had indicated that their financial situation was good or very good had indicated the positive responses towards the ideas of “the economy of happiness”.

Conclusions

“The economy of happiness” is rarely discussed in the Baltic countries. This topic is almost unknown in the Baltic scientific press. In this regard there is an urgent need to develop appropriate methods and tools for more extensive research that would disclose the societal position towards the ideas of “the economy of happiness”.

This survey and the research had showed that the general awareness of “the economy of happiness” in the Baltic countries was low although the positive attitude of the respondents towards the implementation of the ideas of “the economy of happiness” in various areas of society was quite noticeable. The survey had also showed that some respondent groups such as respondents with higher education and better financial status, the residents of capital cities, and employed residents were more positive about the ideas of “the economy of happiness”. A deeper and more comprehensive research of the attitudes to “the economy of happiness” can provide invaluable information about the perceptions towards the foreseen social and economic changes as well as to complement to national studies on levels of happiness in the society.

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Chapter 3: The Development of Youth Civil Society in Lithuania: the Dimension of the Civil (In)Activity

ASTA VIŠOCKAITĖ & RIMA URBONAITĖ

Introduction

The building processes of the civil society in post-communist countries face unique challenges. Even though researchers devote enough attention to the analysis of the civil society in accordance with the position that it is one of the essential conditions for consolidated democracy. It should be noted that some of them have an attitude that the legacy of the Soviet period has a negative impact on the formation of the civil society and some of them state that the domination of the consumerist citizen with materialistic values, who only protects his/her interests, is the major obstacle for these processes nowadays. However, most of them agree that the significant changes in the maturity processes of the civil society are possible during the change of the generations and expecting that the new generation may have enough potential to create the mature civil society. Therefore, this article specifically focuses on the analysis of the potential of the youth citizenship as well as the research which would show how this potential is developing in the civil-social and civil-political activities. It is important to answer the question whether the change of the generations is the key to the maturity of the civil society and the entrenchment of the citizenship into society as well as what are the possible challenges which may arise in order to create a favourable environment for the formation of the mature civil society. However, if those who believe that the paralysis of the building of civil society is related to the domination of the individualistic consumer culture are right, then it is possible that the change of generations might not lead to the presupposed results which are expected from the present youth.

In order to determine the possible tendencies of the development of the civil society, the expression of Lithuanian youth citizenship is analysed in this article with regard to civil-political (interest in politics, political parties, attitude towards politics and politicians) and civil-social (participation in charity, non-governmental institutions, and volunteering) activity aspects. This article

is written on the basis of recent empirical data and the statistical results gained from the quantitative research.

Theoretical background

In the political science, there is a prevailing paradigm used for the explanation of the civil society which is constructed according to the entrenched concept of the democracy and which is used to distinguish these main elements of consolidated democracy: a) civil society; b) political society, the elite; c) rule of law; d) state bureaucracy; e) economic society (Juan and Linz, 1996). Thus, the formation processes of the civil society are usually analysed in the context of the research of democratic processes. The democratic stability, the control of the state government, the satisfaction of the needs and interests of an individual are all based on the existence of the civil society.

It should be noted that the free and civil society which can be characterized by the civil maturity is one of those consolidated democracy conditions which are hardest to achieve. Also, it requires huge effort not only from the citizens but also from the state.

However, political scientists identify civil society as the key factor for strong and consolidated democracy, which prevents the reversible process, i.e. transition to the undemocratic regime (Schedler, 1998). There is an opposing concept which is based on the fact that the civil society can promote both political activity and its stagnation, taking into account the presumption that the civil society is managed by economic (not political!) man.

In the analysis of the development processes of the civil society, one of the most important elements is the form of the relation between the civil society and the state, i.e. whether this relationship is identified as „zero-sum“ game (Gellner, 1994) or where the state with civil society is in opposition (Howard, 2003). The common opinion is that the state becomes the main engine of the building of the civil society. The dominance of one or another model in the state determines the development processes of the civil society.

If we agree with the position that nowadays the political man is defeated by the economic man, then we have to agree that the civil society is becoming only an instrument which helps to meet the personal needs, usually material ones. Laurénas (2003) also notes that during the examination of the interaction between the civil society and the state it can be seen that this interaction between the civil society and the state is often contradictory, whereas the civil society itself has certain limits behind

which the destruction of the society and stiffness of the development of the state might happen. In addition to this, it should be noted that the civil society is dependent on the state and its development can become a very difficult and complicated process without state's support. The state itself may not always be able or has a purpose to contribute to the establishment and the maturity of the civil society; it is important to recognize that the civil society is only promoted by such a state where the government's power is indirect power from person to person and which rise not from the dependency on the objects and values but from the need to obey to the general needs (Laurénas, 2003). It is very difficult to create such an ideal model of interaction between the state and the civil society.

However, the attempt to find the unified definition for the citizenship and civil society concept might be a rather problematic question because the concept of the political participation was constantly changing in the historical flow. M. Edwards (2009) distinguishes three schools of thought related to the civil society: the civil society as part of the society, i.e. neo-Tocquevillian school which focuses on the aspect of participation; the civil society as a kind of the society which is characterized by the positive norms and values as well as it is named as a guarantee for the success of seeking certain social goals; finally, the civil society as the public sphere. Neo-Tocquevillian school is undoubtedly the most dominant nowadays; according to its representatives, it produces a "good society" but the concept of the civil society is usually forgotten due to the access of the public sphere. The disappearing distinction between the public and the private as well as the dominant paradigm of the political sciences which analyse the development processes of the civil society on the basis of the analysis of democratization, presuppose this fact.

The civil society in this article focuses on Putnam's social capital concept. The foundation of the social capital is the relationship between the people who provide benefit in establishing and maintaining relationships (Putnam, 2001). The social capital ensures the unity between the people, security, and trust as well as can be characterized by the fact that if it is used, it always grows and pays dividends to the people who are creating and using it. Mutuality builds the social capital and supports cooperation. The denser and elastic this interaction network is, the more it is likely that citizens will cooperate for the common good. Intensive, horizontal cooperation is the key to the way to increase social capital or trust.

In the studies of the civil society, Putnam (2000) uses the constructed model of the analysis and studies the index of the social capital by distinguishing certain levels of analysis: first, the

organizational life of the community (the membership in the committee of the local organization, taking a part in the activities of the club or organization, the number of civil and social organizations, the average number of people in the meetings which were attended, the average number of members of non-governmental organization); second, the engagement in public affairs (participation in elections, participation in the meetings in the municipality or school); third, the community volunteerism (the number of non-profit organizations, the work in the projects of the community, volunteer work); fourth, informal sociability (the individual agrees with the statement “I spend a lot of time with my friends”, guest reception at home); fifth, social trust (the individual agrees that “most people can be trusted” and also agrees that “most people are honest”). The (in)activity dimension is analysed in this article on the basis of the three levels distinguished by Putnam.

For the analysis of the development of the citizenship, the aspect of participation is very important. While analysing participation on a theoretical level, two main indicators can be distinguished: political participation and social participation (Gaventa and Valderama, 1999). It is based on the two aspects which are distinguished from the model of the analysis in this article; these aspects are the civil-social (social participation) and civil-political (political participation).

It should be noted that the concept of participation is changing. There is a transition to the commitment which states that citizens have to involve into the process of decision-making as well as participate in the process of solving those issues which can directly affect them; it is because the concept was confined to the “benefit” and “elimination” for a long time. In other words, the transition from the “users and choosers” to the “makers and shapers” is observed (Cornwall and Gaventa, 2000).

There is an issue which has become very relevant nowadays and which discusses whether the concept of the youth civil participation is perceived as exactly as described theoretically by different scholars or the citizenship and participation are possible only when the individual is expecting to “benefit” or “eliminate” something in accordance with the private (not public!) interests. This might happen because of the domination of individualism culture and the rejection of the collectivism. This raises the potential problem that the civil participation is perceived as a duty and not as a unique right of the individual. J. W. van Deth (2001) highlights the aspect of the free will and states that the participation, first of all, is related to the perception of the concept and role of the citizen; secondly, the participation is an action whereas the usual complaining about the government is not a political activity as many people tend to believe. Thus the numbers showing the formal participation are not the only one

which are important; the reasons why this participation happens and whether the civil society can be described as the society of “makers and shapers” are relevant as well.

Riekašius (2011) notes that the aspect of combination of legality and legitimacy is very important when the conventional and unconventional forms of participation are distinguished. The conventional participation is related to the forms of the legitimate participation (participation in elections, election campaigns) whereas unconventional participation (demonstrations, pickets) usually lacks legitimacy. Riekašius (2011) suggests an alternative model of distribution: besides conventional, legal and legitimate activities he distinguishes voting, participation in election campaigns, the membership in the political parties, political and electoral donation, meetings with the officers, the membership in the trade unions and other organizations. Meanwhile, besides the politics of the protest he adds petitions, demonstrations, rally/pickets, and strike (all of these forms are legitimate and legal; however, the last three ones may lack legality). Special attention is paid to the unconventional forms of participation which are illegal and illegitimate and which can occur as violence against others, hijacking of the buildings, etc. Meanwhile, J. W. van Deth (2011) notes that the forms of participation are continually expanding in a historical sense. The participation was perceived only as a voting in 1940 whereas 1950 is the year when the new conventional forms of participation are noted, i.e. participation in the election campaigns and meetings with the politicians. Unconventional forms, for example, protests and social movements occur only in 1970. According to J. W. van Deth (2011), the forms of the civic participation and social engagement become apparent only in 1990. As it can be seen, the forms of participation, both conventional and unconventional, are constantly changing and can be supplemented by the new ones; however, it is very important that they would be used and help to strengthen the maturity of the civil society.

Research methodology

The object of the analysis is a particular social group which is youth. According to Law on Youth Policy Framework of the Republic of Lithuania, it is comprised of the individuals whose age is 14-29.²⁰

In order so raise the aim of the article, the access to the social capital research by Putnam and the results of the quantitative analysis which was carried out in 2012 as well as the object of the analysis (the civil (in)activity) are analyzed according to the two-level model: the civil-political level and the civil-social level. And presumption of this analysis is that the results of research in each of these levels may be quite different and can implicate different suggestions for the further development process of youth citizenship.. Each of these aspects are analyzed according to the specific indicators which were distinguished and which have an impact on the civil (in)activity of the youth. Also, these indicators can be attributed to the forms of conventional or unconventional participation. The political-social level is studied during the analysis of these factors: participation in charity campaigns, volunteering, and the activities of non-governmental institutions. The civil-political level is analysed together with the evaluation of these factors: interest in politics, the interest in political parties, and attitudes towards politics and politicians. The expression aspects of the youth citizenship are analysed by implementing the assessment of the civil (in)activity on the basis of the empirical data gained in 2012.

Results and findings

According to the Lithuanian Department of Statistics, there were 746448 young people, between the age of 14-29, living in Lithuania in 2011. This represents 23 percent of all the inhabitants.

The analysis of the empirical research and the scientific literature can be used to look at the aspects of (in)activity of Lithuanian youth. Despite the relatively favorable conditions for the strengthening of the citizenship in Lithuania, the level of youth participation in the social activities still

²⁰ Law on Youth Policy Framework of the Republic of Lithuania. *Official Gazette*. 2003, No. 119-5406; 2005, No. 144-5238

remains rather weak and even low in some respects. The activity is understood and analysed in the research using a sufficiently large number of aspects. It encompasses both civil-social and civil-political activities. The civil-social and civil-political activities occur in various forms: it is not only the participation in election, interest in politics, interest in political parties and political activities but also the participation in civil charity campaigns, the engagement in non-governmental institutions, and volunteering (the participation in the activities where the time, knowledge, and personal experience is oriented towards the provision of usefulness for the society and which does not provide any income).

The data used for the analysis is based on the results of the Youth Problematic Research.

The analysis of civil-political (in)activity

In order to create the civil society in which the concept of the citizenship as a unique right would dominate and which would be based on the concept of „makers and shapers“, the high level of civil-political activity is needed. It would also perform the function of state control and this aspect would become a cornerstone if the state takes the opposing position.

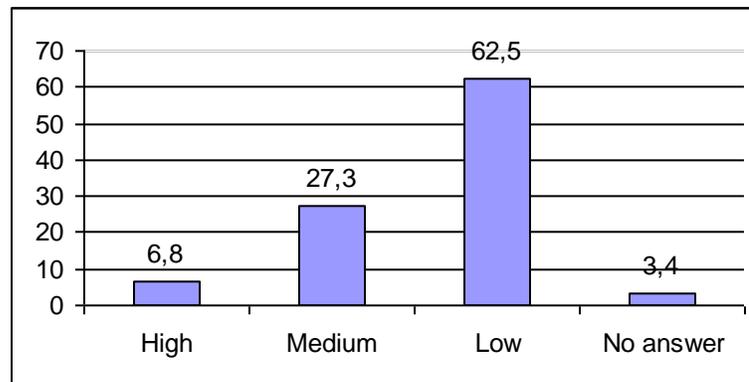


Figure 3.1. The civil-political activity of youth²¹.

²¹ All the illustrations presented are made on the basis of the report called „The comparative analysis of the research on youth problematics“ by the Department of Youth Affairs under the Ministry of Social Security and Labor

As Figure 3.1 illustrates, it can be clearly seen that the majority of youth (62,5 percent) has little interest in the programs of political parties, the activities of parties and politicians as well as the political life of the country. It should be noted that the high activity is a characteristic of 6,8 percent respondents only. Thus it would be inadequate to state that the civil-political potential of the youth tends to grow. This implies that some kind of opposition between the state and the citizens has extremely poor prospects to decline.

The important issue which might have the decisive influence on the growth of the youth civil-political activity is the formation of the politically-active and favorable surrounding.

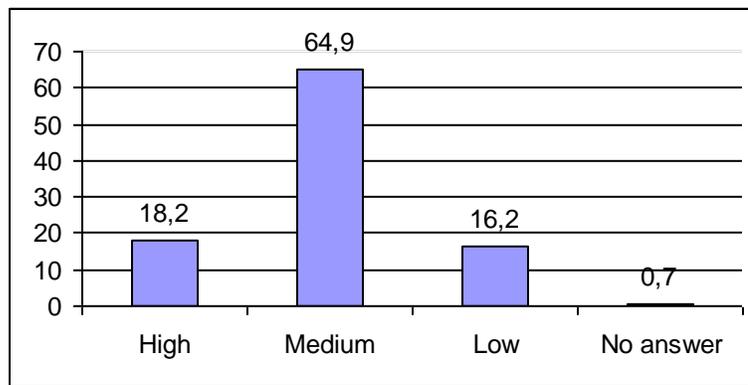


Figure 3.2. The distribution of youth according to the civil-political activity of the environment.

According to the survey results illustrated in the Figure 3.2, the environment of the majority of young people, i.e. parents, acquaintances, lecturers, and friends interact with young people and try to encourage their interest to the political events of the country and political realities. The majority of young people (64,9 percent) can be attributed to the group of the civil-political activity. However, in this case it should be noted that only 18,2 percent of young people live in the highly active civil-political environment. Also, it cannot be strictly stated that political environment is the major key factor which led to the youth activity. The opposite result might be expected as well if the environment is politically active but it expresses constant dissatisfaction with politics, political parties or politicians. As it was mentioned above, the regular complaining about the government is not a part of civil-political activity. Therefore, it is important to notice to what extent this political environment promotes active interest in politics and whether it does not promote negative attitude towards it.

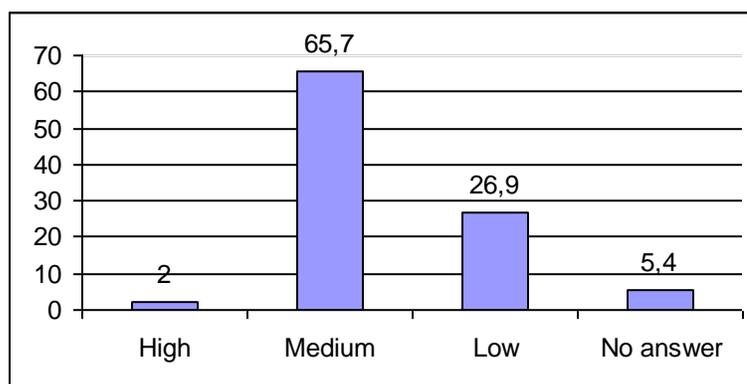


Figure 3.3. The distribution of young people according to the negative attitude towards politics.

As it can be seen in Figure 3.3, there are the results of the survey provided; previously suggested presumption that the civil-political environment might presuppose negative results has been partially confirmed. The majority of young people (65,7 percent) belongs to the group which attitude towards politics, parties, and government is moderately negative. 2 percent belongs to the high negativity group; this means that they evaluate politics, parties, and political power very negatively. 26,9 percent of the young people can be attributed to the group of low negativity, this means that politics, parties, and political power is assessed positively. It is worth to mention that negative attitude towards politics and politicians does not promote the increase of the civil-political activity.

The civil-political activity of young people is rather low. In addition to this, negative attitude towards politics and politicians encourages civil-political inactivity. Thus it can be stated that according to the survey results and the provided insights, the development tendencies of the citizenship which are based on the aspect of civil-political activity will not grow in the near future.

The second level of analysis is dedicated to the research of the civil-social aspect. Because the civil-social activity does not bring any tangible benefit, it might be assumed that the civil-social activity can be defined as the future aspect which will create the favorable conditions for the strengthening of civil-social development.

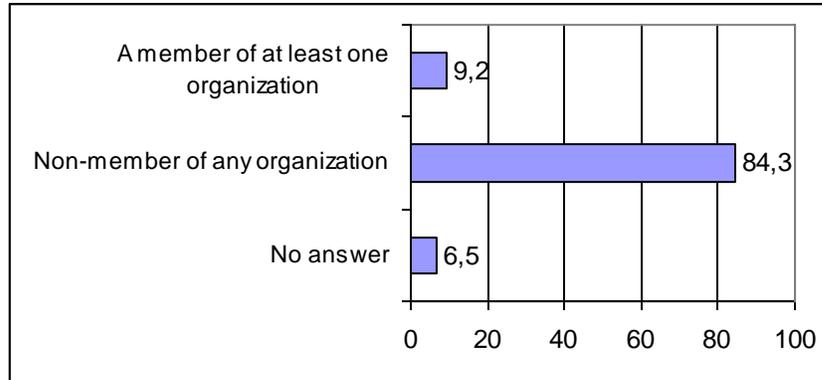


Figure 3.4. Youth membership in non-governmental organizations.

There is an indicator of the membership in the non-governmental institutions provided which shows that members which take part in the activities of the non-governmental institutions represent only 9,2 percent. However, it should be noted that this small proportion of people, according to the results of the research, actively participates in the activities of the organizations.²² However, these results provide a clear identification of one of the main problems, which is, young people are not inclined to start collective actions as well as do not tend to solve collective social problems with the help of non-governmental organizations. This notion let to confirm the attitude of some researchers who state that individualism and consumerism eclipsed the community which is the main condition of the growth of the social capital as well as the framework for the creation of the civil society. In order to strengthen the horizontal ties of the community as well as the social capital, it is important to promote the public interest to the affairs of other members of the community as well as the willingness to help, if needed.

²²During the last 6 months, 89,9 percent of people were interested in the activity of the organization; 87,5 percent interacted with other members of the organization; 86,9 percent participated in the events of the organization; 71,6 percent organized the events in the organization as well as performed its activities; 65,7 percent participated in the election of governing bodies; 57,1 percent had some position in the organization or were responsible for some activities; 32,9 percent held executive positions and 84,1 percent of young people friends, coworkers, relatives knew that they are members of the organization. The activity of the members of non-governmental organization is rather low; however, according to this research, the members of non-governmental organizations represent only 9,2 percent.

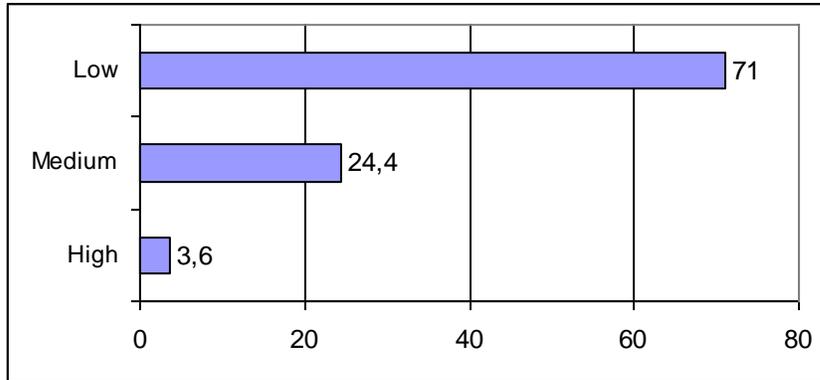


Figure 3.5. The distribution of young people according to the criteria of benevolence.

According to the survey results, it can be seen that the majority (71,0 percent) of young people have not participated in the charities or charity campaigns or donated very little in the past 6 months. Such an attitude towards charity and inactivity of young people do not create any preconditions for the strengthening of the community relationships as well as the increase of the citizenship. However, the volunteering activities of the young people (50,8 percent) allow to see the favorable tendencies as well.

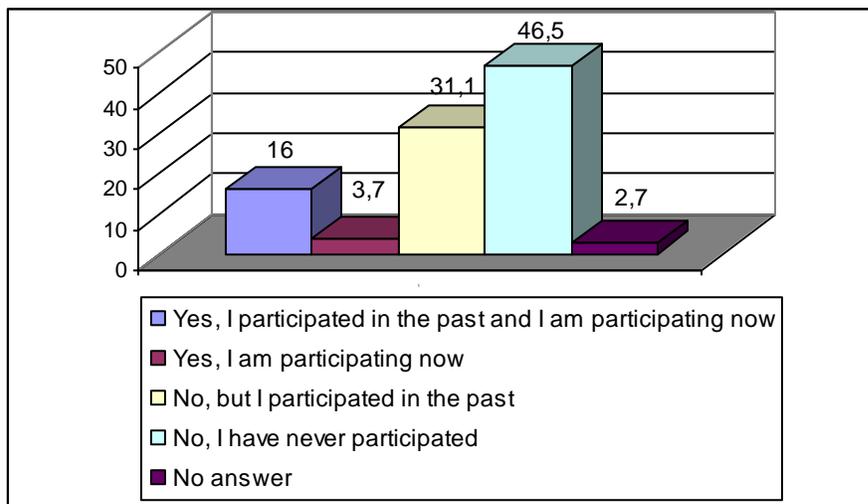


Figure 3.6. Youth participation in voluntary activities.

The results of the survey suggest that the potential of young people in the building of the civil society is rather low, taking into account the fact that 46,5 percent of the respondents have never participated in any voluntary activities. There are only 19.7 percent of the respondents engaged into the voluntary activities at present.

As in the case of the environmental analysis which was based on the civil-political aspect, it is important to look at the environment of young people with the reference to the civil-social aspect.

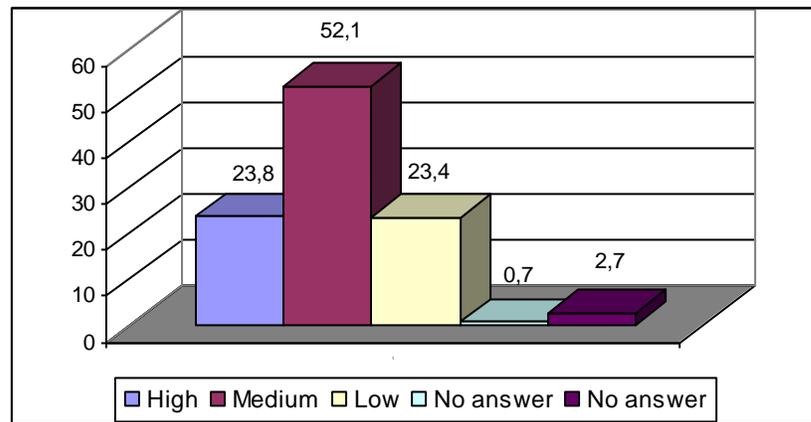


Figure 3.7. The distribution of young people according to the civil-social activity of the environment.

According to the statistics, it can be seen that the civil-social activity of the environment is higher than the civil-political environment; however, the low activity is even higher than in the case of civil-political activity. Thus it is quite clear that young people do not receive enough encouragements, which can promote their activity and citizenship, from the environment. Therefore, only the awareness and proper understanding of what free and responsible civil society and active citizenship are can promote the civil activity of the young people.

Conclusions

In this article, the development aspects of the youth citizenship are analyzed with regard to the (in)activity dimensions. The aim is to analyze the rate of the youth citizenship potential as well as the

question whether the young people and the change of the generations contribute to the strengthening of the civil society.

The citizenship of young people is analyzed according to the two-level model which includes civil-political and the civil-social level. The main aim is to verify the presumption which says that because of the relatively strong negativity towards the political issues, the citizenship of youth can be stronger expressed in the civil-social level.

The implemented analysis suggests that the civil-political activity is rather low. The civil-political environment of young people is rather active; however, this does not create a favorable environment for the growth of the youth activity. The fact that this active civil-political environment is largely limited to the criticism of politics and politicians is based on the strong negative attitude towards politics.

The civil-political inactivity of young people shows that the interaction between the society and the state can be described as the game of „zero-sum“. In this case, the state does not play a significant role in the process of the creation of the civil society even though the clear opposition related to the processes of the development cannot be identified. However, the role of the state as the engine of the formation of the civil society is very important; without the state's help, some serious challenges for the development of the civil society might arise.

The analysis of the citizenship of the young people on the basis of the civil-social aspect shows that the community feeling of the young people is rather weak. It is important to note that the activity of the civil-social environment of the young people is even smaller if compared to the civil-political level. The social group of adults does not create the precedent which would encourage the civil-social activity of the young people.

The fact that the political man has lost his position nowadays and gave the way to the economic man presupposes the poor participation in the activities of non-governmental institutions as well as inactivity in charities and volunteering. It can be concluded that the concept of the civil society which is prevalent nowadays is based on the “benefit” in accordance with the individual and not public interests. The transition from the “users and choosers” as well as “makers and shapers” has not occurred between young people in Lithuania.

Thus the presumption which states that if there is no negative relationship with the politics, the activity of the young people regarding the civil-social aspect should be higher as compared to the civil-

political level has not been approved. The potential growth of Lithuanian youth citizenship is low and the change of the generations does not guarantee the strengthening of the citizenship in the society. The main reason of this notion is the consumerist individualism and the extremely low community feeling as well as the lack of the understanding that both the conventional and unconventional civil participation is not a duty but rather a unique right of the citizens.

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Chapter 4: The Concept of the Quality of Studies: the Attitude of the Undergraduate and the Postgraduate Students

GINTAUTE ZIBENIENE & JOLITA DUDAITE

Introduction

The student of today is seen as an important participant of the process of the assurance of the quality of studies. This idea is the essence in few documents of European Union (EU) and also scientific literature, in EU documents it is mentioned that it is necessary to include students into internal quality assessment²³. In Communique of Louvain (2009) is highlighted, that quality being the priority of European higher education system must become essential element in EU educational priorities as well²⁴. It is written in the Republic of Lithuania Law on Science and Studies (2009) 41 paragraph: that „any higher school must continuously update website and use other social media sites to update precise quantitative and qualitative information about <...> attitude of students, graduate students and other interested parts on quality of studies”²⁵.

The twenty-first century universities emphasize the attention on students, quality of studies which became an asset and are associated with competitiveness and expectations of successful future. The need to assess the quality of studies started in XVII century (Rossi et al 2003), however the deeper interest grew in XX century along with ideology, political and demographic changes in societies.

²³ Budapest-Vienna Declaration on the European Higher Education Area (March 12, 2010).

Communiqué of the Conference of Ministres Responsible for Higher Education in Berlin (September 19, 2003).

Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education in Bergen (May 19-20, 2005).

²⁴ Communiqué of the Conference of European Ministers Responsible for Higher Education, Leuven and Louvain-la-Neuve (April 28-29, 2009).

²⁵ Republic of Lithuania law on Higher education and research. *Official Gazette*. 2009, No. 54-2140.

Lithuanian and foreign scientists explore the attitude of students on quality of studies in various aspects. Shirbagi (2011) suggested students' attitude mostly been researched because of three reasons. First one is to aid administrative evaluations by measuring teaching effectiveness. Second reason is to help students select courses and instructors, and the third is to help teachers to improve their teaching by providing them the feedback. Same approach is seen in Lithuanian scientist researches. Baranauskienė et al (2011) studied students' attitude to mission of universities, goals and motivation of their choices. The other professor Bobrova et al (2012) researched the attitude towards quality of teaching. Moreover, Bobrova et al (2010) analyzed students' attitude towards quality of studies, assessing their conception along with learning and what does it mean to learn. Other scientists notified the importance of students' approach to studies in the universities and distinguished the questions how to improve the quality became relevant. They also suggest to concentrate on achieving goals and learning quality process (El Hasan, 2009; Balasooriya et. al, 2009; Almadani et al., 2011). Although Richard and Joseph (2008) state that students' approach poorly predicted pedagogical effectiveness. Sahin et al. (2010) write about university Students' Opinions About Factors Affecting Their Achievement Of Educational Goals.

Moreover, it is proved that student' initial expectations, leading one or other concept of the quality of studies, is very important for study process and its vision, but first-year undergraduate students' approach has not been researched. Even though students' concept of quality of studies is the objective of several researches, we could not find any recent data to explore the important aspects of study choices, students' opinion on who should be responsible for the quality of studies, and the concept of the high-quality of the higher education institution. For the same reason our research objective is first-year undergraduate and postgraduate students' concept of the quality of studies.

Theoretical background

The scientific aspect of the concept of the quality of studies has been examined for several decades. The first time the improvement and assessment of quality of studies became an objective of research in 1960 (Žibėnienė, 2006).

However, a consummate implementation of the quality of studies assessment process is a matter of academic discussion. Education's systems are integrating into the European framework of education

and the priority must be given to ensuring the quality of study. In pursuance of keeping studies competitive with the rest of Europe and coordinating the quality of study on the international level, the transparency of quality of study assessment policy, students opinion are of the greatest importance.

Analysing the practice in other countries it is possible to envisage various assessment methods, assessment levels and different periodicity of assessment. With reference to the analysis of the literature it can be argued that different assessment strategies, methodology and assessment measures prevail, criteria (Spiel, 2002). The most significant constituent in the quality of study domain is the quality of programmes, which can be examined as the whole of concerted features that demonstrates by what means the requirements established in legal national documents are met, how regional, national and European objectives are fulfilled, and how the needs of students, employers and the society having in mind innovations and technologies and a focus on the training of a future specialist are satisfied. In assurance of the quality of studies all academic community and social partners are involved. Bologna process documents emphasis on the role of a student by joining the education quality assurance process. The quality in education has become an essential asset, but constantly changing. Why?

Vlâscenu et al (2004) think, defining quality is a question of measuring human achievement, a task that is technically problematic. "Quality in higher education is a multi-dimensional, multi-level, and dynamic concept that relates to the contextual settings of an educational model, to the institutional mission and objectives, as well as to specific standards within given system, institution, programme, or discipline. Quality may take different meanings depending on the understandings of various interests of different constituencies or stakeholders in higher education (quality requirements set by student/university discipline/labour market/ society/ government); its references (i.e. inputs, processes, outputs, missions, objectives, etc.), the attributes or characteristics of the academic world which are worth evaluating, and the historical period in the development of higher education" (Vlâscenu et al, 2004, p. 46). Westerheijden (2007) implies that we have to look at the different approaches that have been taken to conceptualize quality in higher education.

There are various concepts of the quality of studies. Morrison (2006) distinguishes over thirty of them. Study overview of the definitions of quality allows distinguishing the most popular of modern quality concepts.

Quality as improvement, quality as development. The emphasis is on continuous improvement of education quality assessment during the development of strengths and desire to remove the self-

imposed or weaknesses. It is reasonable, systematic, planned improvement of the quality of cultural expression into a learning organization.

Quality as excellence. Van Damme (2000) distinguishes the quality of perfection for the purpose and demonstrates the highest level of standards. The aim is to focus on the best-known examples of the perfectly functioning system of quality assurance.

Quality as transformation. This approach emphasizes the learning process of knowledge, skills, and values changes. Quality assessment in accordance with the concept of quality is directed to a process, outcome, and the interaction with the external environment in the context of qualitative changes. Selecting this concept is important to systematically investigate students' opinion, clearly identifying responsibilities to students, involve them in the study of quality assurance, as well as to study the content, form.

Quality as fulfilment of requirements. The quality of studies assurance system aimed the requirements defined in the criteria or standards. Following this study the concept of quality is in danger suppress innovation, creativity, and desire to constantly improve and lead.

Quality as fulfilment and/or exceeding client's needs. Selecting this concept of quality is particularly important to identify the education service users, identify their needs, explore their expectations to determine how much education represent their needs, explain the cases of dissatisfaction. However, it is still widely debated whether the student can actually be treated as a customer and whether the study can be considered a service (Pukelytė, 2010)

Quality as fitness of purpose, fitness for purpose. In accordance with the concept of quality it is important to achieve the objectives by appropriate means, i.e. achievement of education goals, matching the needs of the stakeholders, expectations, conditions provided by student eligibility qualification.

Quality as value for money. This concept is based on the understanding as the lowest cost for the best outcomes, i.e. quality is achieved by reducing the cost and with the "without loss" productivity.

Students' concept of quality of studies depends on his or her concept of quality. However, the question arises: from what parameters formed high-quality studies? While searching for an answer, we can count on quality assessment parameters. The research of owned rating agencies' web pages based on INQAAHE, ENQA , CEE, revealed the most popular parameters to assess the quality of studies: 1) the input (student selection criteria, recruitment of students, faculty qualifications), 2) process (studies

efficiency of educational process organization, curriculum implementation), and 3) impact (successful graduates, drop-out students successfully employed in the statistical analysis of the number and the context). Vroeijenstijn (1995) emphasized the quality assessment while characterizing the theoretical justification of these aspects. Although, Rossi with colleagues Lipsey and Freeman (2003) points out that the measurement of the quality of the study program must be included accordingly to the areas of: 1) the need for the program, 2) the design and conceptualization, 3) implementation of study as the process, 4) inputs and outputs, 5) efficiency. Lipinskienė (2002) emphasizes student-empowering educational environment and its significance on the study process, its performance and as well as quality.

As for the students, their attitude to the quality of studies and their ability to speak about the quality of studies, we must select only those parameters, only those areas that students may evaluate it. Above mentioned information shows that students are able to speak about the study process and its outcomes, and educational environment. In analyzing students' attitude to the quality of studies these areas were taken into consideration: study outcomes, study process, the educational environment, and certain characteristics of professors (this can be understood as part of the educational environment, but in order to highlight the role of professors' to the quality of studies, they are separated into a distinct area).

Research methodology

Methods of scientific literature analysis, document analysis, interviews were implemented. A questionnaire consisting of a closed-answer type questions was used. The questionnaire was designed by authors on the basis of their theoretical investigations of the topic.

Sample of 432 students from Mykolas Romeris University, Social Policy Faculty were chosen for empirical research. As was quoted the Republic of Lithuania Law on Science and Studies (2009) earlier, it is stated that the higher schools should investigate its students' opinion. Therefore, the research population was chosen from Mykolas Romeris University. As the context is a very important factor to the social sciences, we decided to choose students from one faculty, since different faculties enrolled students are exposed to different influences of context. We choose first-year undergraduates because their expectations of study still do not rely on the quality of their prior study experience. In

comparison to them, we have chosen first-year graduate students, since their concept of quality and expectations for studies are already based on their own previous study experience. The survey sample – 432 respondents (228 undergraduates and 204 graduate students).

With regard of statistical methods of data analysis used in the research, it should be mentioned that Cronbach's alpha, χ^2 test, comparison of distributions is done using the Mann-Whitney test, descriptive statistics. Data were analyzed using SPSS software package, version 15.

Research was based on free-will principle to take part in the survey. The study was conducted at the Mykolas Romeris University (at the student’s learning environment), at their convenient time.

Results and findings

In order to examine the concept of the students' quality of studies it is important to find out whether the quality in general is important for them, what was the most important motive for choosing their studies. The survey revealed the most important criteria of their choice for both undergraduate and postgraduate students was the studies of high-quality. However, the second most important criteria for the choice of studies is different for both groups: for the undergraduates it was the demand of profession, for the postgraduates – an inexpensive studies (see Figure 4.1).

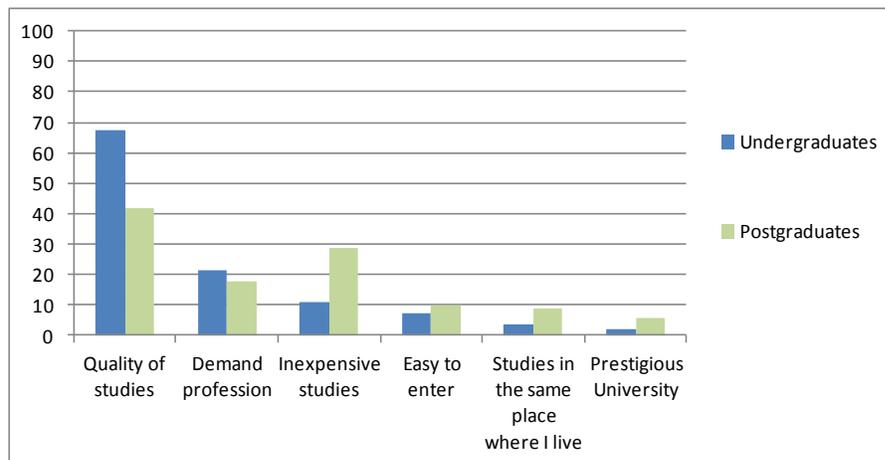


Figure 4.1. The most important criteria of choosing studies ($p < 0.05$).

When considering who should take care of the quality of studies, both groups students unanimously agreed that firstly it is the duty of professors, secondly – administration. The least responsibility of caring of the quality of studies the undergraduates gave for social partners, and the postgraduates – for students themselves (see Figure 4.2).

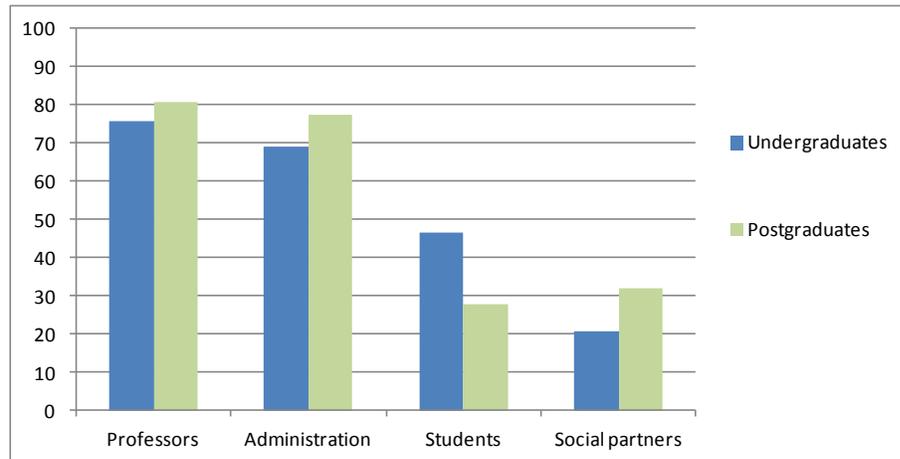


Figure 4.2. Who should take care of the quality of studies at the University ($p < 0.05$).

Both groups agreed that the universities of the high-quality are the ones who have excellent human resources (undergraduates – 67.2 %, postgraduates – 75.0 %). However, undergraduates more than the other group, defined the university as a high-quality if it is publicly acknowledged. According to both groups' results, the price of studies is the least influential in the defining the high-quality of the University (undergraduates – 6.9 %, postgraduates – 8.9 %).

When asked what concept of quality is most acceptable for students, both groups agreed that the most acceptable concept of quality is *quality as fulfilment and/or exceeding client's needs* (see figure 4.3). We can assume that nowadays student sees himself/herself as the client or consumer. The second preference was given to the concept of quality – *quality as improvement*. The least preference was given to concept of *quality as fulfilment of requirements* and *quality as transformation*. However, the given priorities by both groups are not statistically significant (signs of homogeneity using the χ^2 criterion separately for each concept of quality in all cases are $p > 0.05$).

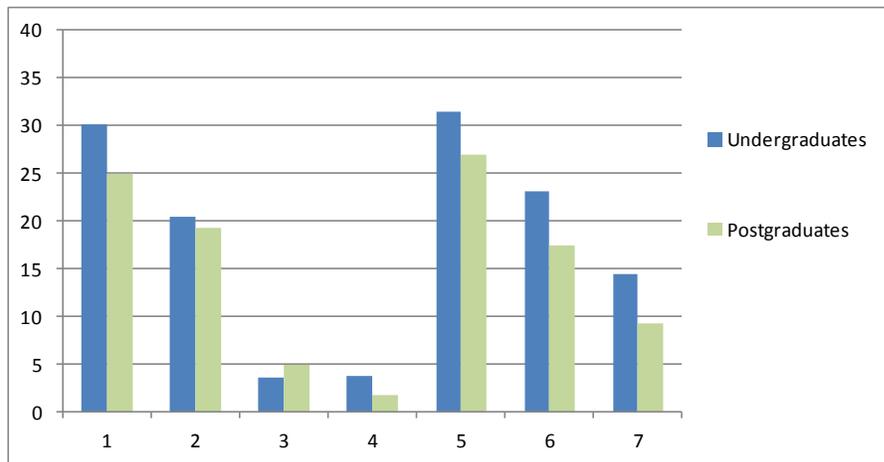


Figure 4.3. Concepts of quality of studies preferred for students (1– quality as improvement, quality as development, 2 – quality as excellence, 3 – quality as transformation, 4– quality as fulfilment of requirements, 5 – quality as fulfilment and/or exceeding client’s needs, 6 – quality as fitness of purpose, fitness for purpose, 7 – quality as value for money).

In order to ascertain students' attitudes on what is important to the quality of studies, we provided a list of various aspects related to their studies, grouped into four major areas: study outcomes, study process, professors’ characteristics and educational environment.

Students were asked to estimate the importance of various aspects of these four areas for the quality of studies. After analysis it is visible that first-year undergraduate and postgraduate students’ approaches are more or less the same. The difference is statistically insignificant in all cases, except for professors’ characteristics (see Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. The importance of various aspects for the quality of studies – the comparison of the answers of undergraduate and postgraduate students (comparison of distributions is done using the Mann-Whitney test).

It is more important for the postgraduates than for the undergraduates (variable distributions are significantly different , $p < 0.05$)	It is important for both groups equally (variable distributions are not significantly different , $p \geq 0.05$)
Characteristics of professor	Study outcomes; Study process; Educational environment

Analysing those four areas in detail, we can declare that in most cases the undergraduate and the postgraduate students' approaches are similar. However there are certain differences (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.2. The importance of various aspects for the quality of studies for the undergraduates and for the postgraduates (there are given only those aspects, for which the difference of the evaluation between two groups is greater than 10 %).

Field	Aspects related to the quality of studies	First-year undergraduate students (answer "very important")	First-year postgraduate students (answer "very important")
Study outcomes	During studies there are acquired classical knowledge	20.7 %	9.7 %
	During studies there are acquired professional competencies	29.3 %	59.7 %
	During studies there are acquired general competencies	13.8 %	27.6 %

Study process	Diversity of optional study subjects	41.4 %	29.0 %
	The focus is on the transfer of knowledge	27.6 %	19.4 %
	Less attention is paid to the transfer of knowledge, and more – on self-study	5.2 %	15.3 %
	Achievements are measured by tasks, which help to acquire professional competencies	37.9 %	47.6 %
	Possibilities at least one semester to study abroad	39.7 %	24.4 %

	Part of subjects are taught by	22.4 %	33.9 %

Characteristics of professor	professionals of certain field, instead of the academic professors		

Educational environment	Convenient schedule	70.7 %	59.7 %
	Inexpensive meals	58.6 %	41.1 %
	Possibility to live in a dormitory	43.1 %	31.5 %

Speaking about the quality of the studies the undergraduates are more likely to see the importance of the acquisition of classical knowledge, diversity of optional study subjects, possibilities at least one semester to study abroad, the focus on the transfer of knowledge, and the convenient schedules. On the other hand, the postgraduates much more emphasize the acquisition of professional and general competencies, at least part of the time to be taught by the professionals of a certain field, instead of the academic professors, the preponderance of self-study learning, inexpensive meals and the possibility to get the dormitory.

Conclusions

(1) The most important criteria choosing studies for both the undergraduate and the postgraduate students is the studies of high-quality. The second most important criteria for their choice is different for two groups: for the undergraduates it was the demand of the profession, for the postgraduates – an inexpensive studies. (2) Both undergraduate and postgraduate students agreed that the mostly responsible for the quality of studies are professors, followed by the administration. The least responsibility for the quality of studies the undergraduates give for social partners, the postgraduates – for the students. (3) Both groups agree that the high-quality higher education institutions are the ones that have excellent human resources. For the undergraduates it is also important, that the university would be acknowledged publicly. (4) The most preferable concept of quality of studies for the both group of students is the quality as fulfilment and/or exceeding client's needs. (5) The undergraduates more than the postgraduates see the value in the acquisition of classical knowledge, diversity of optional study subjects, possibilities at least one semester to study abroad, the focus on the transfer of knowledge, the convenient schedules, inexpensive meals, and the possibility to get the dormitory. The postgraduates more than the undergraduates emphasize the acquisition of

professional and general competencies, at least part of the time to be taught by the professionals of a certain field, instead of the academic professors, and the preponderance of self-study learning.

Suggestions

It is proposed to explore systematically, in various aspects the attitude to the quality of studies of students of different study areas.

It is worth to do a research which compares the changes of attitudes of the undergraduate students' towards the quality of studies while they study year after year.

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Chapter 5: Assessment of future social workers preparation for functioning as facilitators

VALDONE INDRASIENE & JUSTINAS SADAUSKAS

Introduction

The role of the facilitator is important in the social work practice. According to scientists (Gamble and Weil, 2005; Weil, 2005), a social worker, when working with members of a community, first of all performs the function of the facilitator – brings people together and develops the process through which they may present their ideas and transform them into an action plan.

The goal of the facilitator's activity is orientated towards the adoption of an optimal group decision based on participation of the members of the group. According to Pierson (2008), the facilitator must step over the mistakes, which occur in adoption of group decisions, generate conflicts and interfere with a creative decision.

Social workers, as facilitators, act engaging community members: parents into the school community, into the activities of the day centre, different members of community into adoption of community decisions.

The role of the facilitator enables the social worker to organize group work. In terms of psychology, facilitation actualizes participation of other persons and is understood as the activity process where the pace and the efficiency of personal activity depend on participation of other person (or of a group). At the same time it is the process and the whole of abilities and skills which help to organize investigation of a complex problem or of a conflict situation efficiently, with the minimum time consumption (Indrašienė, 2009).

When performing the role of the facilitator, the social worker deals with groups within the environment of the organization or of the community, enhancing communication, initiating meetings, contributing to the development of a plan. He/she put efforts in obtaining required resources, providing information, aiming at objectives (Zastrow and Kirst–Ashman, 2009). When adopting group decisions,

one of the facilitator's functions is to provide people with the conditions to speak out what they think (Pierson, 2008). According to the scientist, the key function of a facilitator is to step over the problem of making group decisions, when people do not say what they really think. The facilitator assists the group in awkward, tricky work situations, in dynamic processes working with different and conflicting positions (Pierson, 2008).

Wilson (1997) associates the role of the facilitator with a search of free connection between the professional and the client function: the social worker becomes an escort, an assistant rather than a know-all planner. The ability of the worker to use the knowledge possessed by local people, their motivation and attitudes is a pre-condition for occurrence of the community feeling and ownership and is the guideline for the neighbourhood-based services.

The function of the facilitator to be stressed is stimulation via which people identify their needs and objectives, develop the strategies for implementation of those objectives as well as develop their competences during this process (Ronby, 1995).

Thus, the facilitator's role is associated with the function of the social worker to initiate social processes which allow taking active and constructive activities when solving problems. Social workers, when performing the role of the facilitator, increase the capacity of people for planning, leading, setting priorities, analysing economic and social conditions, achieving resources, fighting against unjust and non-democratic government.

The goal of the presented research is to analyse the readiness of the future social workers to perform the functions of the facilitator in the community. The methods of the research: literature review, written survey, qualitative content analysis, statistical data analysis.

Theoretical background

Expression of facilitation abilities in social work. The term "facilitation" origins from the Latin "facilitare" – 1) to make easy or easier; 2) to help bring about; facility - 1) easiness 2) fluency (language); 3) ability, favourable conditions. Facilitation is a psychological phenomenon, manifestation of inter-personal relationship among people within a group, which is understood as extinction of psychological barriers, increase of individual activeness and efficiency because of the presence of other people nearby (Psychology wordbook, 1993, p. 82). According to Indrašienė, (2009), the term

“facilitation” most frequently is understood as a social-psychological phenomenon and is associated with efficiency of personal activity. In social terms, the efficiency, pace and quality of personal activity are pre-determined by the presence of other person or by a competition situation. Frisov (2007) under “facilitation” names the way of professional influence by which the social worker encourages formation of a new relationship between the client and social systems.

Scientists (Harvey, et al., 2002) point out that the abilities required for performance of the facilitator’s role seem like a mix of personal characteristics, inter-personal relationships and the ability of group control (Figure 5.1).

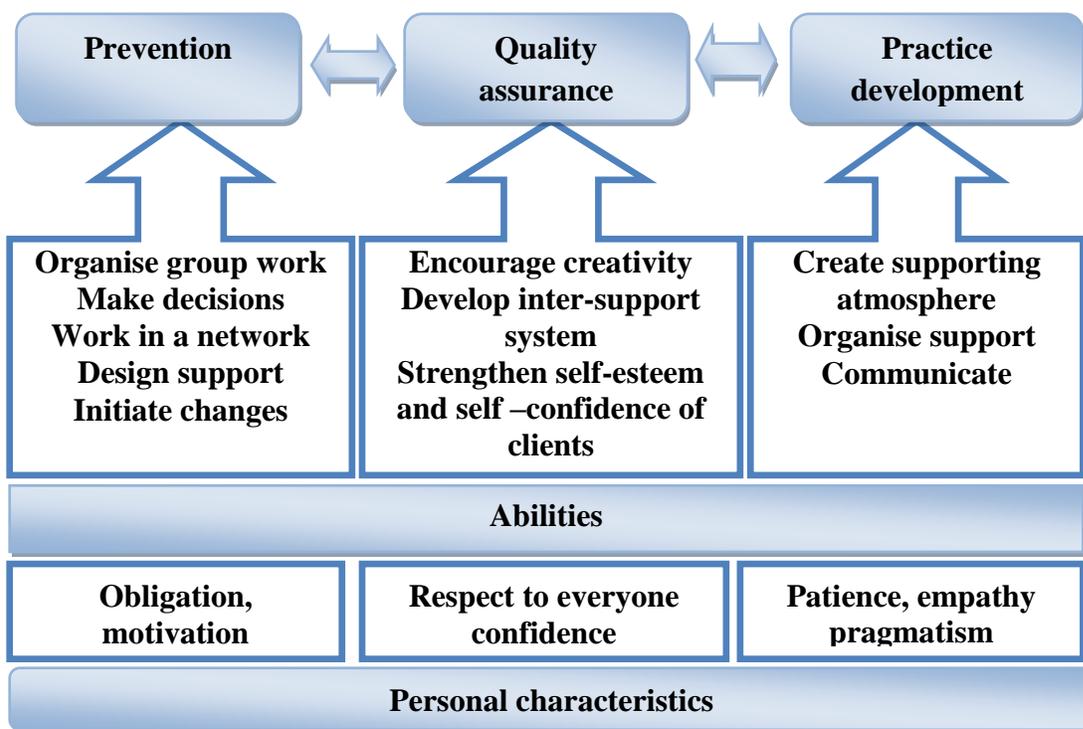


Figure 5.1. Abilities and characteristics significant for an efficient facilitator (*made according to Harvey et al, 2002*).

According to statements of DuBois et al (2007), social workers are responsible *for safeguarding of group activity*. The following abilities are used for this purpose by the workers: group conceptualization and initiation; development of inter-assistance system within the group; creation of

inter-action between the group and its environment; initiation and creation of new relationships between the client and the social systems.

According to Knox (2011), the facilitator must know the group which he or she works with, to know how to prepare the surroundings for the meeting of the group, the processes of the group development and the steps, various techniques, which ensure efficient work of the group (brainstorming, focus group method, snowball method and etc.). Developing a mutual assistance group the social worker organizes a group consisting of people with similar needs. Sometimes the idea of group creation comes from the need to solve the social problems of the community identified by the social worker, or from the suggestions of the local community leaders. According to the researches, it includes development of the suggestion, obtaining an approval for the activity of the group from the financing organization, assessing and selecting potential members, guiding the group members towards the goal and group processes (Corey, 2011).

When the group starts its activity, the social worker, as the facilitator, assists the group members in their socializing. The key abilities of the social worker in this phase are *conflicts settlement, facilitation of decision-making, encouragement of creativity*. Scientists indicate that facilitation is an essential ability aiming at involvement of citizens into the community and participation in it. Kolb and Rothwell (2002) identify the *ability to efficiently control the dynamic processes of the group and to settle conflicts* as the key abilities of the facilitator, besides of the already mentioned ones. According to Indrašienė (2009), the facilitation process requires the whole of abilities and skills, which enable to organize efficiently the investigation of a complex problem or of a conflict situation with the minimum time consumption.

According to Kaner et al (1996), the facilitator is able to *help to disclose one's thinking*. His/her key goal is to step over the problem of group decision-making, when people do not say what they really think. Pierson (2008) notes, that an important ability is the ability to conduct community meetings. The worker shall be able to prepare the space for those meetings, the meetings of residents should be informal, smaller discussion groups might be helpful in involvement of greater number into the development of the action plan. According to the scientist, the abilities of the social worker as of the facilitator are the best disclosed conducting community meetings in places where people distrust each other. Therefore the social worker – facilitator shall:

- Understand the objectives of the meeting and control time;

- Involve all participants of the meeting into discussions;
- Answer for democratic decision-making (Bobo et al, 2001).

The community worker shall have abilities required for involvement *of the community into decision - making*, e.g.,: by organizing exhibitions, preparing surveys and interviewing people, organizing *focus* groups.

The facilitator shall have *the ability for active listening*: to show his/her interest in outgivings of members of the group and adequately react to it, to reflect on outgivings of members of the group in order to clarify what they say, so that he/she understands how the members of the group feel, he/she must know the body language, be able to settle conflict situations arising within the group (Knox, 2011).

Baker and Fraser (2005) note that the social worker – facilitator *creates and supports the involving (encouraging participation) environment*. Respect to the members of the group by recognizing the value of their opinion, their skills and attitudes, understanding that a person learns when acting are being disclosed in the facilitation process as the key value attitudes (Pierson, 2008).

Thus, a social worker, when performing the role of the facilitator, shall be able:

- To create a positive inter-action between the members of the group and the environment;
- To develop the idea ensuring the support necessary for its implementation in both inside and outside of the community;
- To involve all interested persons into the joint analysis and solution of problems;
- To strengthen the self-esteem and self- confidence of the clients;
- To communicate and to cooperate;
- To settle conflict situations which arise within the group.

Research methodology

Aiming at establishment of pre-conditions for facilitation competence development, the MRU social work bachelor’s program was analysed. The scope of the research: the description of the MRU social work bachelor’s study program; the descriptions of 56 subjects included into the program. From the structural parts of the description (the scope of the course, the goals and anticipated capacities, a brief annotation, subjects; teaching (learning) methods, requirements to attendance, the procedure for

knowledge and capacities assessment, the coordinating teacher (-s), the recommended literature, for analysis two the most important parts of the description were selected: the goals and the intended capabilities and subjects. The main issues dealt with: *How are the social workers being prepared for the performance of the facilitation function? What preconditions for development of this competence are created by the content of the study program under analysis?*

The qualitative analysis of the subjects in the social work bachelor's study program covered three basic components: data reduction, data presentation, making and checking of conclusions (Luobikienė, 2009). For data processing the content analysis method – collection and analysis of primary information – was applied with the purpose of investigation of objective, checkable amount of information. The methodologists (Kardelis, 2002; Luobikienė, 2009, Bitinas et al, 2008) defining the classical (quantitative) content analysis assert that its advantage is the possibility to analyse large size texts. The qualitative content analysis covers classification of specific information; its point is grouping of different knowledge, information into categories (Kardelis, 2002) and further analysis of those categories, connecting the features of quantitative and qualitative analysis (Bitinas et al, 2008).

Aiming at assessment of readiness of future social workers to perform the facilitation functions a questionnaire survey was used. 58 4th year students of MRU social work regular bachelor's study program who were studying optional subject of social work practice in the community were surveyed. The survey was carried out before the practice of social work in the community (September 2011) and after it (January 2012). A questionnaire was prepared for the survey. The questionnaire was constructed based on facilitation capabilities of the social worker identified in the scientific literature (DuBois et al, 2007, Frisov, 2007, Pierson, 2008, Indrašienė, 2009, Knox, 2011, Corey, 2011, Baker and Fraser, 2005) (Table 5.1).

The statistical analysis of the written survey was performed using SPSS 21 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) software. The software was used assessing and comparing the data of pre-test and post-test. For establishment of the significance of alteration Wilcoxon mark criterion was used. The selected statistical significance level $p=0.05$.

Results and findings

Preconditions for development of facilitation capabilities.

In the description of the Mykolas Romeris University social work bachelor's study program (henceforth referred to as the Program) the final goal is specified as follows: to prepare social workers with high level personal and professional competence qualified in bachelor's qualification level in social work, able to act professionally in changing areas of social life, capable to provide social services in a qualified manner, to strengthen the abilities of an individual, of a group and of a community to adjust to the environment, assisting in recovery and strengthening of social relations and integration into the society. For the achievement of the final goal the interim goals of the Program which relate to the formation of social work competences, based on knowledge, skills and values are formed. It is aimed that after completion of the Program the students achieve the following competences:

- Contact making, efficient communication and cooperation.
- Establishment, planning, provision and efficiency assessment of social support need by an individual, a family or a community.
- Enabling of clients and their groups to solve their problems on their own
- Development and organization of social projects.
- Planning of scientific research and critical thinking.
- Planning of training and professional carrier.

Thus, the goals and the results to-be-achieved are focused of the development of facilitation abilities.

During the analysis of the description of the study program subjects the following sub-categories reflecting the facilitation abilities were distinguished: the ability to create positive interaction within the group and between the group and the environment, the ability to communicate and cooperate, and the ability to settle conflict situations which occur within the group.

The abilities attributed to the sub-category of creation of positive cooperating inter-action within the group and between the group and the environment were identified in four subjects of the studies (Ethics of social activity; Methods of Social Work; Practice of Social Work with Groups; Formation and Management of Social Support Team). In the results of the above-mentioned study subjects it is provided for that the students will be able “*to create cooperating, safe environment for the social support team*”, “*to select a proper group work model which would be adequate to the goals and*

needs of clients”, “to prepare the members of a group for group work”, “to properly organize and structure group work, group work tasks and to match interventions with dynamics of the group”.

Two areas of abilities were highlighted in the sub-category of the ability to communicate: the basic and the specific (communication with different social work client groups) communication abilities.

The basic communication abilities are related to the right use of the normative language and are being developed within 3 joint university study subjects: basic communication abilities associated with correct use of the normative standard language and developed in 3 joint university study subjects: Professional Language and Language Culture); Logics and Science Methodology; Philosophy. In the descriptions of those subjects it is indicated that the knowledge of the standard language use will be provided: *“public monologue and dialogue speaking” <..> the principles of public speaking and listening“.* The abilities of *“logical, compatible and complex reasoning of one’s attitudes and world-views”, “accurate expression of ideas, grounding of one’s statements”* are in focus.

Development of basic communication abilities is distinguished only in one subject of the study direction (Social Counselling). In the definition of the results of this study subject it is indicated that *“the ability to use verbal and non-verbal communication ways”* will be developed.

The specific communication abilities (abilities to communicate with different client groups of social work) are distinguished in 6 study subjects: Social Activity of the Community; Introduction to Professional Studies; Integration of the Handicapped into the Society; Ethics of Social Activity; Social Projects and Programs; Basics of Socio-Cultural Work.

In the descriptions of subjects it is indicated that the ability to communicate *“working in a team“; “with persons of different cultures in the work area and in social environment“; “with people of different value orientation“; “with different client groups”* will be developed. It is noted that students are trained *“to establish professional relationships with social workers in the social support institutions”, “to employ the communication methods which fit for communication with the handicapped”.*

The sub-category of abilities to cooperate working in a team and network is identified in 9 study subjects (Community Social Work; Volunteership Practice; Formation and Management of a Social Support Team; Ethics of Social Work; Social Projects and Programs; Social Work with an individual; Social Work with Risk Groups; Social Counselling; Basics of Socio-Cultural Work).

In the descriptions of the above-mentioned study subjects it is noted that students are introduced to the principles of *“social partnership”, “establishment of institutional and inter-institutional teams, the principles of team work”*. In the area of values and attitudes attention is paid to the development of responsibility and partnership provisions in the solution of client problems. It is indicated that the students: *“will realize the role of the social worker and responsibilities in team work”, “will get deeper understanding of the responsibility of a social worker in the process of social counselling”, “will follow the principles of social partnership”*. It is noted that those subjects are designated for development of students’ abilities to cooperate in a team and in a network: *“with people of different cultures, with different value-orientation”, “client groups”, “within groups”, “within teams”, “on institutional and inter-institutional levels”, “with representatives of other professions”, “with social partners, institutions of culture and arts”*. Anyway, the development of partnership attitudes is emphasized just by one learning subject, i.e., Social Counselling.

One more category was identified – the ability to settle conflict situations arising within a group. The abilities *“to control conflicts arising within the group”* and *“to teach members of the group to settle conflicts”* are developed during the practice of social work with groups. In the course of Social Activity Ethics the ability *“to settle value conflicts”* was identified. In the subject of Social Work with the Family the ability *“to mediate in settlement of disagreements among family members”* is being developed. On the knowledge level students are introduced to the concepts of conflicts, their types, the ways of their control; mastering of this knowledge is declared in 2 study subjects (Practice of Social Work with Groups; Educology). Students are introduced to the models for solution of ethnic problems, they learn *“the goals, ways and methods of mediation, the roles of the mediator in settlement of disagreements among family members”*, they also learn of *“manipulation mechanisms”, “peaceful ways of conflicts settlement”*.

The continuity of development of the abilities necessary for performance of facilitator’s role in different study subjects during the entire study program implementation period was analysed. It was established that during the first and the second years of studies one subject is designated for the development of facilitation abilities each year. In the third year of studies the development of facilitation abilities was identified in the descriptions of five study subjects (Social Work with Risk Groups, Social Counselling, Basics of Social Psychology, Formation and Control of Social Support

Team, Practice of Social Work with Groups). It should be noted that during the last year of studies no expression of the development of facilitation abilities could be found in the study subjects descriptions.

Based on the analysis of the Program and its constituting subjects, a pilot study subject - Social Work Practice in the Community - including preparation of tasks package, which provide the conditions for students to develop their facilitation abilities, was prepared.

Results of self-assessment of knowledge and abilities which make the facilitation competence. The data of the students' survey, performed before the social work in the community practice, showed that during the last study year the most of the MRU regular study course students tended to assess the obtained *team work abilities* as good or excellent (n=47), but the ability *to involve all interested persons into a joint analysis and solution of problems* was assessed as satisfactory by the majority of the participants of the survey (n=36). The ability as good/excellent was assessed only by every fourth student (n=15).

This corresponds to the research performed by Gudžinskienė (2010) showing that most of the social work professionals had gained the abilities of team work, but, according to the scientist, they lacked specific social work abilities.

The results of the first diagnostic research showed that the majority of students participating in the survey assessed their abilities *of team work* (n=47), *to strengthen self-esteem and self-confidence of clients* (n=35), *to create positive inter-action between the group members and the environment* (n=33), to apply group work methods aiming at specific results (n=31) as good/excellent.

The data of the second diagnostic survey showed that the respondents give the highest assessment to *the general ability to work in a team* (n=52), the ability *to create positive interaction between the group members and the environment* (n=45), the ability *to apply group work methods aiming at specific results* (n=43).

Having completed the comparative analysis of the first and the second diagnostic researches, a positive, statistically significant ($p < 0, 05$) alteration was established self-assessing as good or excellent all facilitation abilities, except for one, i.e., *strengthening of clients' self-esteem and self-confidence*, Table 5.1).

The highest positive, statistically significant ($p > 0,00001$) alteration has been recorded in the self-assessment of *ability to involve all interested persons into joint analysis and solution of a problem:*

the number of students that assessed this ability as good and excellent after the field experiment increased from 15 to 29, and the number of those assessing as very bad, bad decreased from 7 to 2, as well as satisfactory (from 39 to 2).

The comparative data analysis allowed to register positive statistically significant ($p < 0,05$) alterations in self-assessment of the ability *to apply group work methods aiming at specific results* (from 31 to 43), *to create positive inter-action between the members of the group and the environment* (from 33 to 45), *to work in a team* (from 47 to 52). The comparative data analysis also allowed to register a slight negative alteration in the self-assessment as very bad and bad of the ability *to create positive interaction between the members of the group and the environment* (from 1 to 3) and *to strengthen self-esteem and self-confidence of clients* (from 3 to 5), though the alteration is statistically insignificant.

Table 5.1. Results of self-assessment of facilitation abilities.

Facilitation abilities	Diagnostic research	Gradation			Critical value Z, Wilcox criterion	P (significance level)
		Very bad / bad	Satisfactory	Good / excellent		
Ability to involve all interested persons into joint analysis and solution of problems	1 T	7	36	15	-3,547	0,000
	2 T	2	27	29		
Ability to apply group work methods aiming at specific results	1 T	4	23	31	-1,965	0,049
	2 T	3	12	43		
Ability to create positive inter-action between members of the group and environment	1 T	1	24	33	-2,449	0,014
	2 T	3	10	45		
Ability to strengthen self-esteem and self-confidence of clients	1 T	3	19	35	-0,947	0,344
	2 T	5	10	43		
Ability to work in a team	1 T	3	7	47	-2,308	0,021
	2 T	1	5	52		

Summarizing it is possible to assert that the most of the students during the first diagnostic research self-assessed their following abilities: to work in a team; to strengthen self-esteem and self-confidence of clients; to create positive inter-action between the group members and the environment; to apply group work methods aiming at specific results, as excellent. Organization of social work practice in the community provided conditions not just for development of those abilities, but also to develop the ability of involvement of all interested persons into joint analysis and solution of problems. The obtained conclusion could be related to the research (Railienė, 2010; Bubnys and Gudonis, 2009; Dirglienė and Kiaunytė, 2008, Eidukevičiūtė, 2011, etc.) which confirms that one of the factors which determines the acquisition of required abilities is the focus of the study content and its implementation on the harmony of theory and practice.

Aiming at effective organization of social work practice and at development and deepening of abilities necessary for this work, an important role falls on the selected practice tasks. In order to perform the practice tasks in the quality way the students had to look for the right knowledge on their own, and tried the already mastered theoretical knowledge in the practical activity situations. This is in agreement with the data of the research performed by Ivanauskienė and Cervin (2010) showing that the respondents have a chance during a training social work practice not just to check their abilities to use the achieved theoretical knowledge in practice, but also gain new professional knowledge and abilities which are important for them as for future social workers.

Conclusions

When implementing the functions of the facilitator the social worker must be able to provide conditions for increase of human capacity to plan, lead, set priorities, analyse economic and social conditions, reach resources, fight against social injustice; therefore it is important to develop not just the ability of students to apply specific methods of social work, but also the ability to apply various ways of impact which enables the clients to solve the arising problems on their own.

The analysis of the study program showed that the conditions for development of abilities to create positive cooperating inter-action within the group and between the group and the environment, to communicate and to cooperate and to settle conflict situations which arise within the group are provided for future social work professionals.

Organization of social community work practice provided conditions for the students to develop their capacities of group and team work, creation of positive inter-action between the members of the group and the environment and to develop the capacity to involve all interested persons into joint analysis and solution of problems.

Suggestions

In order to develop the students' facilitation competence it is necessary to specifically select the tasks for practice focused on the work with the group.

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Chapter 6: The Aspects of Value-based Education of Future Lawyers: the Need, Challenges and Possibilities of Legal Ethics' Studies

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Introduction

The inherent attributes of the contemporary global society are multiple crises, which originate not only from economic problems or a lack of intellectual resources, but also (and primarily) from disregard of public values and accepted ethical standards. Lawyers bring significant contribution to the protection of these values for their main functions are the assurance of the rule of law, justice, human rights and freedoms, legal security and legal certainty, the right to a fair trial and legal assistance etc. As these functions of lawyers are important not only for their clients but also for the whole society, it is important for future lawyers to develop their skills and understanding of their tasks in a wider – ethical – context (Harrison, 2009, p. 16). The necessity of value-based approach to professional activities is also stressed in the documents of the United Nations and the European Union regulating the training and conduct of lawyers. Nevertheless, the aspects of value-based education still heavily make the way to the study programs of lawyers' training, which are now dominated by the instrumental approach to law and legal education. This practice is insufficient for the achievement of historically settled goals of lawyers' training, namely the maintenance of justice and social order.

The purpose of this chapter is to reveal some relevant aspects of value-based education of future lawyers, namely the need, challenges and possibilities of studies of legal ethics.

In order to achieve the purpose, the impact of values on the identity of legal profession is discussed; the necessity of value-based legal education of future lawyers is emphasized; the need of value-based education expressed in legal documents regulating the training of lawyers is analysed. According to the experience of foreign and Lithuanian universities, challenges and possibilities of the integrated education of professional values and value-based education through specialized courses are introduced. The chapter also presents the debate on legal ethics course, reveals some aspects of the

relationship between legal ethics and general ethics, provides guidelines for the content of academic course of legal ethics and for its teaching.

The main methods of the research are systematic review and analysis, descriptive and comparative methods as well as methods of analogy, synthesis and generalization. The method of systematic review and analysis allows summing up the scientific literature on a question of the definition of concept of values and their impact on the formation of lawyer's professional identity. This method as well as the descriptive method is also applied for the analysis of regulations on lawyers' training and descriptions of courses in order to reveal the need of value-based education of future lawyers and to review the situation of the involvement of value-based approach in the curriculum. The comparison of different scientific positions, documents and teaching situations in different countries and at different universities of Lithuania helps to reveal and evaluate the possibilities and issues of teaching Legal Ethics. In order to define the concept of legal ethics the methods of systematic review, analysis and analogy are applied. These methods as well as the method of synthesis of the results of several scientific studies, regulations on lawyers' training as well as of remarks of experienced professors allows establishing the guidelines for description of Legal Ethics' course. The method of generalisation is applied in order to formulate main statements of the research and final conclusions.

The Impact of Values on the Formation of Lawyer's Professional Identity: Theoretical Approach

There are a lot of definitions of the concept of values. Summarizing the ideas of various authors (see Schwartz, 2012, p. 3-4; Parashar et al., 2004, p. 144) suggest that the values standardise the personal behaviour (micro level) and collective relations (macro level). Therefore, they can be defined as *guidelines* for mentality and action of individuals and society. Values also refer to what is good, right, desirable, virtuous (moral) and serve as *evaluation criteria* for mentality and action at both levels. Thus the values are essential for the maintenance of personal security and stability of social organizations.

Values are classified on various bases. For instance, the Rokeach Value Scale consists of two sets of values: 1) terminal values, which refer to desirable end-states of existence; 2) instrumental values, which refer to preferable modes of behaviour, or means of achieving the terminals (Parashar et al., 2004, p. 144). Values also can be personal and social. "Personal values refer to goals and ways of

behaving that individuals can strive for in their daily lives <...>. Social values refer to the goals that the individuals would like their society to achieve <...>” (Parashar et al., 2004, p. 145). Then professional values can be considered as instrumental social values since they standardize the socially valuable practice of professionals and thus they serve as instruments that help to achieve the terminal social value - the sustainability of the society.

According to V. Luizzi (1993), the profession includes *inter alia* “1) special obligations to the public <...> 5) a special relationship between the members of the profession and their clients <...> 7) expectations that its members assume roles of leadership” (p. 75). We usually expect the lawyer to respect the rule of law, to improve the law and increase access to it, to practice law in the public spirit etc. In addition to these responsibilities, the professional identity of a lawyer is also influenced by “the perceptions and expectations of others (clients, colleagues, opposing counsel, the other side, third parties, family, and friends); her practice area; her place of employment; the market conditions; and, of course, her personal circumstances as well as other facets <...>” (Wald and Pearce, 2011, p. 412-413). For example, the public expectation the lawyer to be directly involved in maintaining justice not only in exceptional public service moments, but also in her daily operations (Simon, 1991, p. 66). According to Wald and Pearce (2011), “All of these commitments, perceptions, and values — both personal and professional — form and shape lawyers’ professional identity” (p. 413). Therefore, the legal and ethical professionalism is not restricted to the knowledge and application of the code of professional ethics (conduct). Of course, when we ask whether a particular act of a lawyer is “unethical”, we usually ask whether the act violates the code of ethics. But at the same time another important question becomes relevant, namely, whether the particular solution of the problem corresponds to the public expectations and doesn’t violate fundamental social values. Although codes of ethics reflect a relatively strong consensus in the context of the legal profession on that what lawyers are supposed to do when faced with certain types of tensions and dilemmas, they may not meet the individual’s decisions whether a particular situation is moral (Lerman and Schrag, 2008, p. 4). Therefore the value-based education – a methodical effort towards learning basic facts about humanity and cultivation essential values in students so that the society can be sustained and further developed – is relevant for the training of future lawyers and development of their professional identity.

The Need of Value-based Education of Future Lawyers and its Expression in Lawyers' Training Regulations

The value-based approach to the professional activity of a lawyer follows from the very essence of conception of law and justice, which reveals its' normative, as well as value-based character. Thus for the maintaining justice – the essential value of sustainable society – and its' administration, the future lawyers are required to have not only particular knowledge or skills, but also the promotion of values. Law schools play a constitutive role in formation, modification and development of personal and professional values. American legal education researchers confirm that studies at law school make significant impact on students' values. Unfortunately, this impact is not always positive. For example, R. Stover's study revealed that, in some cases, graduates of law schools become less altruistic and inclined to work in the public interest (see Pearce, 1998, p. 734).

According to C. J. Menkel - Meadow (1991), "Law teachers cannot avoid modelling some version of "the good lawyer"; thus, they cannot avoid teaching ethics" (p. 3). However, if this teaching is spontaneous, fragmentary and not unified, it can debase the important personal and professional values or determine their misunderstanding. Therefore, it can be stated that the consistent value-based education is important element not only of moral, but also of legal education.

The importance of values is also stressed in *Recommendation on training outcomes for European lawyer* of Council of Bars and Law Societies of Europe (hereinafter – CCBE). CCBE (2007) states: "Adherence to the principles and values of the profession allows lawyers to serve, in the best possible way, both the interest of their clients and the public interest in the promotion of justice and the upholding of rule of law at the same time" (p. 4). However, this document does not specifically state to what values should the lawyers adhere. Yet it refers to national codes of conduct and leaves the specification of values to the national legislators.

The main requirements for the legal studies are regulated by *The Description of the Course of Legal Studies* approved by the order of the Minister of Education and Science of the Republic of Lithuania (2010). Herein *inter alia* are established the common goals of legal studies. Among them is the development of ethical qualities necessary for the legal practice. Then the acquired knowledge, cognitive, practical and transferable skills are listed. Here the practical skill of ethical professional

conduct and transferable skill to be impartial, sensitive for influence of other individuals and environment, ability to reconcile divergent interests are enrolled (para. 6.1, 12.5, 13.5, 16.4, 17.5)²⁶.

The new draft of *Description of the Course of Legal Studies* (hereinafter – the Draft) pays more attention to ethical problems. The Draft emphasizes the importance of the paradigm of the profession, including ethical, moral behaviour standards and the principles of legality and justice as well as protection of human rights to be reflected on the content of law study programmes (para. 29.4). However, the detailed analysis of the Draft from the perspective of value-based education and teaching of professional ethics reveals some problems. Firstly, it is unclear, why there are established different requirements for law studies at university and college (e.g. para. 42.5; 47.5). Secondly, it should be noted that graduates could manage to assess critically the activities, knowledge and values of other persons (the goals set in para. 35.1, 40.1.) only if they have knowledge, understand the meaning of values and foster them. In other words, the skill of critical evaluation cannot be developed if student has no necessary knowledge and own moral values.

Although the Draft emphasizes the importance of lawyer's practice to legal system and the whole society and the need for ethical studies, there is no direct approach to value-based education and no explanation concerning acquirement of knowledge and skills necessary for solving of ethical problems in the above-mentioned documents. Still it does not mean that higher schools ignore value-based education of future lawyers.

The Implementation of Requirements Set in Lawyers' Training Regulations: Possibilities, Experience, and Issues

There are several possibilities for the implementation of the requirements set in regulations of lawyers' training. For instance Phoenix School of Law has integrated the value-based education into speciality subjects. They have designed the General Practice Skills course (2006), which is composed of seven modules such as Law Office Organization and Management, Family Law, Wills and Estates Law, Criminal Law etc. Every module *inter alia* has the same objective – to train the skill of

²⁶ Order of the Minister of Education and Science of the Republic of Lithuania. *Official Gazette*, 2010, No. 102-5306.

recognizing and solving ethical dilemmas and to develop at least two professional values from the list identified by respondents to the Arizona Bench and Bar as important or essential (see Gerst and Hess, 2009, p. 523-526). For instance in the Criminal Law module the conflict between duties of a lawyer to the court and duties relating to confidentiality of communications with a client are analysed. The Personal Injury module emphasizes ethical and professionalism issues which arise in the context of the relationship among lawyers during discovery and in settlement negotiations, etc. (see Gerst and Hess, 2009, p. 537-538). Thus throughout each module the module coordination team which consists of practitioners and scientists raises ethical dilemmas that commonly arise in the practice and selects the means to emphasize values and professionalism for their module. Sometimes they are incorporated into examples and scenarios used in the module. At other times, the faculty team makes values a point of discussion with the class or incorporates them into behaviour modelling tasks etc. (see Gerst and Hess, 2009, p. 513-557).

However, usually the value-based and ethical education is concentrated on special subjects. As G. Andrasi (2013) notes, the universities of United Kingdom (hereinafter - UK) provide separate module which is concerned with the ethical content of the law and thus they implement the requirements of The Quality Assurance Agency for Higher Education, which assess the quality and standards of higher education institutions and the subjects that they offer. This special module usually is the one of Legal Theory, Jurisprudence, Philosophy of Law, Law and Ethics, Legal Ethics etc. Influential UK legal ethics scholars share their experiences, teaching ideas and material, support each other in solving problems of legal ethics via specialized web sites (e.g. UK Centre for Legal Education (<http://www.ukcle.ac.uk>), International Forum on Teaching Legal Ethics and Professionalism (<http://www.teachinglegalethics.org/>) etc.). The situation is similar in the United States (hereinafter - US). It is interesting to note that, in contrast to the experience of European countries where academic accreditation is entrusted to specific bodies, the recognized accrediting agency of programs in US legal education is the Council of the Section of Legal Education and Admissions to the Bar of American Bar Association. The apparent result is practice-oriented lawyers' training programmes the important part of which is teaching legal ethics, because ethical problems are obviously important for accrediting agency. Therefore it is not surprising that legal ethics is included in the curriculum as a compulsory subject (Andrasi, 2013).

Law degree programs are carried out in three Lithuanian universities: Vilnius University

(hereinafter - VU), Vytautas Magnus University (hereinafter - VMU) and Mykolas Romeris University (hereinafter – MRU). Although these universities do not have as deep traditions of teaching legal ethics as the countries of common law system (namely UK and US) have, there are several related subjects. The analysis of descriptions of study subjects reveals, that students discuss ethical context of law during the course of Problems of Jurisprudence (VU, undergraduate studies), Legal Ethics (VMU, graduate studies), Ethics in Law (MRU, graduate studies), Philosophy of Law (MRU, graduate studies), Professional Ethics (MRU, graduate studies), Ethics of Pre-Trial Investigation (MRU, graduate studies), Lawyer’s Ethics (MRU, postgraduate studies, specialisation of Civil Justice). However, the analysis of the descriptions of these courses and the comparison with situation in UK and US concerning teaching legal ethics also reveals (a) the lack of clear position concerning the content of these subjects and their status in the curriculum; (b) the absence of clear relation of these subjects to value-based education; (c) the lack of legal theorists and practitioners who would be interested in ethical problems of law and legal practice; (d) the absence of support for those who are interested in ethical problems in the practice of law (there are no special websites, very few Lithuanian literature etc.).

Debate on Legal Ethics Course: Some Aspects of the Relationship between Legal Ethics and General Ethics

Titles of the courses concerned with ethical context of law differ. For example, in the US this course is usually called Professional Responsibility, Lawyer’s Profession, Legal Practice and Ethics, Lawyer’s Ethics, Legal Ethics etc. J. G. Hylton (2009) argues that if law schools focuses more on the moral conduct of lawyers and clients, it is better to use the title of Legal Ethics for this course. However such an approach is rejected by S. Kanišauskas (2004), who argues that in all cases where we can use the concepts of moral or conduct, it is inappropriate to use the concept of ethics (p. 100). He believes that if we still want to use the concept of ethics when we talk or write about all sorts of “professional ethics”, it is better to use such linguistic structures as “ethics in public administration”, “ethics in public service”, etc. and, accordingly, “ethics in law” (p. 108).

Considering these ideas, however, it should be noted that the titles of Ethics in Law and Legal Ethics, can reveal two – broader and narrower – approaches. The broader approach is concerned with

ethical problems and the related problems of legitimacy, which occur in particular legal system (e.g. abortion, euthanasia etc.). However, German professor D. Pforden (2013) also calls this ethical approach to law as legal ethics (*Rechtsethik*) and considers it as an important part of legal philosophy. According to him, this kind of legal ethics analyses the question: “Which law is the just one?” and it can be considered as a part of legal sciences (p. 13-16). The narrower approach puts more emphasis on professional values and procedures, which must be followed by lawyers while performing their functions and which, in turn, can also find their justification in certain ethical theories. In other words, legal ethics in narrow sense is concerned with particular professional values, specific ethical theories and ethical issues solving procedures, which are characteristically applicable in law and legal practice (on the procedural nature of legal ethics and it’s possible impact on general ethics see V. Luizzi, 1993, p. 9).

Legal ethics, in turn, has micro and macro levels. At the micro level legal ethics is commonly perceived as minimum standards for adequate behaviour within the legal profession (Black’s Law Dictionary, 2004, p. 913). In other words, here legal ethics focuses on professional ethics in terms of the roles and responsibilities of individual lawyers (in this case the study subject may be titled as Professional or Lawyer’s Ethics). Meanwhile, at the macro level legal ethics is perceived as ethics of a legal system, i.e. “an ethics that functions at the institutional interface of law and society and explains the values underpinning legal processes and structures” (Webb, 1998, p. 135-136). It can be seen as a product of public needs and expectations, which reflects relevant public traditions and values and goes beyond the institutional dimension of professional ethics to the ideals that “seem to correspond to Fuller’s “inner morality of law” – the principles of justice and due process implicit in the concept of law itself” (Webb, 1998, p. 135-136).

Therefore, if according to Kanišauskas (2004), ethics as moral philosophy sets itself the task to investigate the nature of morality, the essence of moral evaluation and moral functions of society (p. 106), it can be said that legal ethics explores the relationship between law and morality, reveals the inherent morality of law, the impact of moral assessment on law (legal decision-making), the moral functions of law and lawyers in a society.

Legal Ethics as a Study Subject: Possible Content, Teaching Challenges and Methods

According to D. Rhode (2007) the proper objectives of courses concerned with ethical problems of law and legal practice are these: 1) to build understanding of the meaning and content of legal standards and regulatory processes governing lawyers' conduct; 2) to help students recognize and analyse ethical issues in light of those standards and broader moral frameworks; 3) to train students' capacity for reflective judgment. A final objective of these courses is "to encourage future lawyers to think more deeply about the kind of life they want to lead, the profession they want to serve, and how both can contribute to their vision of a just society" (p. 1046).

As J. Webb points out, the development of an ethical curriculum in legal studies faces with five key challenges (see more: Webb, 1998, p. 137-141). One of them is concerned with the transition "from seeing the right to doing right" (Webb, 1998, p. 139). This challenge is related to the interdisciplinary nature of legal ethics and the difficulties to balance between law and ethics as moral philosophy. According to J. Webb, in teaching legal ethics it is easy to get locked into either: (a) a defensive professional ethics that "may ensure some degree of technical compliance, but little deeper appreciation of the issues and values involved, or of the extent to which ethical action is inevitably underdetermined by the rules"; or (b) a "pure" philosophy that is remote from professional practice" (Webb, 1998, p. 139). Of course, the code of ethics (conduct) "provides members of a profession with standards of behavior and principles to be observed regarding their moral and professional obligations toward one another, their clients, and society in general. The primary function of a code of ethics is to provide guidance to employers and employees in ethical dilemmas, especially those that are particularly ambiguous" (The Free Dictionary, 2013). However, no code can foresee every ethical problem that may arise in the practice of law (Encyclopaedia Britannica, 2013). In addition, it is noted that the reliance of legal education upon teaching the professional rules in particular, would actually stunt a lawyer's moral development. Rather than encouraging students to form a professional ethic of "continuous self-reflection in terms of one's own personal values", study of the rules as the catalogue of roles and duties emphasizes the group's norms and expectations. This rejection of any self-determined values in favour of a minimalist group-ethic only deepens the divide the young lawyer already feels between his fundamental values and those he will be living by in his profession (Fredricks, 2006, p. 144). According to S. A. Fredricks (2006), lawyers who understand the importance

of their professional activities not only for their clients, but also for the whole society, should not view their conduct in amoral or morally neutral terms. On the contrary, “a responsible lawyer must have his own fundamental values reinforced, or even sharpened, by the profession rather than undermined and dulled” (p. 144). Therefore, it can be said that legal education at university should continue the moral education launched by a family and school and reveal moral values expressed in professional behaviour, as well as to develop students’ ability to solve moral dilemmas arising while practicing law.

After an analysis of this and other challenges J. Webb (1998) comes to the conclusion that it is not enough simply to ensure that students have argued about law and morality in jurisprudence classes and are familiar with the conduct rules and able to apply them. “It demands that we seek to develop the morally engaged individual, prepared to question whether she has done enough under and, perhaps, beyond the law” (p. 141). This requires to ensure equivalence between law and ethics and to go beyond the studies of professional rules (micro level), to pay attention to importance of personal values of future lawyer and their impact to the education of professional values. For this purpose students must be provided *inter alia* with knowledge and understanding of ethical theories as well as with rules of professional conduct and to be capable to apply them in legal practice. Thus, for instance, the course of Legal Ethics may start with discussion on law and morality as regulators of social conduct; the problems of the relationship between law and ethics in theories of natural law, legal positivism, legal realism and virtue jurisprudence; the impact of legal ethics on legal consciousness and legal culture of a lawyer. Then the value-based fundamentals of lawyer’s professional activity, the peculiarities of the qualification of modern lawyer as well as the issues of the lawyer’s public image and their causes should be analysed. Afterwards the basics of moral reasoning (including main ethical theories) in law as well as models and stages of ethical decision making should be provided. Finally the application of these theoretical basics should be taught while discussing rules of the codes of professional ethics (conduct) and solving the most frequent and difficult problems such as conflicts of interest, issues of impartiality and confidentiality, conflicts between interests of client and the public interest, discretion and the problems of its application, misuse of the status of a lawyer, corruption etc.

The effective legal ethics teaching also requires that a professor should not attempt to persuade students of a particular philosophical position, but also she cannot be agnostic or vacuously suggest “anything goes” (Woolley, 2011, p. 5-6). The main task of the professor in this case is to develop students’ ability to reflect on moral issues and make ethical decisions. According to A. Woolley (2011)

legal ethics' professors need to make sure that their students know what the law governing lawyers requires of them, are aware of the type of errors into which their intuitions might lead them, and are capable to distinguish between normatively justifiable responses and those that are not. "But most fundamentally, we need to help each student be the type of lawyer that makes sense for her" (p. 51-52). That requires introducing legal ethics theories in a clear, undogmatic way, applying experience-based and student-centred teaching methodologies (group-work, contextual teaching, role-playing etc.), video material, literary portraits etc., enabling students to take the role of moral decision-maker, in conjunction and collaboration with others doing the same thing, and thus to understand the meaning of professional values and to develop ethical decision-making skills which are necessary for legal practice.

Conclusions

1. Professional values can be considered as instrumental social values since they standardize the socially valuable practice of professionals and thus they serve as instruments that help to achieve the terminal social value - the sustainability of the society.

Society expects a lawyer *inter alia* to be directly involved in maintaining justice and related values not only in exceptional public service moments, but also in daily operations. Thus public expectations make the professional and personal values equally relevant to lawyer are professional identity and value-based education can be considered as an important element of training of future professionals.

2. The necessity of value-based approach to professional activities is also stressed in international and international documents regulating the training and conduct of lawyers. However, none of the analysed documents specifies what values should be developed, how skills of professional ethics should be acquired. Therefore it can be stated that universities have a broad discretion in the implementation of the requirements of these documents.

3. Lithuanian universities provide the opportunity to acquire and to develop skills, necessary for ethical problems solving, during studies of specialized courses. However the course descriptions reveals the lack of tradition of teaching these courses: the absence of a clear position concerning the place of these courses in the curriculum and their content, the need for consistent guidelines of value-

based education and of legal theoreticians and practitioners who would be interested in ethical issues, the demand for professional and methodical support.

In general terms, legal ethics explores the relationship between law and morality, reveals the inherent morality of law, the impact of moral assessment on law (legal decision-making), the moral functions of law and lawyers in a society. Therefore, Legal Ethics' teaching requires to ensure equivalence between law and ethics and to go beyond the studies of professional rules, to pay attention to importance of personal values of future lawyer and their impact to the education of professional values.

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Chapter 7: Influence of Economic Home Factors on Student Achievement

JOLITA DUDAITE

Introduction

Research of quality of life, as a separate area of research in social sciences, was introduced in 1960. In the international context, interdisciplinary approach was introduced in the research and assessment of quality of life by including economics, psychology, sociology, health sciences and other disciplines. The research, which has been carried out for more than half a century, still has not provided an unambiguous concept of quality of life. Quality of life is generally considered as a level of satisfaction of certain needs as a whole (e.g., demographic, health-related, related to safe environment, economic, cultural, spiritual). Scientists keep on discussing the methodological criteria for the assessment of the quality of life and choice of indicators of quality of life.

In Lithuania, research on quality of life has expanded over the last decade, particularly in health sciences and sociology. However, analysis of quality of life is particularly rare in education field. Therefore, education field was chosen for this research. Since the concept of quality of life is wide and covers several dimensions, only one of them – economic home factor – was chosen. Moreover, one of the tasks set was to measure the connection between economic home factor and the learning achievements of the students.

It is important to analyze impact of this indicator on the learning achievements. In every country, on which we can have data, the learning achievements of students are positively correlated with indicators of their parents' socioeconomic status. This pattern has surprised many scholars, with early contributions in sociology by, for example, J.Coleman (1966) in his report, and in economics by, for example, G.Becker (1964). The topic has also arisen frequently in policy debates, and most democratic societies have adopted policies aimed at reducing the impact of family background on student achievement (Björklund, Salvanes, 2010). Although the topic is classical in social science,

there is no doubt that research in this area has intensified during recent decades, not least thanks to better data having become available to researchers: for example, international studies of IEA TIMSS, IEA PIRLS, OECD PISA.

The data on the correlation between student achievement and home environment raises a few key questions: how important is economic family background for the learning achievements of the students? Is family economic status a major or a minor determinant of student achievement? These questions are important to be answered for each country, as each country has different home and school contexts.

The purpose of the chapter is to measure the influence of economic home factors on student achievement in Lithuania. The object of the research is the influence of economic home factors on student achievement.

Theoretical background

It is well established in the scientific literature that socioeconomically disadvantaged students do less well on learning achievement compared with their more advantaged peers (Perry and McConney, 2010). Studies in numerous countries have shown that the socioeconomic profile of family background is strongly correlated with student achievement (Fan, 2012, Martin et al., 2012, Mullis et al., 2012b, OECD, 2010a, OECD, 2010b, Dudaitė, 2010, House and Telese, 2007, Papanastasiou, 2006, Kiamanesh, 2004, O'Connor-Petruso et al., 2004, Broeck, 2004). Such findings regarding the contribution of student home environment to the learning achievements of students were received in various disciplines (Anders Y. et al., 2012, Mullis et al., 2012a, OECD, 2010b, Dupere et al., 2010, Stubbe and Buddeberg, 2008, Falaye, 2006, Eljio and Dudaitė, 2005, Brečko, 2004, Diepen et al. 2004, Geske, 2004). Chiu and Xihua (2008) examined the data on 107,975 students concerning home effects on student mathematical achievement across 41 countries. Students scored higher in richer countries, with higher family socioeconomic status, more books, cultural possessions, or cultural communication. On the other hand, the results received by Marks, Cresswell and Ainley (2007) showed that material home resources have a substantial impact on the learning achievements only in a small minority of countries.

Concerning various aspects of home background there are some different results, particularly in regard to information technology. For example, Vigdor and Ladd (2010) conclude that the introduction of home computer technology is associated with modest but statistically significant and persistent negative impacts on student's scores in mathematics and reading tests. The main results of the research of Malamud and Pop-Eleches (2011) indicate that home computers have both positive and negative effects: children had significantly lower school grades but demonstrated better computer skills. The results received by Drechsel and Prenzel (2008) showed only negative impact of having and using computers on student achievement.

Very strong positive link with student achievement was received by analyzing the case of books at home. The results of many researchers show that the more books student has at home, the higher learning achievements he or she reaches (Stubbe and Buddeberg, 2008, Arora and Ramirez, 2004, Marcoulides et al., 2004). According to the results received by Brečko (2004) not only the quantity, but also the type of books is important. The results of the said survey also showed that student achievement is related to the possession of a study desk, computer, calculator, student's own room; there is a link (stronger or weaker) between all these variables and student achievement.

Davis-Kean and Pamela (2005) analyzed relationship between the income of parents and the learning outcomes of their children and concluded that parents' income indirectly relates to children's achievements through parents' beliefs and behaviors. Parental income allows better educational resources at home.

Other authors state that student socio-economic status has a profound impact on their attitudes in school. Students having high socio-economic status seek higher learning achievements as compared with students having lower socio-economic status (Osa-Edoh and Alutu, 2011). This is in line with the results received by Agulanna and Nwachukwu (2009) which show that parents having high socio-economic status reward and motivate their children in their academic success and give them encouragement to enjoy learning. The attitude towards learning also have the strong relationship with student achievement (House and Telese, 2007, Dudaitė, 2008). It means that family background can have both direct and indirect impact on student achievement.

The research findings of Mohamadkhani, Ghasemizad, and Kazemi (2011) indicated that there was a significant and positive correlation between variables of social capital and the student's quality of life. This means that socio-economic home factors are related with the quality of life.

The data on the relationship between student achievement and socio-economic home background raise the following important questions: how strong is the impact of economic family factor on the learning achievements of the students in Lithuania? What impact do different home background variables have on the learning achievements?

Socio-economic factor can be described in various ways. In this paper, only economic home variables are taken into consideration.

Research methodology

The questionnaire and test methods were used in the research. Research instruments: tests on scientific, mathematical, and reading literacy, consisting of close-ended and open-ended questions; questionnaire consisting of close-ended questions. All tests were prepared not based on the school program for the particular grades. All tests consisted only of general literacy issues.

Sample consisted from students of the 8th and 10th grades took part in the survey. The analysis covers the influence of economic home factors on the learning achievements of the students of the 8th and 10th grades by various aspects. 846 respondents from 197 schools were chosen for the survey: 426 students of the 8th grade and 420 students of the 10th grade. Type of sample of schools: systematic sampling. Schools were selected according to school location, school type and size. The sample encompasses schools of different location, all types and sizes. Type of sample of students within schools: simple random sample. Data analysis methods: regression analysis, factor analysis, Cronbach Alpha. Data were analyzed using SPSS software package, version 15.

The survey was based on free-will principle. The survey was conducted at schools (at the learning environment of students), in the classrooms, during instructional time.

Results and findings

Economic home factor was estimated by the method of factor analysis of the student questionnaire results (KMO=0.8, $p < 0.001$, Cronbach Alpha=0.75). The following regression equation (1) was calculated to estimate influence of economic home factor on student achievement:

$$\text{Combined literacy score} = 476 + 43 \cdot (\text{economic home factor}) + e, p < 0.001, R^2 = 0.23 \quad (1)$$

Combined literacy score was calculated by combining mathematical, scientific, and reading literacy scores. The average of the scale in which the calculation was carried out – 500 points. The regression equation is visually presented in Figure 7.1. As we can see, the relationship between economic home factor and student achievement is very strong. At the lowest values of economic home factor, average student achievement score is 380 points, while at the highest values of economic home factor, it reaches 650 points. This shows strong influence of economic home factor on student achievement.

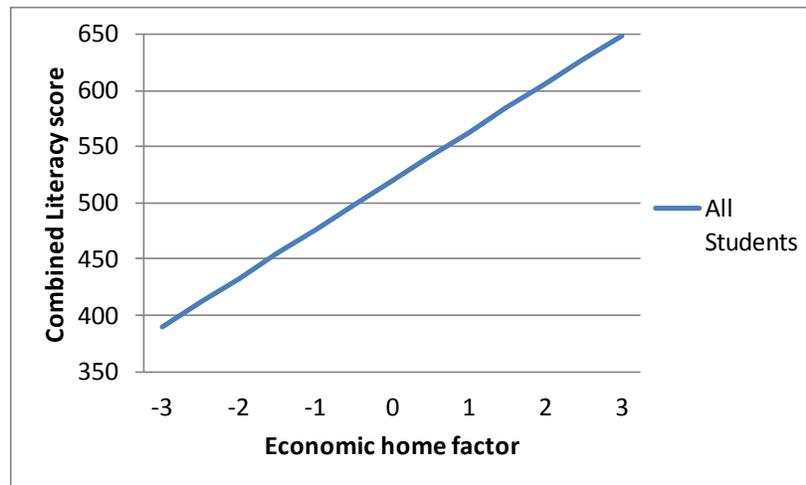


Figure 7.1. Relationship between the *economic home factor* and *students' achievement*.

Comparison of the results between the genders is also significant. The following regression equations (2) and (3) were calculated to find out whether economic home factor has different influence on the learning achievements of girls as compared to boys (the results are visually presented in Figure 2):

$$\text{Combined literacy score (girls)} = 489 + 41 \cdot (\text{economic home factor}) + e, p < 0.001, R^2 = 0.22 \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Combined literacy score (boys)} = 464 + 46 \cdot (\text{economic home factor}) + e, p < 0.001, R^2 = 0.25 \quad (3)$$

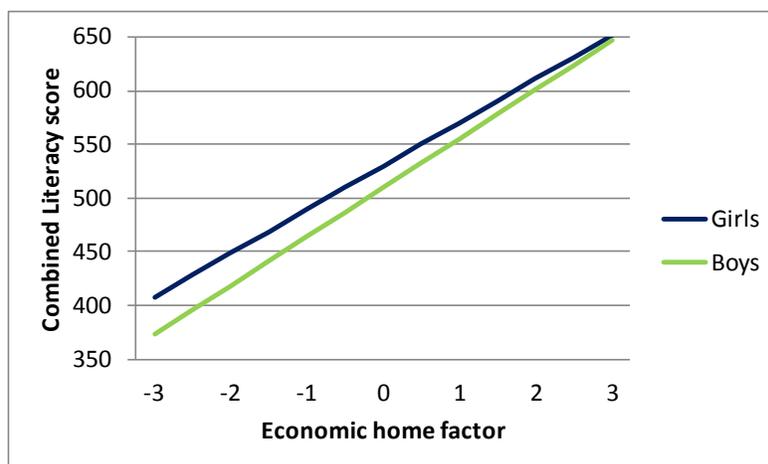


Figure 7.2. Relationship between the *economic home factor* and *students' achievement*. Difference between girls and boys.

As we can see, influence of economic home factor on the learning achievements of girls and those of boys slightly differs; stronger influence of economic home factor on the learning achievements was observed for boys. With poor economic home conditions, learning achievements scores of boys differ from those of girls by 70 scale points, while with good economic home conditions average scores of girls and those of boys are equal. International research studies on student achievement (TIMSS, PIRLS and PISA) each time show that in Lithuania average achievement scores of girls are higher than those of boys (OECD, 2010a, Mullis et. al., 2012b). The results of this research also prove this fact: average score for combined literacy (mathematical, scientific, and reading literacy) of girls – 475 scale points, boys – 451 scale points. However, Figure 7.2 shows that difference in results between the genders exists only with poor economic home conditions. In terms of good economic home conditions, average learning results of girls and those of boys are equal. So we may conclude that in Lithuania economic home situation has stronger influence on boys than on girls.

Comparison between the grades is also important in order to find out whether economic home factor has different influence on learning achievements of students of different grades. Equations (4) and (5) and Figure 7.3 show that in terms of different grades, there is no difference in influence of economic home factor on the learning achievements of student. Since literacy tests provided to the students were not related to the learning course of specific class, it is thus no surprise that the results of the students of the 10th grade were considerably higher than those of the students of the 8th grade;

however, in terms of the impact of economic home factor, the study results of each grade show similar increase.

$$\text{Combined literacy score (8}^{\text{th}} \text{ grade)} = 443 + 32 \cdot (\text{economic home factor}) + e, p < 0.001, R^2 = 0.17 \quad (4)$$

$$\text{Combined literacy score (10}^{\text{th}} \text{ grade)} = 520 + 33 \cdot (\text{economic home factor}) + e, p < 0.001, R^2 = 0.14 \quad (5)$$

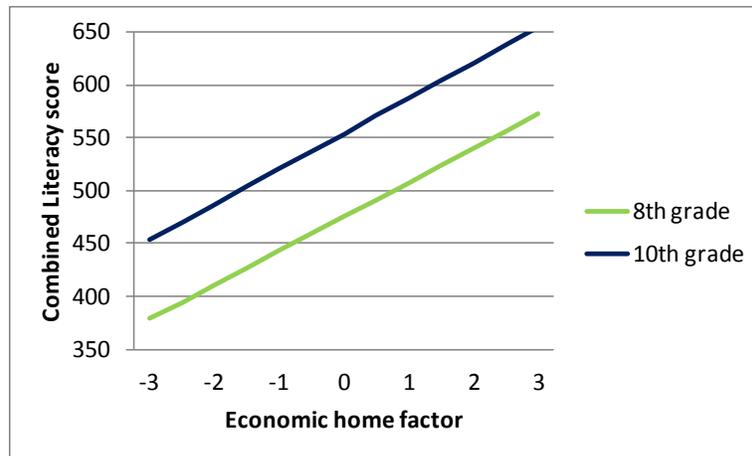


Figure 7.3. Relationship between the *economic home factor* and *students' achievement*. Difference between the 8th grade and the 10th grade.

Analysis of influence of economic home factor on student achievement in separate learning subjects (scientific, mathematical, and reading literacy) shows that economic home factor has slightly less influence on scientific literacy scores (see Table 7.1).

Table 7.1. Relationship between the *economic home factor* and *scientific, mathematical, and reading literacy* achievements. Difference between girls and boys, students of the 8th and 10th grades (only β_1 coefficients and R^2 are presented, x means *economic home factor*).

Score= $\beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x + e$	All students		Girls		Boys		8 th grade		10 th grade	
	R^2	β_1	R^2	β_1	R^2	β_1	R^2	β_1	R^2	β_1
Scientific Literacy	0.20	<u>41</u>	0.18	39	0.22	44	0.14	31	0.11	31
Mathematical Literacy	0.22	44	0.21	42	0.24	47	0.18	35	0.12	32
Reading Literacy	0.20	43	0.21	41	0.23	46	0.13	31	0.15	37

Comparison between girls and boys in terms of influence of economic home factor on learning achievements in different subjects in all cases shows the same result – influence on learning achievements of boys is stronger than on those of girls. This reflects the results provided in Figure 7.2.

The result of comparison between the 8th and 10th grades in terms of influence of economic home factor on the learning achievements is not homologous; therefore, we cannot state that influence on learning achievements of students of some grade is stronger than that of another.

In order to analyse which aspects of economic home conditions have stronger influence on student achievement, factor analysis was carried out, thus revealing 4 more detailed economic home factors which are as follows (KMO=0.8, p<0.001, all factors are standardized to have a mean of 0 and variance of 1):

Table 7.2. More detailed economic home factors.

Factors	Variables
Material Wealth (MW)	DVD, dishwasher, digital camera, MP3 player, at least 2 TV
Personal Space (PS)	Personal room, study desk, place to study
Information Technology (IT)	Computer, learning software, the Internet, personal cell phone
Books and Works of Art (BA)	Over 100 books, poetry, classical literature, additional textbooks, dictionary, works of art

Relationship between these 4 factors and student achievement by various sections is presented in Table 3. The table shows that BA factor has the strongest positive influence on student achievement, while PS factor makes the least positive influence on student achievement. MW factor has negative influence on student achievement. For the estimation of this relationship, the following regression equation (6) was calculated:

$$\text{Combined literacy score} = 477 + 41 \cdot (BA) + 32 \cdot (IT) + 11 \cdot (PS) - 10 \cdot (MW) + e, p < 0.001, R^2 = 0.33 \quad (6)$$

Comparison of influence of these factors on learning achievements in different subjects showed that BA factor has the strongest influence on the reading literacy achievements. IT factor has the most influence on mathematical literacy achievements and the least influence on reading literacy

achievements. PS factor demonstrates the strongest influence on reading literacy achievements. MW factor has the least negative influence on mathematical literacy achievements.

For the estimation of these relationships, the following regression equations (7), (8) and (9) were calculated:

$$\text{Scientific literacy score} = 484 + 39 \cdot (BA) + 31 \cdot (IT) + 11 \cdot (PS) - 10 \cdot (MW) + e, p < 0.01, R^2 = 0.29 \quad (7)$$

$$\text{Mathematical literacy score} = 488 + 38 \cdot (BA) + 36 \cdot (IT) + 10 \cdot (PS) - 7 \cdot (MW) + e, p < 0.05, R^2 = 0.31 \quad (8)$$

$$\text{Reading literacy score} = 465 + 46 \cdot (BA) + 27 \cdot (IT) + 13 \cdot (PS) - 12 \cdot (MW) + e, p < 0,001, R^2 = 0.32 \quad (9)$$

Comparison between the genders showed that IT factor has stronger influence on learning achievements, mathematical literacy achievements and even reading literacy achievements of boys than those of girls (see Table 7.3). BA factor demonstrates stronger influence on reading literacy of boys as well. PS factor has stronger influence on scientific literacy scores of boys.

Comparison between the grades showed that influence of factors on student achievement is approximately identical in the both grades (see Table 7.3). Regarding different subjects, the results show that reading literacy of the students of the 10th grade is more influenced by BA and IT factors, scientific literacy – PS factor. IT factor has much stronger influence on mathematical literacy achievements of the students of the 8th grade than on those of the 10th grade.

Table 7.3. Relationship between more detailed economic home factors and students achievement by various sections (sign “–“ means that there is no statistical significance).

	Score= $\beta_0 + \beta_1 \cdot x_1 + \beta_2 \cdot x_2 + \beta_3 \cdot x_3 + \beta_4 \cdot x_4 + e$, at least $p < 0,05$	All students	Girls	Boys	8 th grade	10 th grade
Combined Literacy Score	R^2	0.33	0.31	0.35	0.24	0.24
	β_1 (Books and Works of Art)	41	39	40	31	34
	β_2 (Information Technology)	32	30	34	26	25
	β_3 (Personal Space)	<u>11</u>	11	12	9	10
	β_4 (Material Wealth)	-10	-8	-8	-8	-7

Scientific Literacy	R^2	0.29	0.26	0.31	0.25	0.30
	β_1 (Books and Works of Art)	39	38	39	38	39
	β_2 (Information Technology)	31	30	33	30	33
	β_3 (Personal Space)	11	9	13	9	13
	β_4 (Material Wealth)	-10	-10	-9	-10	-9
Mathematic Literacy	R^2	0.31	0.30	0.32	0.25	0.17
	β_1 (Books and Works of Art)	38	39	39	29	27
	β_2 (Information Technology)	36	34	38	32	26
	β_3 (Personal Space)	10	10	9	8	-
	β_4 (Material Wealth)	<u>-7</u>	-9	-	-	-
Reading Literacy	R^2	0.32	0.28	0.32	0.21	0.26
	β_1 (Books and Works of Art)	46	40	44	35	42
	β_2 (Information Technology)	<u>28</u>	27	31	19	25
	β_3 (Personal Space)	13	13	13	13	11
	β_4 (Material Wealth)	-12	-	-10	-11	-9

Conclusions

1. Economic home factor, as one of the dimensions of the quality of life, has strong influence on student achievement.

2. Comparison between the grades (the 8th grade and the 10th grade) showed that economic home factor has the same influence on the students of both grades. Comparison between genders showed that economic home background has stronger relationship with boys' achievements than with girls' achievements.

3. Books and works of art factor has the strongest positive influence on learning achievements of the students, while personal space factor has the weakest positive influence on student achievement. Material wealth factor has negative influence on student achievement.

4. As for the books and works of art, the strongest impact was observed for reading literacy, especially for reading literacy of students of the 10th grade. Regarding information technologies, the

strongest impact on the learning outcomes was observed for the mathematical literacy, especially for mathematical literacy of students of the 8th grade.

Suggestions

In Lithuania quality of life research in education field just started. Therefore, no data is collected on the quality of life in relationship to student achievement. It is important to understand the impact of economic home factor on elementary school student achievement, and on high school student achievement. Also it is interesting to know, whether books and works of art factor remains the strongest factor and personal space factor remains the weakest factor influencing student achievement of all grades, whether influence of material wealth factor on student achievement is always negative. It is possible, that economic home factor has stronger relationship with learning achievements of primary school students than with learning achievements of high school students.

It would be useful to carry out comparative study on students of other grades and to compare the received results with the results of this research by the same sections. This would help to answer the question whether economic home factor has the same influence on learning achievements of students of all grades, whether the learning achievements of boys of all grades are more influenced by economic home factor as compared to girls, and whether influence of material wealth factor on student achievement is always negative.

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Chapter 8: Lithuanian Teachers' Qualification Development in the Context of Lifelong Learning

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Introduction

Global world determines transformation of the society, changes in the concept of modern school and the roles of teachers engaged in the education process. Schools, as well as other public life fields face new challenges and teachers often are not able to tackle the problems due to lack of relevant competences; in view of this, they have to constantly pursue lifelong learning and be ready for change. The development of a process and system of adult education has gained a particular importance in the world, and in Lithuania. As part of the Lisbon Strategy, the European Union has set the goal of raising the number of adults participating in lifelong learning (Dromantienė et al, 2009, p.6). In the context of lifelong learning the activity of an educator as an object/subject of education is especially noticeable. According to T.R. Guskey (2004), changes in the organisational school structure, joint decision-making process and encouragement of parents/community to become more active participants make educators reconsider their job tasks and culture of their workplace. In order to facilitate this process and ensure a successful accomplishment of new roles, educators of all levels shall develop their qualifications.

The scientific literature (Miller, 1999; Helmke, 2012 and others) frequently considers a variety of issues on lifelong learning and teachers' qualification development; the perspectives of pedagogical activity are often discussed globally without considering national peculiarities. This determines the key question of the survey: how teachers develop their qualifications in different countries?

Theoretical background: Reform of the Lithuanian Education system

In Lithuania teachers' qualification development is a constituent part of the education system. When considering Lithuania's education as a cultural and social phenomenon, it is important to note that education reform has commenced before the restoration of Lithuania's Independence. In other words this reform has become one of the prerequisites for restoration of Independence of the State. In 1988, the reform of Lithuania's education started. The principles of reformation of the Lithuanian education system were declared to be national affinity, democracy, humanity and change.

The Concept of Education in Lithuania declared back in 1992 marked the transformation of values and paradigms, i.e. transition from the classical to free educational paradigm. According to P. Radó (2003), it was a transition from the command to the demand-driven system. K. Trakšelys (2011) says that taking account of social, economic and political changes, it was necessary also to reorganise social institutes, including the education system which has great influence on an individual and plays a very important role in personality development.

The reform sought to reach specific goals. The main goal of the educational reform is an independent and creative individual, whose full potential emerges in school. Educational reform should help an individual flourish in social and cultural spheres and cultivate his/her cultural identity and understanding that he/she is not only a consumer of native culture, but also a creator responsible for the development and preservation of nature. Educational goals: to help an individual discover universal human values and base his/her life upon them; to foster the abilities of a critically thinking person to evaluate existential questions, make responsible decisions and act independently; to foster an individual who is prepared for professional work, determined and able to adapt to an ever-changing social and economic environment and participate in its betterment, to develop an individual's national and cultural consciousness; to develop an individual's democracy values; to raise awareness of Lithuanian citizens) based on the key national and European cultural values (The absolute value of an individual, neighbourly love, innate equality of all human beings, freedom of conscience, tolerance, and affirmation of democratic social relations. At the core of a nation's independent and full-fledged life is an individual who is educated in the spirit of educational reform, is mature and dedicated to the new historic period of national development, is able to make independent decisions, is active member of the society, bases his/her worldview on national and key human values, is able to competently and

responsibly participate in the creation and development of a democratic society and the state)(The Concept of Education in Lithuania, 1992).

The educational reform in Lithuania started before the restoration of Independence in 1990; it consisted of the following phases:

- 1st phase (before restoration of the Independent Republic of Lithuania, i.e. before 11 March, 1990): the concept of a national school was presented at the end of 1988; Lithuanian teachers, scientists, and artists pooled their energies in an effort to create new curricula, textbooks, and educational materials based on the unique national culture; the theoretical basis for the educational reform (types of schools, educational content) and legal documents (laws governing education, school regulations) has been drawn up.

- 2nd phase (until 1998): the administrative structures (the Ministry of Culture and Education, regional departments of education) are reorganized; the beginning of restructuring of vocational schools and colleges; changes are implemented in the higher education system (reorganisation of undergraduate and graduate studies, adoption of the law on science and studies); the law governing education in the Republic of Lithuania enacts the conceptual regulations of the educational reform and creates a legal basis for the restructuring of the education system; a uniform permanent Lithuanian educational system is created. It covers formal and informal education, an expanded network of public and private educational institutions.

- 3rd phase (1998-2003): the results of the beginning of the reform are evaluated and summarised; the structure, curricula and textbooks are revised and amended.

- 4th stage (2003-2012): on 12 November 2002 the Parliament of the Republic of Lithuania passed the resolution approving the Long-Term National Development Strategy. The Strategy projects development of Lithuania as a future EU member state and identifies three priority areas: knowledge society, secure society and competitive economy. The role of education in the above developments is instrumental. As Lithuania is striving to establish itself in the West, education should contribute to the strengthening of creative powers of society, protection and development of the identity of the nation, nurturing the mature civil society, increasing employment and competitiveness of the market, reduction of poverty and social exclusion.

Adult education policy in Lithuania is shaped in accordance with the functioning laws and strategies, i.e.:

- *The Republic of Lithuania Law on Education* (Lietuvos Respublikos Švietimo įstatymas 2011), which establishes that the goal of education is to ensure conditions which enable a person to acquire the basics of civic and political culture that embody democratic traditions, and to develop the abilities and experience a person needs to be a competent citizen of Lithuania, as well as a member of the European and global community and a member of a multi-cultural society;

- *The National Education Strategy Guidelines for 2003-2012 (Švietimo strategija 2003)*, which stress that the mission of education is to assist a person in acquisition of a professional qualification which conforms to modern technological standards as well as the culture and individual abilities of a learner, to provide for lifelong learning that permanently satisfies a person's need for cognitive stimulation, to seek new competencies and qualifications that are instrumental for a person's career advancement and realization of a meaningful life;

- *The Lifelong Learning Strategy (Mokymosi visą gyvenimą strategija 2008)*, which aims to foresee and define areas for the development of lifelong learning and measures for implementing these goals, with a particular emphasis on professional training and adult continuous learning.

It is obvious that teachers are the key factors determining the development of the education system and teacher training system. Changes in the education system and society determine new requirements for profession of a teacher. Pursuant to the multiple research (Prenciple, Helwing, 2002, p. 841-856; Malinauskienė, Augienė, 2007, p. 30-35; Rutkienė, Zuzevičiūtė, 2009, 95, p. 53-57 and others), teachers are more often required not only to convey the basic knowledge but also to help young persons pursue independent studies, i.e. acquire relevant skills rather than memorise information; teachers are encouraged to use more constructive and cooperation-based teaching methods; they are expected to be mediators rather than supervising instructors. In the knowledge society the activity of a teacher also undergoes changes: a teacher as a possessor/conveyor of knowledge is being replaced by a teacher - organiser of learning, creator of learning opportunities, supporter, advisor, partner, and mediator between a student and various modern knowledge resources. According to V. Tumėnienė and B. Janiūnaitė (2002, p. 43) today teachers are not leaders anymore, they are rather advisors, supervisors, researchers, learning promoters and consultants.

According to T.R. Guskey (2004), changes in the school's organisational structure, joint decision-making process, and involvement of parents/community make educators reconsider their work tasks and culture of their workplace. In order to understand and successfully accomplish the new tasks,

educators of all levels shall upgrade their qualification. The need to develop teachers' qualification was stipulated in the Lithuanian educational documents (Implementation of the National Education Strategy, 2012) defining strategic trends of the second phase of the educational reform.

The scientific object under analysis: teachers' qualification development.

Aim of the Article: to reveal peculiarities of qualification development in Lithuania in line with the lifelong learning provisions.

Research methodology

The paper presents the data of the empiric survey accomplished in April 2011. The survey was performed by applying the strategy of case study based on the theoretical social constructionism, participation, and hermeneutic approaches. Content analysis and meta-analysis methods have been applied during the survey. It included the analysis of the legal-functional environment, and the analysis of the practices applied in the Lithuanian institutions providing qualification development services.

Results and findings

Demographic factors (e.g., the preponderance of older people) have caused people to stay in the labour market longer, and both the rapid development of technologies and the increase in required information necessitate continuous learning. As a member of the European Union, both the Lithuanian government and its citizens face many challenges and must acquire the ability to meet new responsibilities. The development of in-service training has become very important in order to stay in employment and to successfully pursue a career (Dromantiene, Zemaitaityte, 2010, 183). According to M. Fullan (1998), today the teachers are required to be committed to the common moral goal – to change the life of children; to upgrade the knowledge of pedagogics; to understand the connection of moral school goals with the educational policy and public development issues; to be able to communicate with other teachers, administration, parents and society; to participate in a wider learning activities; to develop inquisitive habits and skills; to thoroughly investigate the secrets, success and calamities of a complex and changing environment during the process of change. Such a holistic vision of a future teacher could be achieved only by an individual who is able to change constantly.

A new learning paradigm based on the lifelong learning principle determines new requirements for a teacher: the ability to work in various learning environments, disseminate new ideas, evaluate knowledge and achievements, develop computer literacy skills and search for new teaching methods etc. (Laužackas, Gedvilienė, Tūtlys, Juozaitienė, 2008, p.29). For Lithuania as member of the European Union it is important to ensure high quality education where the teacher plays a vital role and where all possible conditions are created for teachers' professional development. Pursuant to the 2009 European Council Conclusions (2009/EC 302/04) on the Professional Development of Teachers and School Leaders, it is essential not only to ensure that those recruited to teaching and school leadership posts are of the highest calibre and well-suited to the tasks they have to fulfil, but also to provide the highest standard of initial education and continuing professional development for teaching staff at all levels. The Council of the European Union asks Member States to make available sufficient opportunities for continuous professional development aimed at meeting those needs and in turn ensuring a positive impact on pupils' learning outcomes.

Thus, teachers' qualification development is determined by the two main factors: the external necessity, i.e. the environmental requirements, and an individual's internal motivation, determination, and conscious perception to pursue and plan own career (Gedvilienė, Laužackas, Tūtlys, 2010, p. 17). The external factors determining qualification development of teachers are demographic-social changes, development of information technologies, educational reform etc. Whereas personal motivation, interests and initiative, active participation of teachers in school's life are subjective factors related to the tailored career planning of teachers.

In Lithuania qualification development of teachers is regulated by the national legal acts creating the prerequisites for a continuous qualification development. Pursuant to the analysis of documents regulating the sphere of qualification development of teachers, qualification development is perceived and implemented as a system of organisational and financial measures promoting cooperation of educators and providing the opportunities for each teacher to evaluate own professional activity, plan professional development and acquire new material, including creative testing of new methods and equipment.

According to the survey data, qualification development of teachers is organised and pursued by the Ministry of Education and Science, higher education institutions, the institutions subordinate to the Ministry of Education and Science, municipal administrations, qualification development institutions

(educational centres, institutes of continuous studies etc.) and free teachers having the right to pursue qualification development programmes for teachers. Although in principle the function of qualification development is decentralised, i.e. handed over to the municipal educational centres and non-governmental organisations, the Ministry of Education and Science is still responsible for the priority setting and resource allocations. The main institution responsible for the formation and coordination of the qualification development system and authorised by the Ministry of Education and Science is the Education Development Centre.

Pursuant to the legislation, research conclusions and the analysis of good practice examples of the EU Member States, the theoretical basis of a new model (Dačiulytė and others, 2013) for the development of qualification of teachers prepared in Lithuania in 2012 is based on the following theories and principles:

- Constructivist theory, pursuant to which a teacher is considered to be an active, constantly learning, able to plan his/her activity, reflect on it, develop and change actions depending on a specific situation and context;
- Systems theory, where the system of qualification development of teachers is perceived as an open system where the changes in one part of the system determine the changes in another part of the system;
- Mesirov's transformative learning theory where the aim of learning is independent thinking. At the core of transformative learning is the process of critical reflection on the experience;
- Consistency and individuality, i.e. the approach to learning as a long-lasting process during which the acquired knowledge is reflected and connected with a new knowledge providing for the development of new skills and experiences;
- Contextuality, i.e. the observance of a certain specific context taking account of a specific workplace of a teacher, the environment (classroom, school etc.) and national social-economic trends;
- Constructive communication, i.e. cooperation between a teacher and pupils (children and adults); other educators (teachers, parents); education managers, education administrators, education politicians and other stakeholders;
- Holistic approach, where qualification development of teachers is treated as a continuous development and the entire career.

- Change, when irreversibility of changes in the qualification development of teachers is recognised (decentralisation, establishment of regional educational centres, diversity of providers of teacher qualification development services, substantiation of qualification development by competences etc.);
- Sustainable prioritisation, i.e. evaluation of the coherence of various priorities (individual and institutional, regional and national, national and international);
- Renewal: international trends (globalisation, mobility, possibility to change profession, diverse careers etc.);
- Systematic approach: changes are anticipated for a longer period taking account of all organisational levels;
- Accessibility of services: qualification development services must be accessible to all educators in all Lithuanian regions;
- Dynamism and flexibility: the system complies with the constantly changing public needs and has a variety of forms;
- Self-determination: every teacher is free to choose the required qualification development services;
- Principle of equal opportunities: every individual is provided with the opportunity to develop or acquire new qualification;
- Continuity: the system is flexible, open and based on the interaction of various forms and institutions; it creates the conditions for every individual to pursue lifelong learning.

Besides, the aim of the teachers' qualification development model in Lithuania was to ensure coherence with the essential attitudes of the lifelong learning strategy (to establish the mechanisms for the evaluation and recognition of competences acquired via non-formal and informal learning; to establish competence-based modular professional qualification acquisition and upgrading programmes, and to anticipate their contribution to certain qualifications; to establish and improve training programmes for the improvement of professional specialisation; to establish the mechanisms allowing small companies to establish learning consortiums, propose learning opportunities to own workers similar to those which could be provided for the workers of large and more prosperous companies; to develop a differentiated regional structure for lifelong learning; to implement a quality assurance system based on the internal and external audit in all educational system sectors).

Development of teachers' competences and changes are the main indicators of the transition from one career phase to another. Unfortunately, so far Lithuania has no stable competence distribution system. According to the analysis of the scientific literature, it is expedient to specify the following fields of competences of teachers and specialists providing assistance to pupils: didactic, general and subject. Another important aspect of qualification development of teachers in the context of lifelong learning is professional development. It is based on the criteria of complexity (to describe the nature of activity, task diversity and level of responsibility), independence (to describe the changes in the organisation of activity and in the nature of subordination), and variability (to describe the changes in the technological and organisational environment of the activity). By retaining the existing order, in Lithuania the phases of the development of teachers' career are related to qualification categories (teacher, senior teacher, teacher-supervisor and teacher-expert).

Transition of a teacher from one career phase to another is related to the certification procedure which is not mandatory today, although experts recommend making it mandatory irrespective of the individual career ambitions. This would provide for a more objective assessment of the available competences and define the guidelines for further development. Certification could be treated as generalisation of the qualification development process and as necessary formalisation. Yet, in these processes a teacher shall receive professional support from a school consultant, school or municipal methodical groups, and from school leaders.

Conclusions

Qualification development of Lithuanian teachers is an open and decentralised system. The country has an efficient and extensive network of institutions related to qualification development of teachers; provision of qualification development services is organised, executed and coordinated at national, municipal and institutional levels. The function of qualification development of teachers is handed over to the municipal educational centres and other organisations; however, the Ministry of Education and Science still performs the functions of priority identification and resource allocation.

Taking into account the principal provisions of lifelong learning, establishment of the qualification development system in Lithuania is directed toward active engagement of teachers in the qualification development process where they are provided with the opportunity not only to satisfy

their professional expectations but also to take full responsibility for the implementation of qualification development process and for a continuous upgrading of qualification. In Lithuania teachers are encouraged to plan/develop their professional career by making the use of a favourable environment and the conditions provided by the Ministry of Education and Science, municipalities and other participants of the process of teachers' qualification development. The model of responsibility does not give an exceptional or hierarchic role to any organisation or actor of the teachers' qualification development process, except to the teacher and school. The process of qualification development of teachers is directed only to the above mentioned main actors.

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Chapter 9: Integration of Gender Aspect into the Research and Teaching

Content: Problems and Perspectives

AGNE JURCIUKONYTE

Introduction

Today scientists of various science disciplines are being more and more encouraged to integrate gender dimension in the methodologies and content of their research. One of the cornerstones of this attitude is an effort to ensure the excellence of science and the quality of its results. Also it can be viewed as a pathway towards more socially responsible science and technologies as it should improve the quality of life both for men and women globally.

Seeking to enhance the global and European scientific potential and the input of science into the development of knowledge economics, more attention is paid to the measures helping to improve gender balance in science and to create equal opportunities to the scientists of both genders to reveal their talents. Also the aim is to ensure the higher quality of the science and technology results to better meet the needs of society, i.e. end-users of both genders.

In the scientific literature devoted to gender issues in science it is possible to trace three main approaches to this subject. As Schiebinger, Schraudner points it, the ‘three approaches to gender equality taken by policy makers, institutional administrators, and scientists and engineers over the past three decades can be summarized like this: 1) fixing the numbers of women in science, medicine, and engineering; 2) fixing research institutions by removing barriers and transforming structures; 3) fixing knowledge by incorporating gender analysis into basic and applied research’ (Schiebinger, Schrodner, 2011). In the latter approach gender is treated as a dimension of the quality of research process and application of its results to the markets.

The integration of gender dimension into the research of various science disciplines is based on interdisciplinary point of view as gender analysis with help and knowledge of gender experts, the representatives of gender studies, is suggested to be intertwined with traditional/conventional

methodologies used in particular science disciplines. As a basis for this perspective the motives of science excellence and high quality of research are used. These motives are being institutionalised by science policies as well as science funding priorities.

The new methodologies proposed by gender experts for other fields of science are introduced in a form of specific projects (most remarkable example is “Gendered Innovations” project) providing the specific methods, questionnaires, steps and toolkits for the scientists for the integration of gender dimension into the design of their research. It is stated that integration of gender aspect should involve all the stages of the research: setting up its priorities, funding decisions, choice of research aims and methodologies, data collection, evaluation of its results and transfer of the ideas to markets. In this article the perspectives and problems of this most innovative attitude towards gender in science will be.

Theoretical background

Most of the studies analyzed in this research state that it took last three decades for feminist theories to turn to the traditional ways of knowledge production and to try to trace its gendered pathways and patterns leading to the partly validate and correct results of previously conducted research.

Recently there could be found an increasing number of studies in various disciplines, aiming to review the traditional base of knowledge created in the science disciplines ignoring the gender dimension of the researched object (humans, animals, cells, etc.). New studies including gender dimension rearticulate the commonly accepted gender-blind (or so-called gender neutral) methodologies, concepts and methods in various disciplines, e.g. in philosophy and law (Palazzani, 2012), in psychology (Chrisler & McCreary, 2010), migration and integration studies (Anthias et al, 2013), climate change (Alston & Whittenbury, 2013), pharmacology (Regitz-Zagrosek, 2012), mathematics education (Forgasz & Rivera, 2012), biological diversity (Schroeder & Cook Lucas, 2013), etc.

This new wave of research aims to introduce new perspective to traditional knowledge of various disciplines which continue to instruct the policies and social structures applied in contemporary societies until now. This leads to such insights as understanding that, e.g. ‘migration patterns, migration discourse, migrant experiences, migrant positions and their expectations and strategies are all gendered’

and should be studied having in mind this ‘genderedness’ as connected to other social relations of power, namely class, race, migrant status, sexuality and generation with which it intersects (Anthias et al., 2013). It is argued that ‘focusing on women as the primary object of studies or charting their experiences is as long as a male bias persists and as long as policies and practices are based on the assumption that the paradigmatic and desired international migrant is a young, economically motivated, possibly highly skilled male, and as long as the reality and the composition of migration streams worldwide is ignored’ (Anthias et al, 2013, p.2). Thus it is presumed that persisting theoretical points of view and the policies grounded on them mistreat the facts of reality, e.g., that male practices, standards and examples are applied to the migrant population the majority of which is female, as shows statistical data. Similar example can be found in the issues of climate change where new gender-sensitive research states its different impact on men and women. In this respect scientists are discussing the way research can inform policy makers and encourage action that recognises and addresses these gendered impacts and opportunities of climate change (Alston & Whitenbury, 2013).

Furthermore, the ignorance of sex and gender differences goes so far as the basic assumptions for biological and medical research. For example, in the field of pain research, at least 79% of animal studies published in the journal *Pain* over the preceding 10 years included male subjects only, with a mere 8% of studies on females only, and another 4% explicitly designed to test for sex differences (the rest did not specify) (Advancing Excellence in Science through Gender Equality, 2011, p.11).

When it comes to research in humans, the ignorance of sex and gender differences so rooted in previously conducted research are even more harmful. New studies in this field found that ‘sex and gender differences in frequent diseases are more widespread than one may assume. In addition, they have significant yet frequently underestimated consequences on the daily practice of medicine, on outcomes and on choice and efficacy of therapies. Using gender-based approaches improves the quality of medical care. Understanding differences in symptoms of myocardial infarction and help-seeking behaviour in women and men leads to a more efficient and faster therapy in both genders’ (Regitz-Zagrosek, 2012, p. v-vi). The integration of sex and gender dimension into medicine (more systematic and thorough than it used to be before), as it is stated by Straface et al., leads to presenting ‘sex and gender differences in mechanisms of disease, in pharmacokinetics, in drug development and use and in different therapeutic areas such as cardiology, neuropsychiatry, obesity and diabetes, anaesthetics and pain medication, anti-inflammatory and anti-rheumatic therapy and others’ (2012, p. 51). Even on

cellular level scientists notice that there are obvious sex differences in cell proliferation and death pathways. They say that ‘XX and XY cells analysis still needs valuable model systems. The great majority of the pathways known for researchers of this field derives from the studies on established cell lines, some of them dated more than 50 years ago, considered for their features but irrespective from their origin, i.e., from males or females. The gender perspective has poorly been considered from a cultural point of view and cells, mainly isolated cells, that provided a mass of data on the genetic and metabolic pathways driving the lifespan of the cells, have often been considered as sexually undetermined objects of study’ (Straface et al., 2012, p.51).

The price of underestimation of sex and gender differences is mostly obvious and painful when it directly impacts the health of humans and particular individual. But there are many more fields of science and social practices where similar reviewing of research methods and subjects in terms of sex and gender may lead to improved or absolutely innovative knowledge (e.g. engineering, physics, STEM disciplines). The problem is that scientists and academic community in general are unaware, hence unwilling to take up new methods and change their science cultures and research practices.

As it is noted by the historians of modern science, gender analysis has not, however, yielded results uniformly across the sciences. Instances of gender can be documented in the humanities, social science, medical and life sciences, where research objects are sexed or easily imagined to have sex and gender. The physical sciences have by and large resisted gender analysis, perhaps because of the extremely small number of people trained in a physical science and in gender studies. It may be premature to conclude, as some do, that there simply are no gender dimensions to uncover. Rather, the question of gender in the physical sciences remains open and will require sustained and careful research (Heilbron, 2012).

Even in social sciences which traditionally have the most attentive look at the societies, there is a lack of gender-sensitiveness in the research. In the toolkit for scientists of various disciplines (Gender in EU-funded Research, 2009) European Commission invites to take a closer look at gender issues even in social sciences. E.g. one of topics suggested in FP7 programme for socio-economic sciences and humanities is ‘Growth, employment and competitiveness in a knowledge society’. In this topic importance of gender dimension is emphasized this way: ‘Equal participation of and equal opportunities for men and women in the labour market are crucial for the attainment of Europe’s ambitions in this area. The reconciliation of private and professional life must be accommodated for

both sexes. Gender de-stereotyping of educational fields and equal access to education in all fields for boys and girls are prerequisites'. Another example maybe the research field 'The citizen in the European Union'. In this issue gender is also of high importance: 'There is no such individual as a 'genderneutral citizen'. Europe's citizens consist of men and women. Research on democracy, citizenship or culture which ignores the gendered dimension is likely to overlook important aspects of the research subject, miss the opportunity to identify structural inequalities, and thus contribute to letting these be reproduced'. The relevance of gender research and monitoring is stressed speaking about socio-economic and scientific indicators: 'It is of the utmost importance that sex-disaggregated statistics are collected and published, so that the knowledge base on sex- and gender-relevant issues is enhanced, meaning that gender inequities can be identified and addressed' (Gender in EU-Funded Research, 2009).

Research methodology

The issue of introducing gender-sensitive methods into all disciplines of science in this article is viewed as a transformative change which is being pushed forward both by internal agents (experts of gender studies, social sciences and humanities) and external powers (external stakeholders, i.e. governments, funding organizations, societies, markets, business and various user groups). The concept which may be applied to this situation is stakeholders theory where science, exactly as business, should put more effort to consider and integrate the interests of stakeholders in its practices and, most important, in its results and input into the development of global societies.

Another concept which lays in the basis of this article is the idea of paradigm shift. According Thomas Kuhn, American philosopher of science, a scientific paradigm guides the direction of inquiry, determines the standards of truth, and delimits the range of acceptable answers. Kuhn used the term 'normal science' to describe scientific research conducted in accordance with the dominant paradigm. Over time, Kuhn believed, 'paradigms are vulnerable to the accumulation of anomalous findings. Scientific revolutions are begun by work that breaks through the limitations of the current paradigm and accommodates the new information. Paradigm shifts occur when the larger scientific community adopts the new model, although this sometimes takes decades' (Calhoun, 2012). The call for sciences

to take up new concepts implying gender dimension can also be viewed as a call for a certain paradigm shift.

Third theoretical assumption grounding this research is the notion of science as a social institute which is defined by a system of specific values and norms, according Robert K. Merton (1973). Among the norms distinguishing the ethos of science there used to be listed such norms as impartiality, objectivity, collectivity, universality. More recently French sociologist Pierre Bourdieu revealed objectivity and impartiality as one of the most persistent myths of contemporary academia: its function is to mask the specific interests of powerful academics and communities. Bourdieu argues that the university is a site of struggles for status, control and valued forms of capital. In addition to the distribution of capital, this struggle involves the way in which capital is defined and which forms of capital are valued. Bourdieu further argues that criteria for evaluating work cannot be entirely articulated; there is always an implicit, tacit dimension. (Brink & Benschop, 2012, p. 509). Thus the way scientific community is reacting towards new social and political rhetoric concerning gender can be explained by the qualities, norms and values inherent in the social institute of science.

The research was conducted by reviewing and analysing various theoretical works from different disciplines which try to apply the new gender-sensitive methods, also by exploring studies and reports presenting the on-going processes of gender mainstreaming into science, as well as its achievements and losses. Special attention was given to newest projects and studies devoted to drafting of specific methods to be included on gender dimension in different disciplines. The issue of gender mainstreaming into science content is viewed as a problem related with management of higher education and research institutions. One of the reasons why universities' management is so slow to catch up new perspectives on gender issues is the composition of universities' managing bodies: data still show that only a small proportion of women is at the head of institutions in the higher education sector or in decision-making committees (on average throughout the EU-27. 15,5 % of these institutions are headed by women) (She Figures, 2012, p. 114).

Gender-sensitive research is using gender related terms coined in gender studies. Definitions of 'sex', 'gender', 'gender norms', 'gender relations', 'gender bias', 'gender identity', 'gendering' are introduced into research reconsidering how gender dimension could be relevant to the subject or methods of the planned research. The main idea of these terms is that if sex is a biological quality, gender is 'a socio-cultural process which refers to cultural and social attitudes that together shape and

sanction "feminine" and "masculine" behaviors, products, technologies, environments, and knowledges' (Gendered Innovations). Enacting of these terms allows to view various social practices and forms of life as built on gendering, as Dye puts it, 'the process of ascribing characteristics of masculinity or femininity, femaleness or maleness to a phenomenon (i.e., a role, position, concept, person, object, organization, or artifact), usually resulting in power and privilege, voice and neglect, or advantage and disadvantage, as drawn along the lines of sex and gender (Dye, 2010). These terms will be used in this article as well.

Gender and science: interdisciplinarity in action?

Science today finds itself in unprecedentedly changing environment and increasing societal demands towards science results, quality and social accountability. Molfino, Zucco, discussing why the role of women in biotechnology is increasing today, writes about general changes science is undergoing and distinguish between the internal and external causes of change in the practice of science: 'the internal causes have to do with the increasing theoretical, technological and practical complexity of science as a practice. The external causes have to do with the financial, institutional and societal conditions of science. [...] scientific practice has become vastly more complex. The financial, social and institutional conditions of doing science have changed. There is much more investment from corporate business, much more science policy steering on the political level and much more attention from the media and the public. Thus the societal climate with which science is confronted is more pressing and influential, both at the institutional level and in respect of relations with the public' (Molfino, Zucco, 2008, p.2-3). Being more gender-sensitive and delivering results more accurately taking into account and better meeting different needs of both genders is one of the demands of today's democratic society. Speaking in terms of stakeholder theory, it is a pressure to incorporate stakeholders' interests into the organization of science system.

Although requirements to include gender into research sounds like new demands towards science, it is quite a while that gender issues are being discussed in the history of science. Furthermore, the part of science theory and history related to gender issues is rather manifold and includes several major issues. Being closely allied with the gender studies of medicine and technology, it typically

includes the history of women in science, the science of woman (or sexual science), gender in scientific cultures, and gender in the content of the sciences (Heilbron, 2012).

The dominating male structures of power, male values and standards in science culture are mostly explained by the history of Western science. As Caprile et al. puts it, ‘Western science - its methods, techniques, and epistemologies - is commonly celebrated for producing objective and universal knowledge which transcend cultural restraints. However, with respect to gender, race, and much else, science is not value-neutral. Research has documented how gender inequalities, built into society and research institutions, have influenced scientific knowledge and technology. Gender bias in research thwarts scientific creativity, excellence, and benefit to society’ (Caprile et al., 2011, p.12).

Today the most difficult challenge is to answer ‘how gender and other related social categories and differences, such as sexuality, race and class, are relevant for the construction of democratic, non-patriarchal knowledge in science, and the construction of scientific knowledge itself. How are the theories, concepts, logics, languages and words used in science gendered? This is the most difficult area of investigation, not least as all researchers are themselves embedded and implicated in these very theoretical, conceptual and linguistic worlds’ (Advancing Excellence in Science through Gender Equality, 2011, p. 8). Gender is fundamental linguistic, cognitive and analytical category in science, healthcare, medicine and engineering. Thus certain gender assumptions remain unquestioned and not visible for academic community. The assumptions coming from the scientific environment are taken “for granted” and unconsciously impact scientific priorities, research questions and choice of methods. In such a way gender bias are transmitted into science and engineering.

The necessary condition for scientists to become aware and sensitive on this issue is the raise of critical self-reflectivity instructed by new societal and global challenges and new social accountability demands towards science that is implied by society itself. The value system of science will go through re-evaluation process only after critical self-reflectivity of scientists.

The researchers urging to mainstream gender into basic and applied research stress ‘a need for gender experts, working with scientists and engineers, to develop internationally agreed upon methods of sex and gender analysis that can serve as a baseline for understanding how gender functions in research. It is not enough simply to ‘add on’ a gender component late on in the development of a given project. Research must consider gender from the beginning. Designing sex and gender analysis into

basic and applied research requires that researchers be trained in specific methods, so that they can address gender issues where appropriate' (Meta-analysis of gender and science research, 2012, p. 155).

Thus the emerging of gender mainstreaming into science can be viewed as interdisciplinary move since the knowledge and methods of gender studies and gender analysis are proposed to be combined with other science disciplines methodologies. The need for interdisciplinary research was being reiterated since 1970s when 'advanced systems of communication, especially the personal computer, have made information in principle available to everyone. According to Jean-François Lyotard, the former privileged position of disciplines and those who practiced them are challenged by the democratization of access to them. [...] Interdisciplinarity thus attacks the balkanization of knowledge sustained and jealously guarded by the disciplines, especially in academic departments. Unlike earlier disciplines, which were intracompetitive but inherently stable, interdisciplinary forms of knowledge promote and feed on instabilities' (Heilbron, 2012).

Gender studies, one of global societal and knowledge challenges of today's world, become one of theoretical grounds of interdisciplinary imperative for sciences. Nevertheless, as some researchers note, gender studies, although having turned into a 'top-down' project featured by university presidents and science foundations alike, do not imply the so popularized interdisciplinarity into real practice of science. The concept of interdisciplinarity was popularized in relation with debates on the changing nature of knowledge, science, society, and their mutual relations. 'At least rhetorically interdisciplinarity plays an integral part in the restructuring of the modern western university as it serves as criteria of excellence in research assessment and teaching evaluation and as a rhetorical resource in the global competition of universities for prestige and funding as well as students and faculty. If universities would overcome their discipline-based structural conservatism and would recognize the emergence of a new type of knowledge, it would imply a multi-dimensional opening of the university: towards the civil society, towards other places of knowledge production, towards the cyberspace-time, towards the aim of universality, and towards a redefinition of values governing its own existence' (Hark & Wetterer, 2013, p. 279).

Despite the generous aims and widely sounding rhetoric, the interdisciplinarity seems to remain only political slogan rather than actually implied scientific practice. As Hark and Wetterer puts it, 'de facto it is difficult to submit work that covers a range of disciplines or tries to transcend disciplinary-bound perspectives. One could describe the present situation as a paradoxical juxtaposition of

“rhetorical modernization and structural perseverance”. Despite the call for interdisciplinary work articulated by research foundations and inter/NATIONAL science programs evaluation processes are organized along disciplinary lines and criteria of validation defined by disciplinary standards’ (2013, p.281).

Hark and Wetterer thoughtfully explain the reasons why gender studies do not acquire the actual power of interdisciplinary change agent in other disciplines. According the opinion of these researchers, ‘most Women and Gender Studies scholars come from the humanities and the social sciences this can – among other challenges – in practice lead to a further distancing from the sciences, medicine, and technical fields’ (2013, p. 284). Here we deal with traditional hierarchy and relations between science disciplines in the system of science formed during the long history. Today the position of social sciences and humanities are far from dominant one, and it is understandable that sciences, medicine and technological sciences struggle to accept social theoretical methods, even implied by science policies and funding schemes, as will be discussed later.

Nevertheless many researchers note that interdisciplinary research methods are the prerogative of female researchers, besides it is stated that introducing more interdisciplinary training, e.g., in engineering education might be one of ways to attract more young people, and especially more women into unpopular fields of study among women, such as engineering and other STEM disciplines (Béraud, Godfroy, Michel, 2012).

Gender and excellence in science: political efforts to integrate gender dimension in research on EU and national level

As stated by Schiebinger and Klinge (2010), rather than focusing on gender bias in scientific knowledge, current research approaches employ gender analysis as a resource to enhance scientific excellence. Gender mainstreaming in science in last decade becomes widely supported by various policy measures. The major argument of introducing gender into political agenda is the aim of excellence in science. The notion of excellence has become very influential in recent years. ‘Many research councils and other research, scientific and educational bodies have now adopted this language, in relation to evaluation and identification of “excellent” individual researchers, research teams, research centres, research clusters, research networks, and other initiatives, such as supranational and

national centres of excellence, networks of excellence, and more local institutional strong or strategic research areas. [...] Allocation of funding and restructuring of research activities is increasingly geared towards organisations and researchers assessed as “excellent”, both at European level and in individual member states. In the attempt to strengthen the European research effort, promoting scientific excellence is seen as a pivotal issue. Excellence and innovation are seen as “the key to European industrial competitiveness”, as stated in the European Commission Communication 353 (2004) envisioning the future of European research policy’ (Advancing Excellence in Science through Gender Equality, 2011, p.2-3).

Another idea implemented in gender dimension and the quality of research is a variety of ideas and perspectives used in the research. This variety can be ensured by attracting all available talents in the society. As female researchers make only minority among all the researchers (only around 33% in Europe, according She Figures, 2012) it weakens the quality of research. The ongoing process of modernisation of higher education and research implementing gender dimension into science and its policies is aiming at improvement of the quality and diversity of knowledge. ‘The insights into the close relationship between a more gender-sensitive approach to higher education and research and the resulting improvement in quality for all have made this an explicit policy target’ (Meta-analysis of gender and science research, 2012, p. 183).

The majority of researchers exploring gender mainstreaming in European and global science scenes agree that the global leader in this respect is the European Union’s Directorate General for Research. In 1999 the European Commission adopted an action plan to promote research ‘by’, ‘for’, and ‘about’ women. This objective introduced in the 5th Framework Programme (FP5, 1998-2002) aimed to integrate gender into the content of research – i.e. to examine whether biological and socio-cultural differences have implications for the objectives, methodology and implementation of research (Meta-analysis of gender and science research, 2012). New tool for gender integration into research projects, Gender Action Plan, was introduced in FP6, but discontinued for FP7.

Assessments of progress in integrating gender in the Framework Programme were carried out after the FP5 (Gender Impact Assessment) and FP6 (2002-2006) (Gender Monitoring Studies). The latter provided an overview of the reasons for the lack of understanding of what “addressing gender in the research content” means. The Studies also found evidence of a lack of willingness to consider the gender dimension. The need for a better promotion of the benefits of integrating gender into research

was highlighted, in order to achieve a greater acceptance of the concept (Marchetti, Raudma, 2010, p.174).

Despite the practical requirements for research projects on the inclusion of gender dimension, the community of researchers was not prepared to take up this initiative properly. As it is noted by Marchetti, Raudma, ‘the process had not been an easy one. Science, the scientific community and the decision makers were resistant to the gender question – science being perceived as gender-neutral. [...] even in thematic areas where there was an obvious gender dimension, such as health research or socio-economic research, it tended not to be given due consideration. [...] The integration of the gender dimension into the content of the research was hampered by two key difficulties: firstly, the concept was not that well understood and secondly this lack of understanding meant that there were challenges in identifying practical measures that could have been undertaken to address the gender aspects in the research. There was little reference to gender in the described results or the impacts of the projects’ (2010, p. 178-179).

Taking into consideration this lack of understanding among the scientists and policy executives, the formal requirements for research projects in terms of gender integration were removed (in FP7 there were no Gender Action Plans as required in FP6). As the responsible Commissioner Potočnik explained, ‘their implementation was not optimal within the Commission: there were technical problems, low gender awareness among the scientific community and also among Commission officials (which) made it extremely difficult to obtain the maximum benefit from this new instrument. On the other hand, it’s also true that the scientific community, rather than asking us to improve the implementation, wanted the GAPs removed completely.’ Indeed, GAPs were criticised as putting an additional administrative burden on projects, and this was seen as being in conflict with the Commission’s general commitment to simplify the Framework Programme procedures and lighten the bureaucratic burden’ (Marchetti, Raudma, 2010, p. 182-3). Thus it is a clear recognition of obvious resistance from both of academic community and of officials responsible for implementation of related science policy measures.

Although the refusal of Gender Action Plans maybe viewed as a step back in gender mainstreaming process, there were also obvious signs of moving forward in this direction: for the first time, the 6th Framework Programme had a specific budget for women in science activities. It marked the beginning of real actions, not only sound words or political slogans.

Under the 7th Framework Programme (FP7, 2007-2013), gender is integrated within the legal FP7 Decision that “The integration of the gender dimension and gender equality will be addressed in all areas of research”. Equal estimation of male and female realities is considered an integral part of research, ensuring the highest quality level of research. In all cases when research deals with humans as users, clients or patients gender aspect should be one of issues raised and solved by the research.

According statistical data provided by She Figures (2012), mostly advanced countries in gender mainstreaming are Scandinavian countries, especially Norway, Denmark, Finland, Sweden, also Germany and Austria. These countries include the aspect of gender into the national science and research strategies. E.g. Norwegian Research Council’s strategy states that “gender perspectives must be integrated closely into all of the different areas’ (In the Vanguard of Research, 2009). In Danish research strategy (Research 2020, 2012) there are several fields of research where the importance of gender issues is highlighted: Future energy technologies and systems, The healthcare and care sector of the future, Competitiveness, productivity and growth, Efficient and innovative welfare and prevention, Transport, logistics and living space, Education, learning and competence development.

Methods and principles of integrating gender dimension in research

The historically determined dominance of single-sex researchers and the researched (most often males) led to the prevalence of scientific standards and methodologies that still rarely take into account the differing needs of different genders and thus result in partly correct or false scientific knowledge which is harmful both in social and economic sense (Schiebinger, Schraudner, 2011, p. 154). Translating these often complex insights into readily usable methods for scientists and engineers is now emerging as the main priority for research.

Investing in gender-sensitive research allows striving for higher quality and validity of research, as many researchers state. If research takes into consideration the differences between men and women in the population which is researched the results are supposed to be more representative. Thus general categories such as ‘people’, ‘patients’, or ‘users’ do not distinguish between men and women and the research based on such categories may lead to partial conclusions, based on partial data. Gender experts claim that gender sensitive research should approach wider group of end-users in more appropriate way (Gendered Innovations). Even the research which is not directly related with human population may

have humans as end users and in this case the fact that this population consists of both men and women is also significant. Differences in gender needs, practices, roles and relations may strongly affect the use of the results of the research. Consideration of gender dimension and questioning who, how and when will use the results of research raised from the beginning of the research may help to avoid gender bias in its results.

The researchers proposing gender analysis principles note that gender issues also recur throughout the more specific parts of the research process(-es), and at all stages. These include:

- ☞ the identification of research problems, topics and priorities;
- ☞ recruitment and hiring of staff;
- ☞ work-life balance, including motherhood, parenthood, care responsibilities;
- ☞ formation and power relations within research teams and groups;
- ☞ devising of appropriate methods and methodologies;
- ☞ definition of research samples, populations, informants;
- ☞ publication and dissemination; definition of stakeholders;
- ☞ place of research activities within the context of gender relations in host science organisations; and
- ☞ assessing societal impact of research (Advancing Excellence in Science through Gender Equality, 2011, p.11).

As we can see sex and gender may have impact in all stages of the research, i.e. from choosing the priorities and developing theories to posing questions, designing methodologies and interpreting the data. An effort to check if gender dimension is relevant to the research should be implied in formulating the ideas and hypothesis, in creating the research design and methodology, in executing the research, in data analysis, in dissemination of the results. The researchers, according the gender analysis specialists, should reflect on the possible impact of gender norms on research priorities. Especially important is consideration who will benefit and who will loose of research in terms of differing gender needs both of researchers and the research subjects. In this respect a new method is suggested, i.e. participatory research design. Participatory research involves users or research subjects in tasks such as setting research objectives, gathering and processing data, and interpreting results. Participatory research typically seeks to balance interests, benefits, and responsibilities between the users/subjects and the research institutions involved (Gendered Innovations).

The process of formation of research team is also of high relevance. Inclusion of female researchers and their experience, knowledge and networks into the research team may widen and enrich research perspectives. Also it is recommended to involve gender experts who may function as outside catalyst of new gender perspectives in the research subject or methodology. It is stated as most effective way to move towards innovative thinking as it is much harder to generate new angle from the insiders' point of view.

Integrating gender dimension in curricula

One of possible ways to start changing academic community's attitude towards gender issues and to raise its gender awareness is suggested to implement gender dimension into universities curricula throughout all the fields of studies. Research on gender dimension in sciences and higher education and the effectiveness of various gender sensitive learning methods such as gender sensitive pedagogy, single-sex education, institutionalisation of gender studies and evaluation of research in terms of gender is still weekly researched: there is little systematic evidence regarding the obstacles and possibilities of combined pedagogical and curricular reform. Still it is considered as a complex of means which may improve gender sensitiveness in academe starting from the early stage students and researchers (Meta-analysis of gender and science research, 2012, p. 183-185).

The reform of curricula is necessary in terms of introducing gender issues in various disciplines as well as in terms of raising gender awareness of academia in general. The organization principles have impact not only for gender awareness level of students and future researchers, but also for the choice of study field for students of that gender which makes a minority between students and researchers in that field (e.g. female students in STEM fields). As noted by Mann, DiPrette (2012), the re-organizing of engineering professions according the frame of medicine studies with some training in the undergraduate years followed by intensive training in graduate school could possibly enlarge the number of women engineers in the field. Also these researchers state that existing gender gap in STEM fields cannot be explained only by focusing on individual-level determinants such as test scores, or job values and life goals and engineering majors. Structural changes in STEM fields are also required: 'professional schools enforce a gender-parity policy and increasingly become more selective for female students than they are for male students. The curricular structure of undergraduate and professional

education and the differing constraints they place on curricular choice may play a role in gender segregation in STEM fields' (p. 1536-1537).

The third area of changes that could improve academic sensitivity towards gender and become more gender-aware is review of learning standards, also the language and visual representations used in study process and text-books. The choice of gender-neutral terms, graphs, tables, photos, symbols and illustrations do have impact on the comprehension of the content of the learned subject. They also impact scientific practices, research questions and the ways they are answered. Scientific metaphors, terms, illustrations may be gendered and transmit and enforce the gender stereotypes rooted in scientific environment and wider culture.

Visual representations in science, medicine and engineering may contain gender-inflected messages in 1) the content of a field or discipline, or 2) the practitioners of a field or discipline. As indicated by Good et al. (2010), 'textbooks have been indicted for perpetuating gender stereotypes through the images and language they use. A review of U.S. History textbooks found that in one textbook, there are four men for every woman mentioned, and less than 3% of the history is about women. In a review of science textbooks, researchers found that the texts contained minimal information regarding the accomplishments of women in science or about scientific topics of interest to women such as menstruation, childbirth, and menopause. Women are not only underrepresented in text but also in images. Men are pictured more frequently in textbooks, while women remain relatively hard to find in illustrations, examples, and subject and author indices'. As demonstrated by Good et al. (2010), there is an obvious and measurable impact of the subtle messages conveyed in textbooks through gendered pictures on the performance of female students in science. The influence of gender stereotypic textbook images as a potential medium for stereotype threat on students' comprehension of a science lesson was proved.

Conclusions: problems and perspectives of gender and science

Efforts to introduce gender-specific methods into sciences can be viewed from the internal and external points of view. From internal point of view, i.e. from the perspective of scientists, it is valued as external power pushing the academia to change its traditionally used theories, methodologies and concepts specific to different disciplines.

In order the gender factor could become part of scientific paradigm of contemporary science the interdisciplinarity should be enacted on actual level. Disciplines as institutionalized systems of training, recruitment, and professional behaviour as well as specialized forms of association and communication (professional societies and journals) (Heilbron, 2012) have to open up for new knowledge concerning gender in all its stages. Gender studies has to become part of curricula for various disciplines as it is a major pathway towards preparing new generation of researchers who would be aware, capable and comfortable to use new methods.

The resistance of science disciplines towards methods incorporating gender can be evaluated as a resistance to recognize the right of demanding and expectations from society as a major stakeholder of science. The autonomy of science institutions and conservative values system of science at the top of which is pseudo-objectivity (or gender neutral point of view) is still used to disguise the inability of science to accept its major function to serve society in a variety of its needs. The science as a social institute is resisting the political efforts or other initiatives to integrate the stakeholder's (societies') interest into its institutional structures and practices.

The change of science system should come from the top-level of its institutions as well as from the heads of policy of science. As far as majority of these positions belong to men it is difficult to expect quick or easy acceptance of new perspective. Opening up to gender is one of global challenges being imposed on science these days. But it is for everybody's sake that this challenge is taken properly as it is leading to innovations and more socially sensitive knowledge. The perspectives that should open up with this paradigm shift is multiple: corrected and improved traditional scientific knowledge, improved validity of research, better application of research results and acceptance by society, more socially responsible science, more balanced opportunities and living environment for female and male parts of society and academic community.

Present political strategies of national and international level to fund 1) research projects with gender perspective and 2) educational projects and studies devoted to informing and instructing academia how to methodologically enact gender dimension in research look like some kind of behaviouristic method to motivate scientists 'to catch the carrot'. Feminist theories appeared to be not sufficient to attract and convince science, later followed the gender targeted funding and the idea of innovativeness. We can only guess how far we will need to go to really achieve this wide-scale and

sustainable change in academic consent and awareness. What about the motivation of scientists themselves?

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