

KLAIPĖDA UNIVERSITY
FACULTY OF SOCIAL SCIENCES AND HUMANITIES

**REGIONAL FORMATION
AND
DEVELOPMENT STUDIES**

Journal of Social Sciences

No. 3 (29)



Klaipėda, 2019

Regional Formation and Development Studies

Klaipėda University
Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities

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Cover design: Vilhelmas Giedraitis (Lithuania)

The first number was published in 2007.

There are 3 annual volumes in Lithuanian, English languages.

(<http://www.ebscohost.com/titleLists/bth-journals.pdf>).

From 2014 all publications have a digital object identifier (DOI) number

„Regional Formation and Development Studies“ (ISSN 2029-9370) journal included in *EBSCO Business Source Complete, Ulrich, Crossref, DOI, Open Journal System*

Address:

Herkaus Manto g. 84, LT-92294 Klaipėda, Lietuva, tel. (370 46) 39 88 95, fax (370 46) 39 89 99

Internet address: <http://www.ku.lt/leid>

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Every paper is revised by two reviewers

ISSN 2029-9370

PRATARMĖ

Šįkart žurnale spausdinami įvairius mokslinius interesus atitinkantys straipsniai – skirtingi kaip ir rudeninė spalvų paletė gamtoje. H. Hilmarrson'as pateikė įžvalgų apie Šiaurės ir Baltijos šalių ekonominius panašumus bei skirtumus. A. Guogis, A. V. Rakšnys analizavo gerovės valstybių modelius, jų teigimu, valstybės gerovė šalyje klestinti korupcijai neįmanoma. Pastarąją tyrinėjo I. Pikturnaitė, J. Jonuševičienė, R. Kavolius. Demografinių ir socialinių pokyčių analizę Klaipėdos priemiesčiuose atliko D. Verkulevičiūtė-Kriukienė. I. Nomeikienė. P. Lakov'as, I. Shopova aptarė kultūrinio ir istorinio objekto patrauklumo turistams galimybes Bulgarijoje. D. Behmane, D. Rutitis, V. Savicka vertino sveikatos priežiūros paslaugų teikėjų tinklalapius. Klausimą apie informacijos svarbą socialinėje įmonėje aptarė K. Casno, D. Šķiltere, B. Sloka, tuo tarpu G. Tauraitė-Janušauskienė gvildeno socialinio verslumo vaidmenį darnaus vystymosi kontekste. Skaitmeninimo svarba ugdant pilietinę visuomenę analizuota E. Lielpēters'o straipsnyje, internetiniai transporto priemonių nuomos kainų „karai“ aptarti S. H. Pramudya straipsnyje. E. Dundure, B. Sloka straipsnyje analizuota Latvijos pensijų sistema, materialinio nepritekliaus problemos nagrinėtos B. Sloka, K. Čipane straipsnyje. Nuostolių baimės efektą aptarė V. Tauraitė. Profesiniame mokyme emocinio intelekto svarbą tyrė A. Lice, B. Sloka. Šiame numeryje pateikta H. Hilmarsono knygos recenzija, kurios autorius S. Kumar'as. Smagaus skaitymo.

Prof. dr. Ligita Šimanskienė
Mokslinio žurnalo redaktorė

PREFACE

This time, the journal is publishing articles of different scientific interests. The articles are different, as is the autumn colour palette in nature. H. Hilmarrson provided insights into the economic similarities and differences between the Nordic and Baltic countries, while A. Guogis, A. V. Rakšnys analyzed patterns of welfare states. The prosperity of the state cannot exist if there is corruption in the country. And perception of corruption was investigated by I. Pikturnaitė, J. Jonuševičienė, R. Kavolius. The analysis of demographic and social changes in Klaipėda suburbs was carried out by D. Verkulevičiūtė-Kriukienė, I. Nomeikienė. P. Lakov, I. Shopova presented opportunities of cultural and historical attraction for tourists in Bulgaria. D. Behmane, D. Rutitis, V. Savicka rated the websites of health care providers. K. Casno, D. Šķiltere, B. Sloka, and G. Tauraitė-Janušauskienė discussed the role of social entrepreneurship in the context of sustainable development. The role of digitalization in the development of civil society is analyzed in the article by E. Lielpēters, while the online car rental wars are discussed in S. H. Pramudya's article. E. Dundure, B. Sloka's article analyzes the Latvian pension system, while the problems of material deprivation are analyzed in B. Sloka, K. Čipane's article. The effect of fear of loss was discussed by V. Tauraitė. The importance of the use of emotional intelligence in vocational training was studied by A. Lice, B. Sloka. A review of H. Hilmarson's book written by S. Kumar can also be found in this issue. Enjoy your readings.

Prof. dr. Ligita Šimanskienė
Scientific Editor

TURINYS

- Daiga Behmane, Didzis Rutītis, Vita Savicka*
An Evaluation of Health Care Service Provider Websites in Latvia – a Medical Tourism Perspective / 5
Latvijas sveikatos priežiūros paslaugu teikēju tinklalapių įvertinimas – medicininio turizmo perspektyva / 14
- Kristīne Casno, Daina Šķiltere, Biruta Sloka*
The Information Channels That Matter: the Case of Social Enterprise Customers in Latvia / 21
Svarbūs informaciniai kanalai: socialinės įmonės klientų atvejo Latvijoje analizė / 34
- Biruta Sloka, Kate Čipāne*
Material Deprivation: a Case of Latvia / 35
Materialinis nepriteklis. Latvijos pavyzdys / 42
- Evija Dundure, Biruta Sloka*
Voluntary Private Investments Role in Pension System in Latvia / 43
Savanoriškų privačių investicijų vaidmuo pensijų sistemoje Latvijoje / 51
- Eduards Lielpēters*
Engaging Citizens in the Decision-Making Process. Opportunities of Digital Democracy in Latvia / 53
Piliečių įsitraukimas į sprendimų priėmimo procesą. Skaitmeninės demokratijos galimybės Latvijoje / 63
- Arvydas Guogis, Adomas Vincas Rakšnys*
The Problem of Establishing Welfare State Models, their Values and Coherence with the Public Administration Models / 64
Gerovės valstybės modelių, jų vertybių ir suderinamumo su viešojo administravimo modeliais problema / 71
- Hilmar Þór Hilmarsson*
Nordic-Baltic Cooperation: Opportunities, Divisions and External Threats / 73
Šiaurės ir Baltijos šalių bendradarbiavimas: galimybės, bendradarbiavimas, išorinės grėsmės / 84
- Plamen Lakov, Ivanka Shopova*
Ancient Roman Fortress Sostra as a Cultural and Historical Tourist Resource / 86
Senosios Romos įtvirtinimai – kultūrinis ir istorinis turizmo šaltinis / 97
- Anita Līce, Biruta Sloka*
Promoting Emotional Intelligence in Vocational Education As a Method to Achieve Employability of Graduates / 98
Emocinio intelekto skatinimas profesinio mokymo įstaigose, siekiant padėti įsidarbinti / 106
- Ilvija Pikturkaitė, Judita Joniševičienė, Robertas Kavolius*
Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų korupcijos suvokimo ir patirties kaita trumpuoju laikotarpiu / 108
The Change of Klaipėda District Residents Attitude and Experience of Facing Corruption in Short Time Period / 120
- Sakti Hendra Pramudya*
Online Transportation Price War: Indonesian Style / 122
Internetinių transporto įmonių kainų „karas“ – Indonezijos atvejis / 130
- Daiva Verkulevičiūtė-Kriukienė, Inga Nomeikienė*
Demographic and Social Changes in Suburbs of Klaipėda in 2010–2017 / 131
Demografiniai ir socialiniai pokyčiai Klaipėdos priemiesčiuose 2010–2017 m. / 143
- Viktorija Tauraitė*
Nuostolių baimės efekto kompleksinė analizė / 144
The Complex Analysis of Loss Aversion / 156
- Gitana Tauraitė-Janušauskienė*
Organizacijos socialinio verslumo vaidmuo darnaus vystymo kontekste / 157
The Role of Corporate Social Entrepreneurship in the Context of Sustainable Development / 166
- Sujit Kumar*
Book Review
The Economic Crisis and its Aftermath in the Nordic and Baltic Countries Do As We Say and Not As We Do / 167

AN EVALUATION OF HEALTH CARE SERVICE PROVIDER WEBSITES IN LATVIA – A MEDICAL TOURISM PERSPECTIVE

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ABSTRACT

The prospective health care consumers are increasingly using the Internet websites for communication with potential health care service providers and decision-making regarding choice of the travel destination for receiving particular health care services. Therefore, it is important for health care providers to present themselves and their services efficiently online in order to attract foreign patients and thus facilitate medical tourism. The objective of this study is to evaluate the website content of Latvian health care providers who offer services to medical tourists in order to evaluate their status-quo and identify opportunities to improve website design. Authors used the framework by Huerta et al. (2016) as a basis to develop a modified framework suited for medical tourism-related website evaluation. 21 active websites associated with a medical tourism and provision of health care services to foreign patients were identified and selected for analysis. Each website was evaluated using a 10-factor assessment on 4 dimensions that include website accessibility, content, marketing, technology on a scale ranging from 0 to 10. Results: Scores of 21 website evaluation ranged from 54 to 91 point across all 4 dimensions with 80 and above points being considered as excellent result. Conclusions: Study findings indicated that the main improvements should be related to accessibility dimension and enabling text resizing function for improving experience for patients with poor sight, information dimension in terms of developing a separate main level section with information exclusively for foreign patients, and marketing dimension to improve effectiveness of search engine optimization (SEO) for medical tourism related keywords.

KEYWORDS: *health care, marketing, internet, medical tourism.*

JEL CODES: I11, L83, M31

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.1990>

Introduction

In the context of this research medical tourism refers to a trip to a place outside a person's normal place of residence for the purpose of receiving medical treatments, interventions or therapies. The patient and whoever accompanies them also make use of the destination's tourist infrastructure, attractions and facilities. (Smith & Puczko, 2014: 15). Thus, medical tourism is separated from general spa and wellness tourism, which focuses on relaxation, healing or beautifying of the body in spas using preventive wellness and/or curative medical techniques (Smith & Puczko, 2014: 10).

Medical tourism has been on the rise worldwide in recent years and is likely to achieve nearly 180 billion USD turnover globally by year 2026 (Grand View Research, 2019). Latvia has been ranked among popular

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medical tourism destinations in Europe, both, in academic literature (Horowitz et al., 2007; Connell, 2011) and by health care industry representatives (Latvian Health Tourism Cluster, 2019) who confirm growing number of foreign patients seeking for medical treatment year after year. In 2017, 30 (thirty) Latvian health care service providers offering medical tourism and spa tourism generated more than 8 Million EUR turnover from their service exports to foreign patients (Ministry of Health of the Republic of Latvia, 2018). This is likely to grow due to Latvia being part of the European Union and the existence of EU Directive 2011/24/EU on patients' rights in cross-border healthcare setting out the conditions under which a patient may travel to another EU country to receive medical care and reimbursement. It covers healthcare costs, as well as the prescription and delivery of medications and medical devices (European Parliament, 2011).

The prospective medical tourism services consumers are increasingly using the Internet websites for communication with potential health care service providers and decision-making regarding choice of the travel destination for receiving particular health care services (Connell, 2011). This implies that it is important for health care providers to present themselves and their services efficiently online in order to attract foreign patients and thus facilitate medical tourism (Huerta et al., 2016).

The research aim is to evaluate the content and performance of websites of those Latvian health care providers who offer and actively promote health care services to incoming medical tourists from abroad. The research tasks: 1) to study theoretical aspects of health care provider website analysis; 2) develop a framework for medical tourism website evaluation; 3) evaluate the current status of medical tourism provider websites and identify opportunities for improving overall website user experience and the content. The object of the research is the export of medical tourism services of Latvia.

Research methods used in the study are scientific publication studies, content analysis of health care provider websites, statistical analysis.

1. Theoretical background

Since medical travel implies travelling for the sole purpose of receiving medical treatments, interventions or therapies, effective and relevant information models used by health care providers are important to enable patient decisions on cross-border healthcare, especially in different socio-economic circumstances (Ngamvi-chaikit, Beise-Zee, 2014). High quality information is very important when it comes to health care quality and safety, but such information is often asymmetric (Harvey, 2008). Cross-border healthcare must address legal, ethical and practical challenges for patients (Berki, 2017). Therefore, it is important for health care service provider to deliver a comprehensive and timely information regarding various aspects of services and expected treatment process.

There are several studies related to evaluation on health-sector websites, each one assessing a variety of elements. But there is not yet an unequivocal definition of the concept of health sector website quality, and the discourse about health sector institutions websites' quality evaluation remains open (Moreno et al., 2010; Sarantis, Soares, 2017).

One of general frameworks for health care services provider website technical analysis has been developed out by Ford et. al. (2012), Huerta et. al. (2014, 2016), who used it to evaluate and rank general hospital, cancer clinic and children hospital websites in the United States on five dimensions – accessibility, marketing, content, technology, and usability. Their approach has been applied by Alhuwail et.al. (2018) for evaluating hospital websites in Kuwait to improve consumer engagement and access to health information.

Another important website content research relates to a systematic review of 50 online websites by Lunt and Carrera (2011) screened sites from the point of view of UK consumers, using 10 key aspects from the British Association for Plastic, Reconstructive and Aesthetic Surgeons guidelines when evaluating website content. Many sites included information on how long the surgeons had practiced (25 of the 38 providers), frequently listed the qualifications and jobs of the surgeons (25 of the 38 provider sites), attached full CVs, copies of certificates and scientific publications. It was less common to find detailed information on the number of procedures performed by medical professionals – only 5 of the sites listing surgeons' experience with each procedure performed.

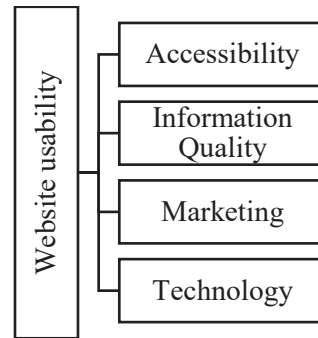


Figure 1. Theoretical framework for medical tourism website evaluation

Source: developed by authors, based on Huerta et al. (2016).

Authors have selected a general approach of dimension categorization by Huerta et.al. (2016), and slightly modified it by grouping factors in only four dimensions (see Fig. 1) to combine analysis of content quality aspects (e.g. information quality and digital marketing activities) and technical aspects (e.g. accessibility and website technical performance).

Authors have concluded that the website usability becomes the main objective that covers all four dimensions in order to provide effective communication and feedback channel to any medical tourist searching for information online with aim to select a health care services provider abroad. Thus, this dimension transforms into “umbrella” that incorporates remaining dimensions.

Such approach is also supported by research on corporate identity management in health care sector companies by Batraga and Rutitis (2012), who outlined necessity to manage simultaneously various dimensions, including corporate communication, patient service culture, corporate culture, marketing activities, and communication over digital channels, in order to deliver a coherent message and health care service itself to the patient. In case of website evaluation, the usability dimension penetrates all the remaining four dimensions in order to deliver an excellent website user experience in supporting one’s decision-making.

2. Research methodology

In June of 2019, each website was evaluated using 10 factors on 4 different dimensions, which include website accessibility, content, marketing, and technology. Each factor was scored on a scale ranging from 0 to 10 with positive findings rated higher on the scale and providing a possibility of scoring a maximum of 100 points. Some factors included sub-criteria that were assigned a proportional weight for factor value. Finally, websites were ranked by the total score obtained from evaluations across all factors. The detailed description of dimensions and factors is available in Appendix 1.

The websites associated with a medical tourism and provision of health care services to foreign patients were first identified using an official health tourism service provider list on the website of Health Inspectorate of Latvia (2019), which contained 51 providers. It was compared with the website of Baltic Care, which is the leading Latvian healthcare alliance uniting Latvian medical service exporters. However, as the information on Baltic Care website has not been updated since November 2017, authors used more recently updated websites of Latvian Health Tourism Cluster (2019) and Magnetic Latvia Tourism website maintained by the Investment and Development Agency of Latvia (2019) as a reference to identify those medical tourism service providers in Latvia, which are actively promoting their services and also engaging in digital marketing activities. Consequently, 21 medical tourism services providers were selected for further analysis of their website content and online presence (for a full list of websites and their respective URLs see Appendix 2).

It should be noted that Amber Life Cancer Clinic (previously known as Global Virotherapy Cancer Clinic), which has been one of the most active medical tourism promoters in Latvia in recent years targeting patients searching for alternative ways of cancer treatment, has been excluded from this study. This is due to the recent decision by the State Agency of Medicines Republic of Latvia to suspend the marketing authorization of the medicinal product Rigvir solution for injections, which has been a core solution for oncolytic virotherapy provision by Amber Life Clinic for years, due to production quality issues (State Agency of Medicines Republic of Latvia, 2019). The producer of Rigvir solution SIA Latima has also been tried in court for misleading advertising, thus, raising concerns for possible dubious business practice (Thomson Reuters, 2018).

3. Empirical research main results

In addition to calculation of mean average of each factor contributing to overall dimension score, there was calculated also a standard deviation, and 95% confidence interval for the respective indicator. A detailed list with scorings of each individual factor and respective dimensions is available in Appendix 3.

3.1. Comparison of dimension evaluations

On the dimension level, the lowest average score received accessibility dimension (5.0), followed by marketing (7.3) and information quality (7.5) dimensions (see Fig. 2). The highest average evaluation of 9.5 points was attributed to the technology dimension, implying that majority of websites technically performed very well.

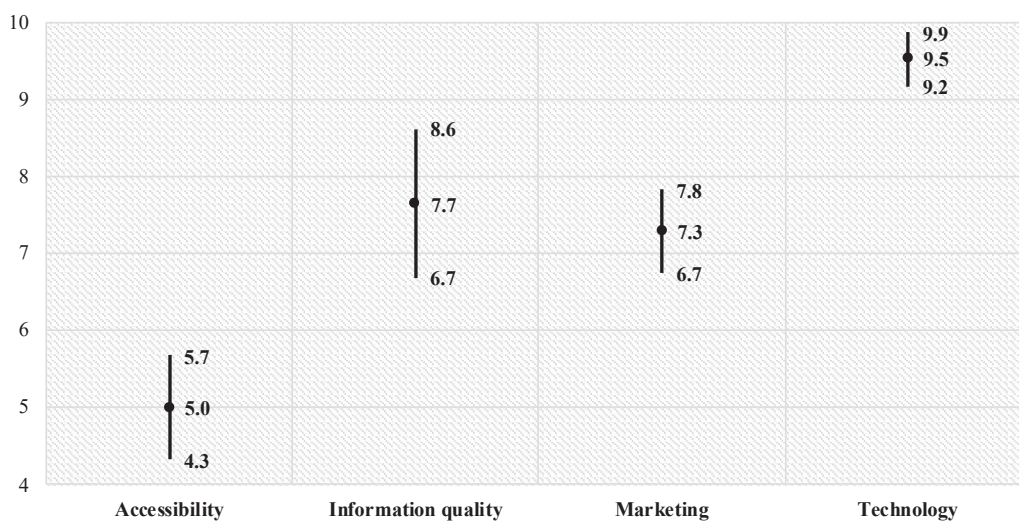


Figure 2. The main dimension evaluations with 95% confidence interval

Source: Authors calculations based on the evaluation scores in 2019, $n = 21$

Further analysis of confidence interval lower and upper values as depicted in Table 1 reflects that the largest deviation is for Information Quality dimension value, which can be explained with the largest number of criteria (9) contributing to this factor.

Table 1. Summary of website dimension evaluation statistical analysis

Dimension	Sample mean (X)	Lower bound for 95% confidence interval	Upper bound for 95% confidence interval	Standard deviation
Accessibility	5.0	4.3	5.7	1.6
Information Quality	7.7	6.7	8.6	2.3
Marketing	7.3	6.7	7.8	1.3
Technology	9.5	9.2	9.9	0.8

Source: Authors calculations based on the evaluation scores in 2019, $n = 21$

However, a more detailed analysis of factors and reasons contributing to the differences in evaluations of a particular dimension and respective standard deviations is provided in the further text.

3.2. Accessibility dimension

Analysis of the Accessibility dimension, which includes only two criteria related to the ease of using the website, showed that majority of websites, except one, has either responsive or mobile versions activated, confirmed by average evaluation of 4.8 points out of 5. This implies mobile-ready website development as the standard way to develop user-friendly websites and intent to deliver information to variety of devices.

However, most common challenge for health care websites (average evaluation only 0.2 points out of 5) is related to the lack of text resizing functionality that would enable patients with poor vision to comprehend the information published on website. Only one (ARS) of 21 websites has such functionality enabled and accessible on its website.

3.3. Information Quality dimension

Information Quality dimension analysis (see Fig.3) showed that majority of websites have versions of their content available and translated in foreign languages, with English and Russian being among primary ones (average evaluation 8.6 out of 10).

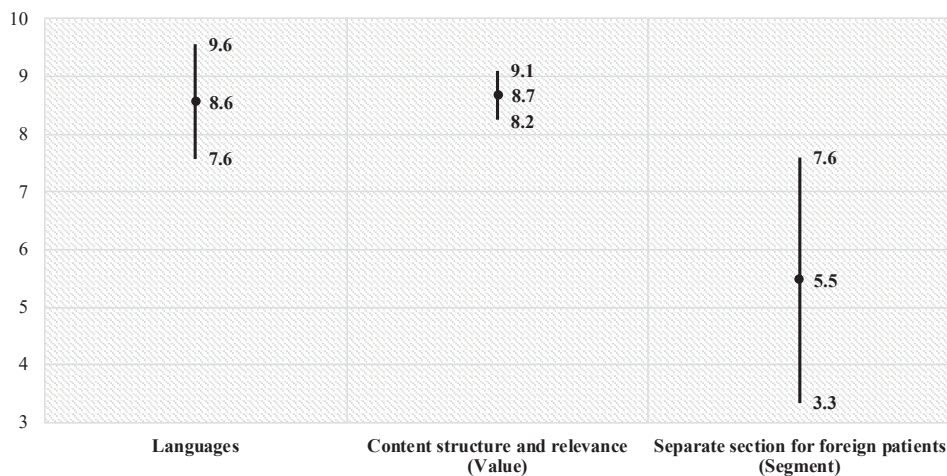


Figure 3. Averages of the Information Quality dimension factors with 95% confidence interval

Source: Authors calculations based on the content analysis in 2019, $n = 21$

However, only part of websites had separate or dedicated section with information to foreign patients (average evaluation 5.5 out of 10). This factor also had the largest confidence interval among others implying that the number of websites having a separate section for the medical tourists was similar to those not having one.

Content factor scored rather high with 8.7 points out of 10, implying health care service provider efforts to provide structured and comprehensive information to the patient regarding prices and payments, available doctors and their CVs, scientific achievements, certification, interior and exterior photos, a map and directions to the hospital or clinic location.

3.4. Marketing dimension

Analysis of the Marketing dimension (see Fig. 4) reflected that the largest challenge (3.9 points out of 10) is related to the website optimization for indexing on the most popular search engines (SEO) like Google and Yandex.ru.

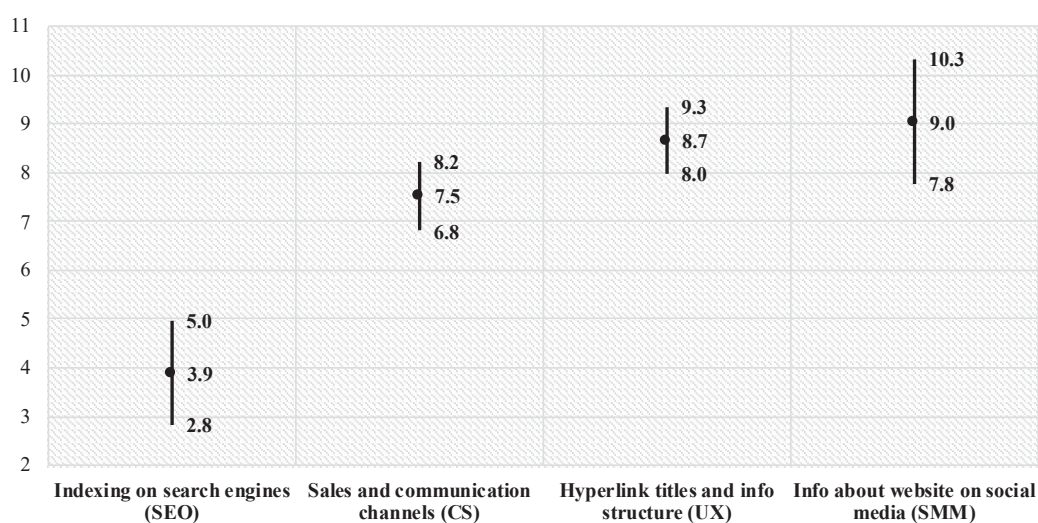


Figure 4. Averages of the Marketing dimension factors with 95% confidence interval

Source: Authors calculations based on the content analysis in 2019, $n = 21$

Sales and communication channel (CS) factor scored 7.5 average of 10 points, indicating that all websites had phone numbers, e-mail and contact form published for reaching them, while only part indicated a separate phone nr. or e-mail dedicated to medical tourists. Least number of websites had chat window functionality available.

Hyperlink structure and info structure (UX) scored rather 8.7 out of 10 points, while the highest average score of 9.0 points out of 10 was applied to information about website on the social media of respective health care provider, indicating that running social media accounts implies also an active promotion of the website (SMM).

3.5. Technology

Both technology factors scored high values above 9 out of 10 points (see Fig. 5). This implies that the speed of page loading (mean average 9.3) is at sufficient level for majority of webpages, and the absence of broken hyperlinks at average level of 9.7 points out of 10 signals prompt performance of websites from technical perspective.

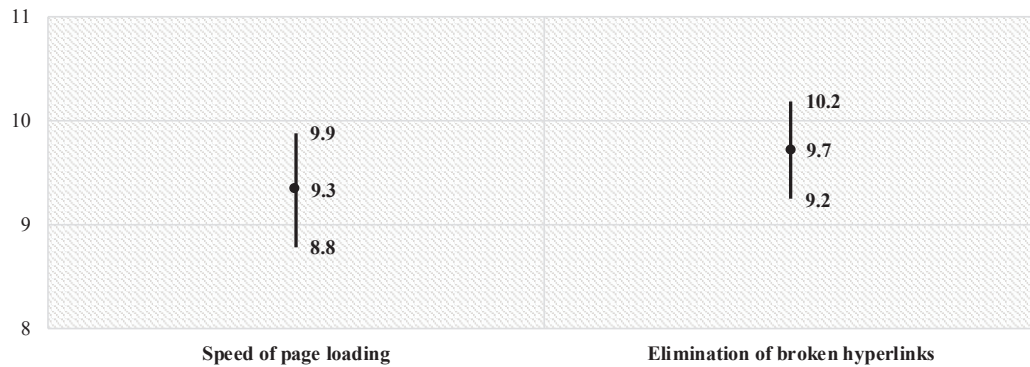


Figure 5. Averages of the Technology dimension factors with 95% confidence interval

Source: Authors calculations based on the content analysis in 2019, $n = 21$

Just several websites had a few broken links to outdated documents not available anymore for the upload, or there were hyperlinks in English version of the website to the documents entirely in Latvian. Several websites also had part of their English website content still in Latvian due to either incorrectly linked info structure on website code level (website programmer's error) or simply lacking a proper translation from original Latvian (marketing or IT manager's responsibility).

3.6. Website ranking

After summarizing all the individual factor scores, the total evaluation of each website was obtained. The websites were ranked in ascending order to estimate the range of evaluations and possibility of their categorization (see Fig. 6).

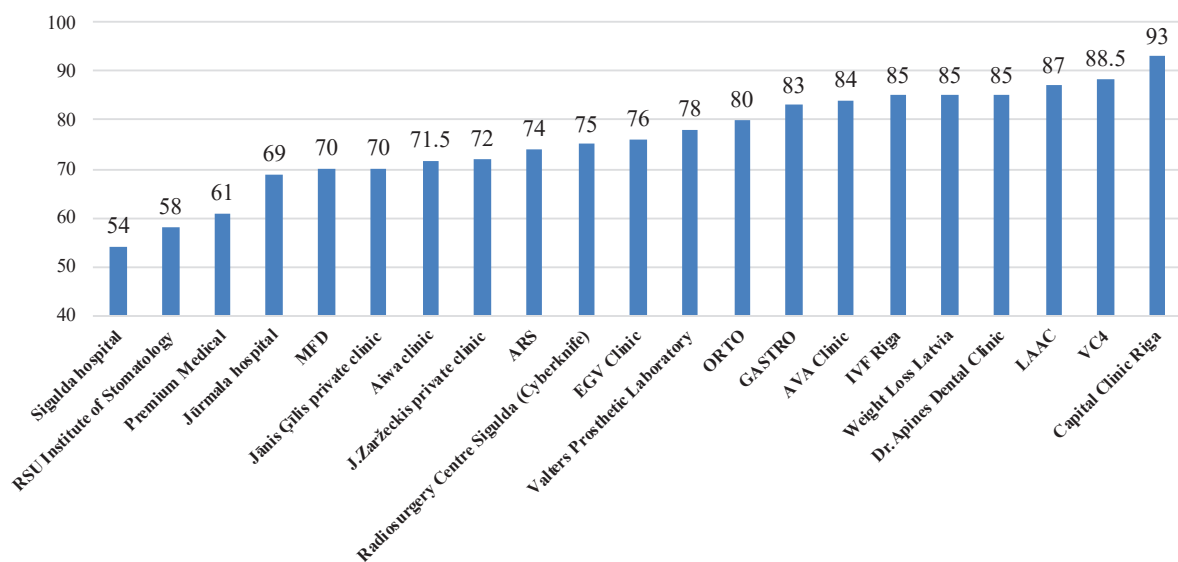


Figure 6. Summary of total scores for websites offering medical tourism services in Latvia

Source: Authors calculations based on the content analysis in 2019, $n = 21$

The highest score of 93 points received Capital Clinic Riga website, which can be considered also as a benchmark, taking into account just minor need for upgrade in order to provide the best resource for any patient searching for information regarding medical tourism opportunities in Latvia. The second highest score of 88,5 points was achieved by the website of Veselības Centrs 4 (VC4), which has the same shareholder structure to Capital Clinic Riga. Thus, it can be concluded that the management of both centers has a focus on medical tourist attraction among the top objectives set by the shareholders.

In total, 9 website scored above 80 points indicating need for only minor updates, 9 websites scored between 65 and 80 points implying need to complement existing site with some missing content and technical functionality, while 3 websites with scoring in range from 50 to 65 points require serious upgrade in order to become attractive resource for the medical tourists searching for health care service provider in Latvia.

Conclusions

The authors have developed a practical framework for medical tourism website evaluation with 4 dimensions and 10 factors to be evaluated on 10-point basis.

Research findings indicate a partial utilization of websites as a primary channel of communication for the foreign patients searching information on medical tourism and health care services in Latvia and room of improvement for majority of currently active websites targeted to the medical tourist audiences.

One of the simplest, but most necessary improvements for health care provider websites, is related to accessibility dimension and enabling text resizing function for improving experience for people with poor sight.

The Information Quality dimension could be improved by development of a separate main level info section with information exclusively for foreign patients.

Marketing dimension can be improved by increasing effectiveness of search engine optimization (SEO) for medical tourism related keywords and thus ranking a particular website much better on the most popular search engines like Google.com and Yandex.ru for the most popular keywords in English and Russian to reach the medical tourists from both, Western and Eastern regions.

Acknowledgements

This research has been funded by the European Union Post-Doctoral program. Project number: 1.1.1.2/VIAA/1/16/089.

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LATVIJOS SVEIKATOS PRIEŽIŪROS PASLAUGŲ TEIKĒJŪ TINKLALAPIŪ ĪVERTINIMAS – MEDICININIO TURIZMO PERSPEKTYVA

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Santrauka

Sveikatos priežiŪros vartotojai vis daŪniau naudojami interneto svetainėms, norėdami susisiekti su potencialiais sveikatos priežiŪros paslaugŪ teikėjais ir apsisprėsti dėl kelionės tikslo pasirinkimo, siekdami gauti tam tikras sveikatos priežiŪros paslaugas. Todėl sveikatos priežiŪros paslaugŪ teikėjams svarbu veiksmingai pristatyti save ir savo paslaugas internetu, kad pritrauktŪ pacientŪ iš Ūsienio šaliŪ ir taip skatintŪ medicinos turizmŪ.

Šio tyrimo tikslas – Īvertinti Latvijos sveikatos priežiŪros paslaugŪ teikėjŪ, siŪlanėiŪ paslaugas medicinos turistams, tinklalapiŪ turinį, siekiant nustatyti jŪ *status quo* ir tinklalapio tobulinimo dizaino galimybes. Autoriai rėmėsi T. R. Huerta ir bendraautoriŪ (Huerta, Walker, Ford, 2016) darbu, kaip pagrindu, kurdami modifikuotŪ sistemŪ, tinkamŪ su medicininio turizmu susijusiai interneto svetainei vertinti.

Nustatyta ir atrinkta 21 aktyvi svetainė, susijusi su medicinos turizmu ir sveikatos priežiŪros paslaugŪ teikimu Ūsienio šaliŪ pacientams. Kiekviena svetainė Īvertinta, atsiŪvelgiant Ī 10 veiksniŪ, keturiais aspektais, kurie apima svetainės prieinamŪ, turinį, rinkodarŪ, technologijas (skalė nuo 0 iki 10).

Rezultatai: 21 svetainės Īvertinimo balas svyravo nuo 54 iki 91 visose keturiose dimensijose, 80 ir daugiau balŪ buvo traktuojama kaip puikus rezultatas. Vienas paprasčiausiŪ, bet bŪtinŪ sveikatos priežiŪros paslaugŪ teikėjŪ svetainiŪ patobulinimŪ susijęs su prieinamumo aspektu ir galimybe keisti teksto dydžio funkcijŪ, siekiant pagerinti ŪmoniŪ su regėjimo negalia galimybes naudotis šia paskyra. Kalbant apie informacijos kokybiškumo aspektŪ, svarbu bŪtŪ sukurti konkretŪ pagrindinio lygio informacijos skyriŪ ir jame teikti informacijŪ tik Ūsienio šaliŪ pacientams. Rinkodaros dimensijŪ galima pagerinti padidinus paieškos funkcijŪ optimizavimo veiksmingumŪ, tai susiję su pagrindiniais medicininio turizmo ŪodŪiais. Taip bŪtŪ lengviau Īvertinti konkreėiŪ svetainę populiariausiose paieškos sistemose, tokiose kaip *Google.com* ir *Yandex.ru*, pagal populiariausius pagrindinius ŪodŪius anglŪ ir rusŪ kalbomis, norint pasiekti medicinos turistus iš abiejŪ – VakarŪ ir RytŪ – regionŪ.

Tyrimo išvadose nurodoma, kad pagrindiniai patobulinimai turėtŪ bŪti susiję su prieinamumo aspektu ir galimybe keisti teksto dydį, siekiant pagerinti ŪmoniŪ su regėjimo negalia galimybes naudotis šia paskyra. Be to, reikėtŪ sukurti konkretŪ skyriŪ, kuriame bŪtŪ pateikta informacija tik Ūsienio šaliŪ pacientams, šis rinkodaros aspektas leistŪ optimizuoti paieškos sistemŪ efektyvumŪ, susijusį su pagrindiniais medicininio turizmo ŪodŪiais.

PAGRINDINIAI ŪODŪIAI: *sveikatos apsauga, rinkodara, internetas, medicinos turizmas.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: I11, L83, M31

Received: 2019-09-17

Revised: 2019-09-29

Accepted: 2019-10-01

Appendix 1

Website evaluation dimensions, factors and scoring criteria.

Dimension	Factor and its elements	Points
ACCESSIBILITY	1. Ease of using website (UI)	Max 10
	a. Does a website have mobile/responsive version?	Yes – 5, no = 0
	b. Is website suited for people with poor vision?	Yes – 5, no = 0
INFORMATION QUALITY	2. Languages	Max 10
	a. Website is translated in foreign languages	Yes – 5, no = 0
	b. Is information the same in all languages?	Yes – 5, no = 0
	3. Content structure and relevance (Value)	Max 10
	a. Does provider have a visual identity (logo)?	Yes = 1, No – 0
	b. A full list of services is published	Yes = 2, No – 0
	c. Staff CVs and photos are published	Yes = 1, Partially = 0,5, No – 0
	d. Company certificates are mentioned	Yes = 1, No – 0
	e. Scientific achievements are mentioned	Yes = 1, Partially = 0,5, No – 0
	f. Website has contacts section with a map	Yes = 1, No – 0
	g. Website has interior and exterior photos	Yes = 1, Partially = 0,5, No – 0
	h. Pricing information is available	Yes = 1, No – 0
	i. Information about payments is available	Yes = 1, No – 0
4. Separate section for foreign patients (Segment)	Yes – 10, just a subsection – 5, none – 0	
MARKETING	5. Indexing on search engines (SEO) – Google, Yandex	Max 10
	Medical tourism Latvia	2 points for each keyword from the column on left, if the website is found in the first 10 pages on Google.com or Yandex.ru search engine results
	Clinics in Latvia	
	Медицинский туризм в Латвии	
	Лечение в Латвии	
	Other (depending on specialization)	
	6. Available sales and communication channels (CS)	Max 10
	a. Phone, e-mail, contact form	Yes = 6, No – 0
	b. A separate phone or e-mail for foreign patients	Yes = 2, No – 0
	c. Chat window	Yes = 2, No – 0
7. Hyperlink titles and info structure (UX)	Evaluation in range from 0 to 10	
8. Info about website on social media (SMM)	Yes = 10, No – 0	
TECHNOLOGY	9. Speed of page loading	Evaluation in range from 0 to 10
	10. Absence of broken hyperlinks	No broken links – 10, one or few – 5, many – 0
	TOTAL evaluation	Max 100 points

Appendix 2

List of health care service provider websites and URLs visited in June 2019.

Institution	Website URL
Aiwa clinic	http://www.aiwaclinic.lv/en/
ARS	https://arsmed.lv/en/contacts-ars/
AVA Clinic	https://www.avaclinic.lv/en/
Capital Clinic Riga	http://www.capitalclinicriga.lv/en/about_clinic/about_us
Dr.Apines Dental Clinic	https://www.apinesklinika.lv/en/
EGV Clinic	https://www.egv.lv/en/about
GASTRO	http://www.gastrocentrs.lv/en
IVF Riga	https://www.ivfriga.eu/
J.Zaržeckis private clinic	http://www.plasticsurgery.lv
Jānis Ģīlis private clinic	https://www.gilis.lv/en/klinika
Jūrmala hospital	http://jurmalaasslimnica.lv/en/
LAAC	https://www.laac.lv/en/
MFD	http://www.mfd.lv/en/veselibas-centrs-pardaugava
ORTO	https://orto.lv/en
Premium Medical	https://premiummedical.lv/en/
Radiosurgery Centre Sigulda (Cyberknife)	https://cyberknife-sigulda.com/en/
RSU Institute of Stomatology	https://www.stomatologijasinstituts.lv/en
Sigulda hospital	http://www.siguldasslimnica.lv/en
Valters Prosthetic Laboratory	http://www.vpl.lv/eng
VC4	https://vc4.lv/en
Weight Loss Latvia	https://www.weightlosslatvia.com

Appendix 3

Detailed website evaluation results.

Factor and its elements	Aiwa clinic	ARS	AVA Clinic	Capital Clinic Riga	Dr.Apines Dental Clinic	EGV Clinic	GASTRO	IVF Riga	J.Zaržekis private clinic	Jānis Ģīlis private clinic
1. Ease of using website (UI)	5	10	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
a. Does a website have mobile/responsive version?	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
b. Is website suited for people with poor vision?	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2. Languages	5	5	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
a. Website is translated in foreign languages	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
b. Is information the same in all languages?	0	0	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
3. Content structure and relevance (Value)	9,5	9	9	10	8	9	8	8	10	6
a. Does provider have a visual identity (logo)?	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
b. A full list of services is published	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
c. Staff CVs and photos are published	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
d. Company certificates are mentioned	1	0	1	1	0	1	1	1	1	0
e. Scientific achievements are mentioned	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	0	1	1
f. Website has contacts section with a map	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
g. Website has interior and exterior photos	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
h. Pricing information is available	0,5	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
i. Information about payments is available	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	1	0
4. Separate section for foreign patients (Segment)	0	0	10	10	10	0	10	10	10	0
5. Indexing on search engines (SEO) – Google, Yandex	4	6	4	10	2	6	2	2	4	4
Medical tourism Latvia	0	0	0	2	0	2	0	0	2	0
Clinics in Latvia	2	2	2	2	0	2	0	0	0	2
Медицинский туризм в Латвии	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0

Factor and its elements	Aiwa clinic	ARS	AVA Clinic	Capital Clinic Riga	Dr.Apines Dental Clinic	EGV Clinic	GASTRO	IVF Riga	J.Zaržeckis private clinic	Jānis Ģīlis private clinic
Лечение в Латвии	0	2	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other (depending on specialization)	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
6. Available sales and communication channels (CS)	8	6	10	8	10	6	8	10	8	6
a. Phone, e-mail, contact form	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
b. A separate phone or e-mail for foreign patients	0	0	2	2	2	0	2	2	2	0
c. Chat window	2	0	2	0	2	0	0	2	0	0
7. Hyperlink titles and info structure (UX)	10	8	8	10	10	10	10	10	8	9
8. Info about website on social media (SMM)	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	0	10
9. Speed of page loading	10	10	8	10	10	10	10	10	8	10
10. Absence of broken hyperlinks	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	9	10
TOTAL evaluation	71,5	74	84	93	85	76	83	85	72	70

Factor and its elements	Jūrmala hospital	L AAC	MFD	ORTO	Premium Medical	Radiosurgery Centre Sigulda Cyberknife	RSU Institute of Stomatology	Sigulda hospital	Valters Prosthetic Laboratory	VC4	Weight Loss Latvia
1. Ease of using website (UI)	5	5	5	5	5	5	0	5	5	5	5
a. Does a website have mobile/responsive version?	5	5	5	5	5	5	0	5	5	5	5
b. Is website suited for people with poor vision?	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
2. Languages	10	10	10	10	5	10	5	5	10	10	10
a. Website is translated in foreign languages	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5	5
b. Is information the same in all languages?	5	5	5	5	0	5	0	0	5	5	5

Factor and its elements	Jūrnala hospital	LAAC	MFD	ORTO	Premium Medical	Radiosurgery Centre Sigulda Cyberknife	RSU Institute of Stomatology	Sigulda hospital	Valters Prosthetic Laboratory	VC4	Weight Loss Latvia
3. Content structure and relevance (Value)	9	10	9	9	9	8	8	8	10	7,5	8
a. Does provider have a visual identity (logo)?	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
b. A full list of services is published	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
c. Staff CVs and photos are published	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	0,5	1
d. Company certificates are mentioned	0	1	1	0	1	0	0	1	1	1	1
e. Scientific achievements are mentioned	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	1	0,5	1
f. Website has contacts section with a map	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1
g. Website has interior and exterior photos	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0,5	1
h. Pricing information is available	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	1	0
i. Information about payments is available	1	1	1	1	1	0	1	1	1	0	0
4. Separate section for foreign patients (Segment)	0	10	0	10	0	5	0	0	10	10	10
5. Indexing on search engines (SEO) – Google, Yandex	2	8	2	4	2	4	4	0	2	8	2
Medical tourism Latvia	0	2	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	2	0
Clinics in Latvia	0	0	0	2	0	0	2	0	0	2	0
Медицинский туризм в Латвии	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0
Лечение в Латвии	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Other (depending on specialization)	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	0	2	2	2
6. Available sales and communication channels (CS)	6	6	6	6	10	8	6	6	6	8	10
a. Phone, e-mail, contact form	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6	6
b. A separate phone or e-mail for foreign patients	0	0	0	0	2	2	0	0	0	2	2
c. Chat window	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
7. Hyperlink titles and info structure (UX)	8	8	8	8	5	10	7	10	5	10	10
8. Info about website on social media (SMM)	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	0	10	10	10

Factor and its elements	Jūrmala hospital	LAAC	MFD	ORTO	Premium Medical	Radiosurgery Centre Sigulda Cyberknife	RSU Institute of Stomatology	Sigulda hospital	Valters Prosthetic Laboratory	VC4	Weight Loss Latvia
9. Speed of page loading	9	10	10	8	10	5	8	10	10	10	10
10. Absence of broken hyperlinks	10	10	10	10	5	10	10	10	10	10	10
TOTAL evaluation	69	87	70	80	61	75	58	54	78	88,5	85

THE INFORMATION CHANNELS THAT MATTER: THE CASE OF SOCIAL ENTERPRISE CUSTOMERS IN LATVIA

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ABSTRACT

Social entrepreneurship is becoming more and more popular as there is a growing share of people who would like to contribute for social enterprises and are ready to become customers of the social enterprises and in this way participate in reduction of poverty in the country and support entrepreneurship development. For social enterprise marketing communications to be effective, an understanding is necessary not only of the information channels which are most effective but also of the preferences customers hold regarding the information channels that they would like to receive information from. Purpose of research: to investigate the preferences for different information channels among customers of Latvian social enterprises. Research methods: scientific publications analysis, analysis of previous conducted research results, social enterprise customers' survey conducted by Kristīne Casno. Results of research have indicated that regular customers of social enterprises prefer such information channels as social networks, followed by television and radio.

KEYWORDS: *social enterprise, information channels, decision making, social entrepreneurship, survey*

JEL CODES: M14; M31; M38

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.1991>

Introduction

Social entrepreneurship is becoming more and more popular as there is a growing share of people who would like to contribute for social enterprises and are ready to become customers of the social enterprises and in this way participate in reduction of poverty in the country and support entrepreneurship development. However, social enterprises operate under tight budget constraints and have limited funds available for marketing purposes. Therefore, they have to make sure they select the right communication channels for their message to reach both their existing and potential customers. Although general information on information channels and their effectiveness is available, what social enterprises usually lack is the knowledge of the actual preferences of their customers with regards to the information channels that they would like to receive the information from.

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Purpose of research: to investigate the preferences for different information channels among customers of Latvian social enterprises.

Tasks of research: 1) to analyze recent research findings on social entrepreneurship development and information channel effectiveness reflected in recent scientific publications; 2) analyze the preferences of social enterprise customers with regards to information channels that they would like to receive information about social enterprises from 3) analyze if there are any differences in preferences among consumers with regards to their age, gender and place of residence.

Research methods: scientific publications analysis, analysis of previous conducted research results, social enterprise customers' survey conducted by Kristīne Casno. For survey data analysis indicators of descriptive statistics (indicators of central tendency or location (arithmetic means, mode, median), indicators of variability (range, variance, standard deviation, standard error of mean), cross-tabulations, testing statistical hypotheses with t-test, analysis of variance (ANOVA), as well as correlation analysis are applied.

Results of research have indicated that regular customers of social enterprises prefer to receive information from such information channels as social networks, followed by television and radio.

1. Overview of research on social entrepreneurship

Research world-wide has paid a lot of academic researchers' attention to several aspects of social entrepreneurship including social mission as competitive advantage with analysis of the strategic conditions of social entrepreneurship (Muñoz, Kimmitt, 2019: 859; Sekliuckiene, Kisielius, 2015: 1017; Currym, Donker, Michel, 2016: 112) as well as performance relationship to different approaches of marketing (Palacios-Marqués, et al, 2019: 429) and innovation applications for sustainable development (Geradts, Bocken, 2019: 81) and social innovations (Ko, Liu, 2019: 781); social innovations and sustainable entrepreneurship (Satu, 2019: 551). Research results on social entrepreneurship in non-governmental organizations toward a realistic theory of social entrepreneurship has grounded on microfinance research and finding ways on selling dreams to society (Arvind, 2019: 312). As social enterprises during last years are created and developing and contributing to national economy and also to social security – often there arises a question: what will be next (Bacq, Janssen, Noel, 2019: 842). Questions on risk of social enterprises are often asked by entrepreneurs and by researchers (Sukwoong, Namil, Wonjoon, 2019: 935). Researchers and teachers state questions on readiness of university students for social entrepreneurship (Wenke, Tang, Liu, 2019: 41). Value drivers of social businesses and business model perspectives are on research agenda with finding the best possible solutions (Spieth, Schneider, Clauss, 2019: 441) and investigations of several approaches to find the best possible solution for social entrepreneurship (Martinez, Rubio, Fernandez, 2019: 456).

Analysis of approaches in achieving sustainability through Schumpeterian social entrepreneurship and the role of social enterprises are investigated by many scientists including (Rahdari, Sepasi, Moradi, 2016: 356) and on different success factors (Pal, Altay, 2019: 176). Different fields of national economy are analyzed in respect to social entrepreneurship like (Aquino, Lück, Schänzel, 2018: 28) in the field of tourism with a conceptual framework of tourism social entrepreneurship for sustainable community development – including significant engagement and development of disadvantaged and underdeveloped communities sustainably through the tourism industry with suggested practical and innovative approaches. Social entrepreneurship is investigated in respect of creating value in the context of institutional complexity (Cherrier, Goswami, Ray, 2018: 251) analyzing global companies, SMEs, management differences by gender, and many other factors. In numerous research it has been indicated that women have a very special role in social entrepreneurship even giving “women as vectors of social entrepreneurship” (Kimbua, Ngoasong, 2016: 71). Different countries have different approaches for social entrepreneurship (Korstenbroek, Smets, 2019: 484; Ayman, Johnson, 2019: 531; Lall, 2019: 573). Although many aspects of social entrepreneurship have been researched, the area of social enterprise marketing has received relatively less attention from the academic researchers and is therefore an interesting field of study with practical implications for social enterprise.

2. Relative importance and effectiveness of various information channels in marketing

The overwhelming amount of information today that people encounter makes it more and more difficult for companies to convey their marketing message to consumers effectively. In the digital era communication is changing from previously so common one-way communication to a many-to-many communication model where consumers hold a fair share of power that companies must become aware of (Klepek, Starzyczna, 2018: 501). Businesses have turned to integrated marketing communication with a deeper focus on the consumer and a unified message across all communication channels for a greater impact (Duralia, 2018: 94). Regardless of the communication channel, one must evaluate their strengths and weaknesses. For example, while television is highly effective because of the possibility to combine visuals with sound, the costs are high and it is impossible to select whom to target the message to. Direct mail, on the other hand, allows to select the audiences, but is associated with high costs and has earned a negative reputation. Radio allows audience selection as well, but is limited only to sound which diminishes the efficiency of this information channel. Using internet, including social networks, for communication of information, is a relatively low cost option which allows to select audiences but the message has to compete with millions of others in the digital networks (Kotler, Keller, 2016: 616).

Irrespective of the dominance of internet in modern digital era, consumers are still highly influenced by traditional mass media information channels (Pešek, 2012: 48). Television is found to be most efficient, print media the least efficient but internet, used separately, the second least efficient marketing communication channel. Therefore, for best results internet as a channel should be combined with traditional media (Stolyarova, Rialp, 2014: 213). Given the challenges in communication today, an in-depth understanding of the information channels that social enterprise consumers prefer to receive information from, would provide practical insights for social enterprises that could increase the effectiveness of their marketing communication.

3. Empirical research methodology and main results

For data collection purposes authors used quantitative research in the form of the customers' of social enterprises survey. It was distributed over a period of 2 months through social networks with support from Latvian Social Entrepreneurship Association and Latvian social enterprises. Possible respondents got invitation to participate in the survey and if the possible respondent have not filled the survey, invitation was sent in two weeks and a third time reminder was sent after four weeks. Respondents were asked a set of questions to investigate in-depth insight about the purchasing habits and opinions of Latvian social enterprise product consumers. Among other questions, the respondents were also asked to indicate their preference on a scale from 1 (would not like to receive) to 10 (would like to receive) towards receiving information about social enterprises and their offerings across various information channels.

The survey was completed by 329 respondents (the number of fully completed surveys was 224), 84% of them female, 16% male of whom more than 80% were of age 16–45 and held either a master's or bachelor's degree. The number of respondents who had not made any purchases of social enterprises' products or services during 2018 was only 63. Most respondents (46.8%) had made purchases 1–4 times during 2018, 11% of respondents – 5–8 times, 5.9% – 9–12 times, and 9.7% of respondents – 13 times and more. Overall, consumers of Latvian social enterprise products indicated on average the highest preference for such information channels as social networks, television and radio, as reflected in Table 1.

Table 1. Main statistic indicators of respondents, who had made purchases from social enterprises in 2018, preference for receiving information about social enterprises across information channels

	Printed media	E-mail	Radio	Social networks	Direct mail	Television
Mean	4.22	5.21	6.46	8.25	2.28	6.52
Mode	1	1	8	10	1	10
N	143	157	148	166	144	155
Std. Deviation	2.929	3.229	2.651	2.076	2.218	3.059
Median	4	5	7	9	1	8
Std. Error of Mean	0.245	0.258	0.218	0.161	0.185	0.246
Range	9	9	9	9	9	9

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristīne Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

Social networks are clearly the most preferred means of communication about Latvian social enterprises and their offerings among existing social enterprise customers, which confirms the appealing nature of interactive internet communications.

Respondents who had not made any purchases from Latvian social enterprises during 2018 compared to those who had, indicated on average lower scores across all information channels, as reflected in Table 2, however social networks, television and radio still remain in the leading positions which suggests that aforementioned are equally optimal for communication with both existing as well as new customers.

Table 2. Main statistic indicators of respondents, who had not made purchases from social enterprises in 2018, preference for receiving information about social enterprises across information channels

	Printed media	E-mail	Radio	Social networks	Direct mail	Television
Mean	2.75	4.00	5.76	7.07	1.76	5.89
Mode	1	1	1	10	1	10
N	52	53	54	59	51	55
Std. Deviation	2.848	3.223	3.174	2.924	1.807	3.665
Median	1	2	6	8	1	6
Std. Error of Mean	0.395	0.443	0.432	0.381	0.253	0.494
Range	9	9	9	9	8	9

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristīne Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

Taking into account that social enterprises are usually restricted by tight financial and human resources, the understanding of frequent shoppers' communication preferences across various information channels is of utmost importance for sustainable operations of the social enterprise. While those who made purchases from social enterprises more than 13 times during 2018 indicated on average higher scores across all information channels compared to the rest of consumer base among respondents which confirms the previously defined trend of social networks, television and radio as the most preferred means of communication, the Authors found the relatively high value of mean and mode for e-mail as information channel particularly interesting in this consumer group, as reflected in Table 3.

Table 3. Main statistic indicators of respondents, who had made purchases from social enterprises 13 times and more in 2018, preference for receiving information about social enterprises across information channels

	Printed media	E-mail	Radio	Social networks	Direct mail	Television
Mean	4.38	6.17	6.70	8.48	2.12	7.25
Mode	2	8	8; 10	10	1	10
N	16	18	20	21	16	20
Std. Deviation	2.872	2.684	2.774	1.914	2.062	2.693
Median	3.5	5.5	7.5	9	1	8
Std. Error of Mean	0.718	0.633	0.620	0.418	0.515	0.602
Range	9	9	8	7	8	8

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristīne Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

Correlation analysis identified a statistically significant (sig 0,006) correlation relationship which suggests that consumers who indicated a higher preference for e-mail as an information channel on average made purchases from social enterprises more often.

Table 4. Correlation analysis results (consumer shopping frequency and preference for e-mail as an information channel)

Correlations			
		How many times did you purchase products/ services of social enterprises in 2018?	E-mail
How many times did you purchase products/ services of social enterprises in 2018?	Pearson Correlation	1	0,220**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,006
	N	174	157
E-mail	Pearson Correlation	0,220**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,006	
	N	157	157

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristīne Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

Such results suggest that, despite rather big differences in evaluations of respondents with very different indicators of central tendency or location (arithmetic mean, mode and median) and rather big indicators of variability, e-mail as an information channel may still serve as an effective mean of communication with a high potential to bring in sales for Latvian social enterprises. Authors did not recognize any other statistically significant correlations between consumers' shopping frequency and preference for other information channels.

Authors were also interested to investigate how the patterns for the preference for receipt of information across various information differed among various consumer age (16–55) groups, as reflected in Table 5.

Table 5. Main statistic indicators of preferences for receipt of information across different information channels in various consumer age groups

Age group	Statistical indicators	Printed media	E-mail	Radio	Social networks	Direct mail	Television
16–25 years	Mean	4.93	6.07	7.00	8.27	1.69	6.13
	N	14	15	15	15	13	15
	Std. Deviation	3.385	3.327	2.420	2.404	1.109	3.399
	Std. Error of Mean	0.905	0.859	0.625	0.621	0.308	0.878
	Range	9	9	8	9	3	9
26–35 years	Mean	3.97	5.23	6.47	8.26	1.89	6.51
	N	60	65	64	70	62	68
	Std. Deviation	2.531	3.131	2.714	2.076	1.812	3.141
	Std. Error of Mean	0.327	0.388	0.339	0.248	0.230	0.381
	Range	9	9	9	9	8	9
36–45 years	Mean	4.08	5.02	6.15	8.42	2.32	6.26
	N	39	45	41	50	41	42
	Std. Deviation	3.064	3.265	2.780	1.991	2.339	3.029
	Std. Error of Mean	0.491	0.487	0.434	0.282	0.365	0.467
	Range	9	9	9	9	9	9
46–55 years	Mean	4.13	6.24	6.07	8.24	3.81	7.18
	N	16	17	14	17	16	17
	Std. Deviation	2.986	3.364	2.464	1.985	2.786	3.005
	Std. Error of Mean	0.747	0.816	0.659	0.481	0.697	0.729
	Range	9	9	7	7	7	9

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristīne Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

E-mail communication is overall most preferred by consumers of age groups 46–55 and 16–25. E-mail as an information channel is positively appreciated (score 8 and above) by 60% of consumers in the age group 16–25 and 41.2% of consumers in the age group 46–55, leaving such age groups as 26–35 and 36–45 behind with 32.3% and 26.7% of positive scores (score 8 and above) respectively. Radio as an information channel is most preferred by the younger consumers of age 16–25, 53.3% of whom indicate scores of 8 and above for this information channel, followed by the age group 26–35 with 40.6% of scores 8 and above. Authors find it interesting that social networks have the highest mean indicator of 8.42 among age group of 36–45, leaving other age groups behind. It must be noted that positive scores (8 and above) for social networks are indicated by 82.4% of consumers in the age group of 46–55, 80% of consumers in the age group 36–45, 73.3% of consumers in the age group 16–25 and 77.1% of consumers in the age group 26–35, which makes social networks an attractive information channel for communication across all of them, especially with consumers of age 36 plus. Compared with other information channels, social networks have also received the lowest percent of scores below 3 (included) across all age groups. Direct mail is clearly the least preferred information channel across all age groups. More than 80% of consumers in all age groups, indicate scores below 3 for this information channel, except age group 46–55 years with almost 54%. There is recognised a statistically significant correlational relationship between consumer age and consumer preference for direct mail, as evidenced by the results of correlation analysis reflected in Table 6 which data suggest that the preference for direct mail as an information channel tends to increase on average with increase of consumer age.

Table 6. Correlation analysis results (consumer age and preference for direct mail as an information channel)

Correlations			
		Age group	Direct mail
Age group	Pearson Correlation	1	0,196*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0,023
	N	159	134
Direct mail	Pearson Correlation	0,196*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0,023	
	N	134	144

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristine Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

Television as an information channel is highly preferred (scores of 8 and above) by consumers of the age group 46–55 (58.8% of respondents), followed by age groups 26–35 (50% respondents), 36–45 (47.6% respondents) and 16–25 (40% respondents). The popularity of printed media is below average. This information channel is most preferred (scores of 8 and above) by youngest consumers of age 16–25 (21.4%; mean indicator of 4.93), followed by consumers of age 46–55 (18.8%, mean indicator of 4.13). It must be noted that Authors find the differences in consumer preferences for various information channels across all age groups to be statistically significant, except for direct mail, as reflected in Table 7.

Table 7. ANOVA results on investigation of differences in respondent evaluations on information channels by respondent age groups

ANOVA						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Printed media	Between Groups	10.634	3	3.545	0.436	0.728
	Within Groups	1017.381	125	8.139		
	Total	1028.016	128			
E-mail	Between Groups	26.710	3	8.903	0.858	0.465
	Within Groups	1432.508	138	10.380		
	Total	1459.218	141			
Radio	Between Groups	9.833	3	3.278	0.456	0.713
	Within Groups	933.988	130	7.185		
	Total	943.821	133			
Social networks	Between Groups	.924	3	0.308	0.072	0.975
	Within Groups	635.544	148	4.294		
	Total	636.467	151			
Direct mail	Between Groups	51.425	3	17.142	3.987	0.009
	Within Groups	550.294	128	4.299		
	Total	601.720	131			
Television	Between Groups	12.128	3	4.043	0.415	0.742
	Within Groups	1343.308	138	9.734		
	Total	1355.437	141			

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristine Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

Authors were also interested to investigate if there were any differences in preference for various information channels among men and women. Overall, while women tend to prefer social networks, followed by radio and television, men are more reserved with regards to social networks as an information channel. While for men social networks still hold the highest mean indicator, their second most popular choice of communication according to mean indicators is e-mail, followed by television, as reflected in Table 8.

Table 8. Main statistical indicators for preferences of receipt of information across various information channels by gender

Gender		Printed Media	E-mail	Radio	Social networks	Direct mail	Television
Woman	Mean	4.22	5.14	6.66	8.41	2.13	6.65
	N	113	126	119	136	115	126
	Std. Deviation	2.899	3.249	2.641	1.930	2.054	3.078
	Median	4	5	7	9	1	8
	Std. Error of Mean	0.273	0.289	0.242	0.166	0.192	0.274
	Range	9	9	9	9	9	9
Man	Mean	3.65	6.41	5.13	7.25	2.53	5.24
	N	17	17	16	16	17	17
	Std. Deviation	2.805	3.022	2.553	2.887	2.322	3.093
	Median	2	7	5	8	1	5
	Std. Error of Mean	0.680	0.733	0.638	0.722	0.563	0.750
	Range	7	9	8	9	7	8

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristīne Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

With regards to e-mail communication, 41% of men compared to 33% of women identified a score of 8 and above. The proportion of the lowest scores from 1 to 3 was also lower for men (only 24% compared to 37% for women). The differences among men and women with regards to their preference for communication via radio was also interesting – 45% of women provided scores of 8 and above compared to 19% of males. A larger proportion of men also provided low scores of 1 to 3 for this information channel – 31% compared to only 13% of women. Social networks, while holding the most preferred position for both genders, were still more preferred by women – 79% of women provided scores of 8 and above compared to 63% of men. While for both genders television is the third most popular choice of information channel, 51% of females provided scores of 8 and above, compared to only 35% of males, independent samples t-test confirmed statistically significant differences in preferences for such information channels as social networks and radio between men and women.

Table 9. Results of the independent samples t-test on evaluations of different information channels by respondent's gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances	t-test for Equality of Means					
		<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Sig. (2-tailed)</i>	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Diff.
Printed media	Equal variances assumed	0.038	0.846	0.764	128	0.446	0.574	0.751
	Equal variances not assumed			0.783	21.478	0.442	0.574	0.733
E-mail	Equal variances assumed	0.527	0.469	-1.523	141	0.130	-1.269	0.833
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.610	21.313	0.122	-1.269	0.788
Radio	Equal variances assumed	0.192	0.662	2.185	133	0.031	1.530	0.701
	Equal variances not assumed			2.242	19.575	0.037	1.530	0.683
Social networks	Equal variances assumed	4.457	0.036	2.148	150	0.033	1.162	0.541
	Equal variances not assumed			1.569	16.614	0.135	1.162	0.740
Direct mail	Equal variances assumed	0.856	0.357	-0.735	130	0.464	-0.399	0.543
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.671	19.880	0.510	-0.399	0.595
Television	Equal variances assumed	0,008	0.931	1.779	141	0.077	1.415	0.796
	Equal variances not assumed			1.772	20.516	0.091	1.415	0.799

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristine Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

It was investigated if there were any differences in preference for various information channels depending on the consumers' place of residence, reflected in Table 10.

Table 10. Main statistical indicators for preferences of receipt of information across various information channels by consumers' place of residence

Place of Residence		Printed media	E-mail	Radio	Social networks	Direct mail	Television
Riga	Mean	3.79	5.51	6.32	8.46	2.11	6.27
	N	72	77	74	83	73	79
	Std. Deviation	2.653	3.251	2.639	2.014	2.052	3.201
	Std. Error of Mean	0.313	0.370	0.307	0.221	0.240	0.360
	Range	9	9	9	9	8	9
Municipalities surrounding Riga	Mean	4.45	4.80	6.00	8.50	2.26	6.36
	N	22	25	22	24	23	22
	Std. Deviation	3.004	2.915	2.760	1.383	1.738	3.259
	Std. Error of Mean	0.640	0.583	0.588	0.282	0.362	0.695
	Range	9	9	9	4	6	9
Kurzeme region	Mean	5.00	6.33	7.30	8.15	2.82	6.55
	N	10	12	10	13	11	11
	Std. Deviation	3.162	2.934	2.111	2.478	2.994	3.236
	Std. Error of Mean	1.000	0.847	0.667	0.687	0.903	0.976
	Range	9	9	6	9	9	9
Vidzeme region	Mean	4.39	4.89	6.61	7.50	2.31	7.15
	N	18	19	18	20	16	20
	Std. Deviation	3.381	3.665	2.973	2.724	2.522	2.519
	Std. Error of Mean	0.797	0.841	0.701	0.609	0.631	0.563
	Range	9	9	9	9	8	9
Zemgale region	Mean	4.80	5.00	7.17	8.62	2.00	7.15
	N	10	11	12	13	10	13
	Std. Deviation	2.898	3.406	2.725	1.387	2.211	2.968
	Std. Error of Mean	0.917	1.027	0.787	0.385	0.699	0.823
	Range	7	9	9	4	7	9

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristīne Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

Overall, printed media was rated by consumers with the average score (arithmetic mean) of 5 or below in all regions. E-mail as an information channel was most preferred in Kurzeme region, based on mean indicators. 42% of consumers provided scores of 8 or above for e-mail communication in this region, while only 28% of consumers – in municipalities surrounding Riga. Radio as an information channel is also most preferred by consumers in Kurzeme. Scores of 8 or above were provided by 60% of consumers from this region, followed by 50% of consumers from Vidzeme and 41% of consumers from Riga. Social networks as an information channel were most preferred by consumers from Kurzeme (85% of scores 8 and above), followed by consumers from Riga (82% of scores 8 and above) and consumers from Zemgale (77% of scores 8 and above). Direct mail as an information channel was rated on average below 3 by consumers in all regions. Communication over television, compared with other regions, was slightly more preferred by consumers in Kurzeme – 64% provided scores of 8 and above, followed by 54% of scores of 8 and above in Kurzeme and 50% of scores of 8 and above in Riga and Vidzeme. However, the Authors found that the differences in preferences of receipt of information across various information channels are not statistically significant by consumers' place of residence, as reflected in Table 11.

Table 11. ANOVA results on investigation of differences in respondent evaluations on information channels by place of residence

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Printed media	Between Groups	23.762	4	5.941	0.719	0.580
	Within Groups	1049.207	127	8.261		
	Total	1072.970	131			
E-mail	Between Groups	26.297	4	6.574	0.626	0.645
	Within Groups	1459.703	139	10.501		
	Total	1486.000	143			
Radio	Between Groups	19.475	4	4.869	0.678	0.608
	Within Groups	940.261	131	7.178		
	Total	959.735	135			
Social networks	Between Groups	17.288	4	4.322	1.041	0.388
	Within Groups	614.372	148	4.151		
	Total	631.660	152			
Direct mail	Between Groups	5.473	4	1.368	0.293	0.882
	Within Groups	598.632	128	4.677		
	Total	604.105	132			
Television	Between Groups	18.770	4	4.693	0.485	0.746
	Within Groups	1353.478	140	9.668		
	Total	1372.248	144			

Source: Authors' construction based on questionnaire developed by Kristīne Casno and survey conducted in 2019, evaluation scale 1–10, where 1 – would not like to receive; 10 – would like to receive, $n = 329$

Overall, consumers prefer to receive information about social enterprises and their offerings over social networks the most, followed by television and radio. There exist statistically significant differences in preferences among age groups for various information channels except for direct mail. There is also find statistically significant differences in preferences by gender for such information channels as social networks and radio. However, consumers do not statistically significantly differ in their preferences for information channels depending on their place of residence.

Conclusions

Latvian social enterprise consumers prefer to receive information about social enterprises and their goods and services via social networks the most, followed by television and radio. The same holds true for potential consumers of social enterprise products and services and customers, who have made purchases more often than once a month. However, customers who made purchases more often than once a month also regard e-mail communication highly, confirmed by a statistically significant correlational relationship. This suggests that e-mail communication may have potential to increase Latvian social enterprise sales.

There are statistically significant differences in preference for various information channels across several consumer age groups, except for direct mail.

E-mail communication is most appreciated by consumers of age groups 16–25 and 46–55, radio is most preferred by consumers of age groups 16–25 and 26–35. Social networks are most preferred by consumers of age group 46–55, followed by age group of 36–45, 16–25 and 26–35. Direct mail overall is the least preferred information channel in all age groups, however, as consumer age increases the preference for direct mail tends to increase on average, which is confirmed by a statistically significant correlational relationship. Television is most favored by consumers of age group 46–55 and 26–35.

Printed media received scores below average and is generally most preferred by the younger consumers of age 16–25, followed by age group of 46–55. While both men and women prefer to receive information via

social networks the most, the second and third most preferred options for women are radio and television, but for men – e-mail and television. With regards such information channels as social networks and radio, there are statistically significant differences in preferences of information channel use between genders for consumption of goods and services offered by social enterprises.

Social networks, while being the most preferred choice of communication medium for both men and women, received statistically significantly higher scores from women. With regards radio, women also expressed statistically significantly more positive attitude than men. Men expressed a more pronounced dislike for this information channel providing a greater proportion of low scores (1–3) than women.

Women also indicated higher scores for television, however, men showed a higher preference for e-mail communication. Authors also investigated potential differences in consumer preferences for various information channels depending on their place of residence. E-mail communication, based on comparison of arithmetic means, was most preferred by consumers in Kurzeme, followed by consumers in Riga and municipalities surrounding Riga.

Radio, based on comparison of arithmetic means, was most preferred by consumers in Kurzeme, followed by consumers in Zemgale and Vidzeme. Social networks, based on comparison of arithmetic means, were most preferred by consumers in Zemgale, followed by consumers in municipalities surrounding Riga and consumers in Riga. Direct mail was considered as less important information channel – received lowest evaluations with arithmetic mean scores below 3 (in 1–10 point scale) from consumers in all regions.

Television was most preferred information channel by consumers in Vidzeme and Zemgale, followed by consumers in Kurzeme for consumption of goods and services offered by social enterprises.

Printed media was most preferred by consumers in Kurzeme, followed by consumers in Zemgale and consumers in municipalities surrounding Riga. Although there were no statistically significant differences identified in preference for information channels depending on customers' place of residence, taking them into account may still have a positive effect on communication efficiency of Latvian social enterprises

Given the position of social networks as the most preferred information channel, it is of utmost importance for social enterprise marketing specialists to invest time and resources for quality relationship building with existing and potential customers via social networks, taking into account that social networks are more preferred by women.

It is advised for social enterprise marketing specialists to take into account the differences in preference for various information channels depending on consumer age, gender and place of residence.

E-mail communication may have potential to increase sales, especially for social enterprises from Kurzeme region with a high proportion of male customers which should be taken into account by marketing specialists.

Direct mail is the least preferred means of communication among consumers, the preference for direct mail increases with consumer age, which should be taken into account by social enterprises with consumers of older age groups.

Social networks and e-mail communication are relatively low budget options that social enterprises can and should use, the high scores consumers indicated for such traditional information channels as radio and television cannot be ignored.

The synergy effect of integrated marketing communications, support is needed from the Ministry of Welfare in the form of additional funding for radio and TV programmes and possibly advertising campaigns that would help generate greater publicity and public awareness about social enterprises and their role in promoting social inclusion, sustainable regional development and other important social and economic aspects.

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SVARBŪS INFORMACINIAI KANALAI: SOCIALINĒS ĪMONĒS KLIENTŪ ATVEJO LATVIJOJE ANALIZĒ

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Santrauka

Socialinis verslumas vis populārēja, nes daudģja žmoniģ, kurie norģtģ prisidģti prie socialiniģ ģmoniģ veiklos, yra pasirengģ tapti socialiniģ ģmoniģ klientais ir taip dalyvauti, siekdami maģinti skurdģ šalyje bei remti verslumo plģtrģ.

Norint, kad socialiniģ ģmoniģ rinkodaros komunikacija bģtģ veiksminga, reikia ne tik atrasti veiksmingiausius informacijos kanalus, bet ir suprasti, kokiais prioritetiniais informaciniais kanalais klientai naudojami, iš kuriģ kanalģ norģtģ gauti informacijos.

Tyrimu siekta iģtirti Latvijos socialiniģ ģmoniģ klientģ informaciniģ kanalģ pasirinkimģ. Tyrimo metodai: moksliniģ publikacijģ analizģ, anksģiau atliktģ tyrimģ rezultatģ analizģ. Tyrimo rezultatai atskleidģ, kad nuolatiniai socialiniģ ģmoniģ klientai renkasi tokius informacijos kanalus kaip socialiniai tinklai, tada televizija ir radijas. Tas pats pasakytina ir apie potencialius socialiniģ ģmoniģ produktģ bei paslaugģ vartotojus ir klientus, kurie pirko daģniau nei kartģ per mėnesģ. Klientai, kurie pirko daģniau nei kartģ per mėnesģ, taip pat labai vertina bendravimģ el. paģtu, tai patvirtina statistiģkai reikģmingas ryģys. Taigi bendravimas el. paģtu gali didinti Latvijos socialiniģ ģmoniģ pardavimus. Ryģģ el. paģtu labiausiai vertina 16–25 ir 46–55 metģ vartotojai, radijģ paprastai renkasi 16–25 ir 26–35 metģ vartotojai. Socialinius tinklus labiausiai mėgsta 46–55 metģ amģiaus vartotojai, maģiau – 36–45, 16–25 ir 26–35 metģ grupģs. Tiesioginis paģtas apskritai yra maģiausiai pageidaujamas informacijos kanalas visose amģiaus grupģse, taģiau, atsiģvelgiant į tai, kad vyresni vartotojai vis tiek naudojami paģtu, kaip informacijos kanalo jo visiģkai atsisakyti negalima, tai patvirtina statistiģkai reikģmingas koreliacinis ryģys. Televizijģ labiausiai mėgsta 46–55 ir 26–35 metģ amģiaus vartotojai. Socialiniai tinklai ir bendravimas el. paģtu yra maģo biudģeto priemonģs, kuriomis gali ir turģtģ naudotis socialinģs ģmonģs, tiesa, nereikģtģ ignoruoti ir aukģsto lygio vartotojģ, nurodytģ tokiems tradiciniams informacijos kanalams kaip radijas ir televizija.

PAGRINDINIAI ŹODŹIAI: *socialinģ ģmonģ, informacijos kanalai, sprendimģ priėmimas, socialinis verslumas, apklausa.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: M14; M31; M38.

Received: 2019-08-21

Revised: 2019-09-14

Accepted: 2019-10-01

MATERIAL DEPRIVATION: A CASE OF LATVIA

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ABSTRACT

Material deprivation has recently gained prominence as a topic of debate as its proliferation is rising throughout Europe in particular in the countries hit hardest by financial and economic turbulences what leads to the gap in material deprivation levels throughout Europe. The aim of the study is to analyze material deprivation in the regions of Latvia. Research methods used in preparation of the paper: scientific publication and previous conducted research results analysis, analysis of anonimised data of EU-SILC survey results and European Central Bank conducted survey on Household income and expenses survey results, results are compared with the results of other EU countries. Survey anonimised data are analyzed using indicators of descriptive statistics, cross-tabulations for regions of Latvia, for urban-rural living and analysis of variance – ANOVA are used. The results of analysis have indicated in what situation are regions of Latvia in the context of material deprivation especially in Latgale region and what are the challenges for decision makers to deal with – more attention for several approaches in reduction of income differences in regions of Latvia.

KEYWORDS: *material deprivation, regional development, EU-SILC, Latvia.*

JEL CODES: K2; K11

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.1992>

Introduction

The analysis of the material deprivation is essential for a country and it is also an important question whether households which cannot afford basic things for standard living are growing or decreasing. According to the statistics, more than 600 thousand people have left Latvia since 1991 (CSB of Republic of Latvia, 2019). Especially dramatic situation is in the regions where the level of living is lower than in cities especially in big cities and material deprivation becomes higher.

Taking into account all mentioned before, the purpose of the study is to analyze material deprivation in the regions of Latvia.

In order to achieve the purpose, the tasks are formulated as follows:

- 1) to review theoretical background of material deprivation in context of regional development;
- 2) to review existing research of material deprivation in the regions in EU;
- 3) to analyze problems of material deprivation in the regions of Latvia.

Research methods used: scientific publications and previous conducted research results analysis, analysis of “The European Union Statistics on Income and Living Conditions“ (EU-SILC) results (in 2014–2017)

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and European Central Bank conducted survey on Household income and expenses survey results (HFCS), results are compared with the results of other Eurozone countries. For statistical data analysis there are used main indicators of descriptive statistics (arithmetic means, standard deviations and standard error of means), *t* – test for testing differences of means by two independent characteristics – territories (cities and rural areas) and for testing differences of arithmetic means by six independent characteristics – regions of Latvia was used one of the most often used multivariate analysis method: analysis of variance – ANOVA.

1. Theoretical findings on material deprivation in regions: theoretical framework

The concept of material deprivation was first introduced in 1980s by Peter Townsend who defined deprivation as “an observable and demonstrable disadvantage relative to the local community or the wider society or nation to which the individual, family our group belong”. According to this definition, person is considered deprived if she or he lives below standards of living of the majority of the population or below the level of living what is considered socially acceptable. It means that person is deprived if she or he lacks such things as normal food, clothing, housing, commodities, activities to participate in society etc. (Townsend, 1987: 144). However, things considered to be as minimum necessity of socially acceptable living may change – for example, internet and modern technologies – which was not necessary 40 years ago, but it is now.

During the last 20 years different deprivation indices have been proposed in different fields, for example, well-being, healthcare, however, also methodology of these indices differ. (Fu, Exeter, Anderson, 2015: 32; Gradin, Canto, del Río, 2014: 659).

Material deprivation concept is also recognized by the European Union and indicators which measures material deprivation are included in social inclusion indicators, but indicator – severe material deprivation – is a part of Europe 2020 strategy. (Europe 2020 indicators, 2018)

Material deprivation by Eurostat (2018) is defined as “a state of economic strain and durables, defined as the enforced inability (rather than the choice not to do so) to pay unexpected expenses, afford a one-week annual holiday away from home, a meal involving meat, chicken or fish every second day, the adequate heating of a dwelling, durable goods like a washing machine, color television, telephone or car, being confronted with payment arrears (mortgage or rent, utility bills, hire purchase instalments or other loan payments)”.

Interesting study of material deprivation in Europe indicates which expenditures households curtail first when face economic difficulties. The results of the study reveal that households first cut back their annual holidays, new furniture, leisure and social activities and if they financial resources decrease even further they are un able to afford meat, fish or equal vegetarian food every second day, a warm house and paying the bills, sometimes even two pair of shoes (Deutsch, Guio, Pomati, Silber, 2014: 19)

Often material deprivation is associated with income poverty and this is true – material deprivation as an enforced absence of goods is in most cases linked to reduced monetary resources, however Townsend (Townsend, 1979: 87) has paid attention that poverty does not automatically lead to material deprivation – there are households that after a poverty are still able to afford basic goods and there are also households that are materially deprived without being income poor. Study in Romania (Ulma, Isan, Mihai, 2018: 802) indicates that material deprivation and low-income level as main indicators of poverty are illustrative state of being individuals and development level of their belonging communities. They revealed that there are high differences between national and regional poverty levels and also a high level of inequalities regarding the standard of living of people form rural communities. Interesting is finding that women are more numerous assisted than man, but also women are more active on the labor market what may be seen as an evidence for gender inequality – employment in national and regional level is higher for men, and men also earn more than women what leads to conclusions that women having a job are more severe material deprived than men.

Commins (Commins, 2004: 71) has indicated that deprivation experienced may be different by urban and rural residents.

Study in Slovakia and Czech Republic (Zelinsky, 2012: 338) was researching relative material deprivation – concept of comparing relative people/households with others living in similar circumstances. Results

of this study indicate that there are significant differences in the relative material deprivation among the regions, for example, relative material deprivation is highly concentrated in the eastern part of Slovakia, but there is no such pattern observed in the Czech Republic.

The relationship between material deprivation, mortality and urbanization has been studied in small areas (parishes) in Lisbon indicating which are the problematic areas that could potentially benefit from public policies effecting social inequalities (Santana, Costa, Mari-Dell'Olmo, Gotsens, Borell, 2015: 11).

Some countries, for example, Argentina, Spain, England, Cyprus develop their own indices to measure material deprivation in small areas of the country (Duran, Condori, 2017: 359; Sanchez-Cantalejo, Ocana-Riola, Fernandez-Ajuria, 2007: 271; Burke, Jones, 2019: 98; Lamnisos, Lambrianidou, Middleton, 2019: 627).

Material deprivation in the context of social exclusion as well as subjective well-being among children has been studied in Israel (Gross-Manos, 2015; Gross-Manos, Ben-Arieh: 2016). Study of how subjective well-being is associated with material deprivation and social exclusion on 12-year-olds revealed that children who are materially deprived and socially excluded were at much greater risk for unhappiness, but material deprivation was more important to the subjective well-being of males, than females and for Jews than Arabs (Gross-Manos, Ben-Arieh, 2016: 287).

Some authors research chronic material deprivation and long-term poverty in Europe, indicating that in almost all countries of Europe people with high risks of chronic material deprivation and longitudinal poverty are those individuals or households who lack of full employment, those who have low educational qualifications, who are a member of a lone parent household or living in a household headed by a woman or by a very young or an elderly person (Papadopoulos, Tsakoglou, 2016: 34). Study in Hong Kong (Cheung, Chan, Chou, 2019: 64) researching material deprivation and in-work poverty concludes that workers with low education attainment, working in low-skill sectors and having temporary employment are likely to experience deprivation.

Material deprivation has been studied also in the context of neighborhood in Sweden and Canada (Hesselman, Wikstrom, Skalkidou, Sundstrom-Poromaa, 2019: 1006; Ross, Oliver, Villeneuve, 2013: 1389). The study in Canada was indicating that living in socially and materially deprived neighborhood is associated with an elevated risk of mortality, but the study in Sweden concluded that living in the deprived neighborhood has a high risk of preterm birth, small-for-gestational-age births and stillbirths.

Israel (Israel, 2016: 634) has researched material deprivation and societal influences between countries in different levels indicating that the main factor what explains cross-country variation in material deprivation is the provision of informal support from networks. However governments that provide their citizens with universal in-kind benefits increase consumption power and lower their risk of social exclusion.

2. Empirical research results

EU-SILC is the most complete harmonized survey on household income in Europe and methodology of data collection is realized by the same methodology in all EU countries, but not all aspects are analysed and included in CSB and Eurostat reports. It is common praxis that CSB of Republic of Latvia and Eurostat are providing anonimised data sets of the EU-SILC survey and researchers can use anonimised data files of EU-SILC survey and make much deeper statistical analysis with SPSS software by regions, by gender, by age groups, education level and other aspects which is not done by CSB or Eurostat. EU-SILC survey is conducted annually in line with *Eurostat* methodology in all European Union countries. In order to acquire information four questionnaires were developed and several sources of information was used: Household Register, Household Questionnaire Form and Individual Questionnaire Form.

One of the main study objects of the EU-SILC is annual income of a household – their composition and level, in 2017 sample size of EU-SILC in Republic of Latvia – 8 087 randomly selected respondents; Completed questionnaire sets were of 6014 households (anonimised data sets used for the current research); individual interviews (persons) – 11 304; non-response rate – 25.6% (CSB of Republic of Latvia, 2019).

It is important that anonymized data sets are available in SPSS files (authors of the paper have used them) for more detailed statistical data analysis – by statistical regions, by territories (cities or rural areas), by household size and by other indicators are possible to conduct by researchers as all aspects are not published by CSB.

2.1. Material deprivation in EU

In European Union material deprivation is being calculated using material deprivation rate which is an indicator in EU-SILC that expresses the inability to afford some items considered by most people to be desirable or even necessary to lead an adequate life. The indicator distinguishes between individuals who cannot afford a certain good or service, and those who do not have this good or service for another reason, e.g. because they do not want or do not need it. (Eurostat, 2018) If individual or household cannot afford three of nine items – it is the case of material deprivation.

Material deprivation rate consists of nine items: 1) to pay rent, mortgage or utility bills; 2) to keep their home adequately warm; 3) to face unexpected expenses; 4) to eat meat or proteins regularly; 5) to go on holiday; 6) to have a television set; 7) to have a washing machine; 8) to have a car; 9) to have a telephone. Material deprivation rate in European Union countries is included in Figure 1.

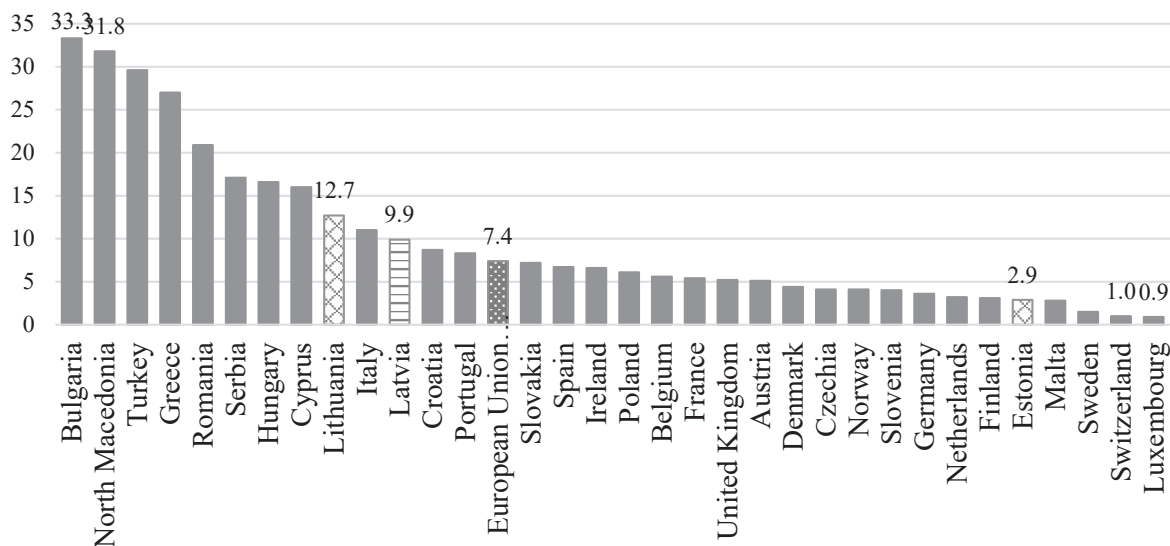


Figure 1. Material deprivation rate in European Union in 2017 (%)

Source: Authors construction based on data base of Eurostat

The statistics show that material deprivation in Latvia is higher than in average in European Union, but Lithuania is in worse situation than Latvia which indicates that there are more people who cannot afford at least three items of material deprivation rate, but Estonia is far above the average level of EU28 and is on the same level as Finland and Malta. The highest material deprivation rate is in Bulgaria and North Macedonia.

2.2. Material deprivation: Case of Latvia

According to data of Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia the proportion of the population at risk of material deprivation continues to decline in recent years. In Figure 2 is revealed material deprivation and severe material deprivation in Latvia in 2017.

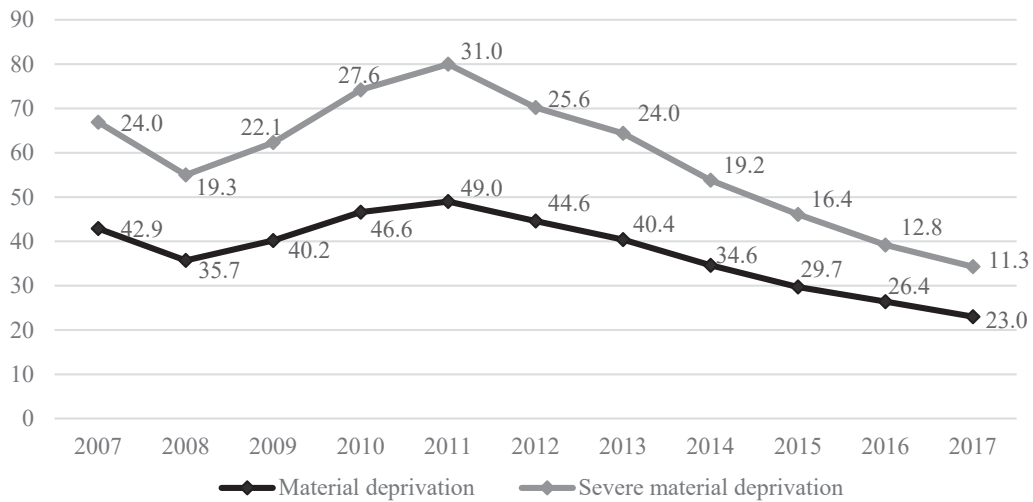


Figure 2. Material deprivation and severe material deprivation in Latvia from 2007 to 2017 (%)

Source: Authors construction based on data base of CSB

According to the EU-SILC results it is estimated that 23.0% of all surveyed households are materially deprived, as they cannot provide 3 out of 9 basic items, but 11.3% of all households are severe materially deprived – they couldnot provide 4 or more out of 9 basic items in Latvia in 2017. This indicated that more than one third of households in Latvia have problems providing some of the necessary items for standard living. Although material deprivation rate in Latvia as a whole is reducing, there are regional differences; results are included in Figure 3.

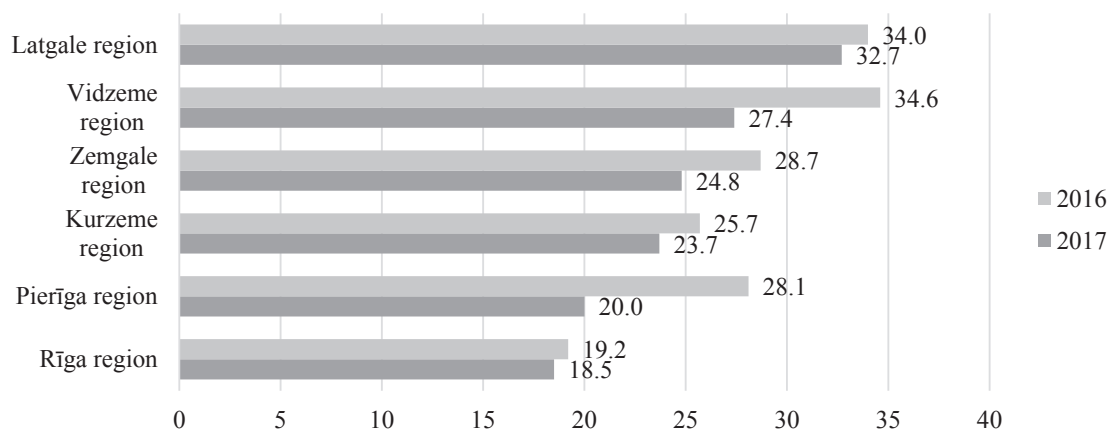


Figure 3. Material deprivation rate in regions in Latvia in 2016 and 2017 (%)

Source: Authors construction based on EU-SILC

Analysis reveal that majority of materially deprived households are in Latgale region, followed by Vidzeme and Kurzeme region of Republic of Latvia. Best situation is in the capital of country – Riga where materially deprived households are less than one fifth in 2017. However, situation since 2016 have improved in all regions of Republic of Latvia, especially in Vidzeme region and Pierīga region. To evaluate – are there statistically significant differences in material deprivation in regions of Republic Latvia – analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used by authors of the paper. Results of analysis of variance – ANOVA are included in table 1.

Table 1. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) on Material deprivation in 2017 by Regions in Latvia

	<i>Sum of Squares</i>	<i>Df</i>	<i>Mean Square</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
Between Groups	14,191	5	2,838	13,893	0,000
Within Groups	1227,416	6008	0,204		
Total	1241,607	6013			

Source: Authors' calculations based on EU-SILC anonimised data, in 2017, available on CSB, $n = 6014$

Data of table 1 (results of ANOVA) indicate that there are differences in material deprivation in different regions in Latvia and they are statistically significant with very high probability (sig. 0.000).

As often differences are in rural and urban areas could be noticed and what is indicated in research results of other authors publications, authors of the current research paper have tested statistical hypothesis on equality of arithmetic means on income level in urban areas and rural areas and authors have conducted independent samples *t*-tests to investigate are there statistically significant differences on material deprivation in rural and urban areas; results of the statistical hypothesis testing on differences of arithmetic means are included in table 2.

Table 2. Analysis of Differences with *t*-test on Material Deprivation in 2017 by Territories in Latvia, EUR

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		<i>t</i> -test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
			<i>t</i>	<i>Df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference			
Equal variances assumed	<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>t</i>	<i>Df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper	
Equal variances not assumed										

Source: Authors' calculations based on EU-SILC data, in 2017, available on CSB, $n = 6014$

Data of table 2 (results of *t*-test) indicate that there are differences in material deprivation by territories (urban or rural areas) in Latvia and the differences in material deprivation by territories (urban or rural areas) are statistically significant with high probability (sig. 0.018).

Conclusions

The analysis of theoretical research showed that material deprivation is significant problem across the world and countries often study material deprivation in the regions by introducing new measuring instruments and indices, adjusting them to specific national circumstances. Researchers world-wide focus on neighborhood impact on material deprivation, as well using mortality as a measure of material deprivation.

Material deprivation rate in European Union indicate that Latvia is still above EU28 average level despite the fact that since 2011 material deprivation has been declining in Latvia. Estonia is the only one from Baltic countries that is far below EU28 average level; Lithuania is in a slightly worse situation than Latvia.

In case of regions of Latvia, material deprivation rate deeper statistical data analysis shows that in Latgale and Vidzeme region material deprivation rate is the highest. The lowest material deprivation is in Rīga and Pierīga regions which are also most developed regions in Latvia. The analysis revealed that there are differences in material deprivation in different regions in Latvia and the differences are statistically different as well there are differences in material deprivation by territories (urban and rural areas) in Latvia and they are statistically significant with high probability.

Results in measuring and analyzing material deprivation in regions allow the government authorities and municipalities to facilitate the identification of areas in greatest need, guide resource allocation and other investments, plan health, education and other promotion programs to reduce inequalities in regions.

Furthermore, it will allow for further researches of material deprivation in regions and its impact onto different aspects.

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The research was supported by the national research programme “Latvian heritage and future challenges for the sustainability of the state” project “Challenges for the latvian state and society and the solutions in international context (INTERFRAME-LV)”

MATERIALINIS NEPRITEKLIUS. LATVIJOS PAVYZDYS

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Santrauka

Materialinio nepritekliaus problema pastaruoju metu tapo mokslininkų diskusijų tema, nes Europoje, ypač tose šalyse, kurias labiausiai kamuoja finansiniai ir ekonominiai neramumai, jo mastai didėja. Tyrimo tikslas – išanalizuoti materialinį nepriteklių Latvijos regionuose. Tyrimo metodai: mokslinių publikacijų ir anksčiau atliktų tyrimų rezultatų analizė, anoniminių EU-SILC (Europos Sąjungos gyventojų pajamų ir gyvenimo kokybės statistika) tyrimų rezultatų analizė ir Europos centrinio banko atlikta namų ūkių pajamų ir išlaidų tyrimo rezultatų apklausa, rezultatai lyginami su kitomis ES šalimis. Apklausos anoniminiai duomenys analizuoti remiantis aprašomosios statistikos rodikliais, Latvijos regionų palyginamaisiais gyvenimo mieste ir kaime duomenimis bei dispersijos analize ANOVA.

Materialinio nepritekliaus Europos Sąjungoje analizė atskleidė, kad Latvijoje materialinis nepriteklis vis dar per didelis, jis viršija ES-28 vidurkį, nors nuo 2011 m. Latvijoje materialinis nepriteklis mažėja. Estija yra vienintelė iš Baltijos šalių, esanti gerokai žemiau ES-28 vidurkio; Lietuvos padėtis šiek tiek prasčiau nei Latvijos. Išsami statistinių duomenų analizė atskleidė, kad Latvijos Latgalos ir Vidžemės regionuose materialinis nepriteklis pats didžiausias. Mažiausias materialinis nepriteklis yra Rygos ir Pierigos regionuose – tai labiausiai išsivystę Latvijos regionai. Atlikus analizę paaiškėjo, kad skirtinguose Latvijos regionuose materialinis nepriteklis skiriasi ir tie skirtumai lyginant pagal teritorijas (miesto ir kaimo vietas) statistiškai reikšmingi.

Materialinio nepritekliaus regionuose matavimo ir analizės rezultatai leidžia vyriausybės institucijoms ir savivaldybėms lengviau nustatyti sritis, kurioms labiausiai reikia dėmesio, nukreipti išteklių paskirstymą ir kitas investicijas, planuoti sveikatos, švietimo ir kitas skatinimo programas, siekiant sumažinti nelygybę regionuose.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *materialinis nepriteklis, regioninė plėtra, EU-SILC, Latvija.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: K2; K11.

Received: 2019.09.10

Revised: 2019.10.03

Accepted: 2019.10.28

VOLUNTARY PRIVATE INVESTMENTS ROLE IN PENSION SYSTEM IN LATVIA

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ABSTRACT

Pension systems have become one of the main priorities for the national governments. Developed countries population is getting older by putting the pressure on the state budgets and work age people tax load. The current pension system in Latvia performs according to regulation of state compulsory unfunded pension scheme since 1996 and regulation of the state funded or accumulated pension scheme since 2001. The third pension system pillar is private voluntary pension schemes realized in form of people contributions into pension funds and life insurance policies. Aim of the research – deeper analyses of voluntary private investments as the pension system part and its development challenges in Latvia. Research methods: scientific publications and previous conducted research analysis; analysis of time series on private pension fund developments in Latvia and comparisons with the situation in other OECD countries. The authors were looking for answer on the question – can voluntary private investments cover the gap between pre-retirement and after-retirement income of population in Latvia and what are the pre-conditions for it.

KEYWORDS: *Pension system, voluntary savings, financial literacy, Bancassurance.*

JEL CODES: M10; M38

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.1993>

Introduction

Due to life expectancy growth, negative birth rate and an aging population the topicality of retirement pensions have increased dramatically, especially in developed and high-income countries.

Demographic revolution and after-crises period challenges have threatened the pension schemes sustainability which according to Holzman and Hinz (Holzman, Hinz 2005: 55) is one of the 4 main goals of pension system in general. Three others are: adequate, affordable and robust. Keeley, Brian and Patrick Love (Keeley, Brian and Patrick Love, 2010: 84) warns the governments to keep the track on changes in pension funds and consider working-life prolongation. Obviously, it can be implemented gradually, nevertheless the retirement income trend from public forces should become negative.

Giarini (Giarini, 2009: 508) suggests calling existing situation as the demographic revolution and treat the ageing as the “notion of older age” itself. The people nowadays having 60 years are comparable with 75 old ones a century ago. In the literature this phenomenon is named as “the lengthening of the life-cycle”.

The incentives to create private investments are the ways how to keep the pension system sustainable and balanced. Voluntary pension schemes are not the solution for all pensions related problems. They are not the effective in reduction the poverty in the society since are generally used by higher income earners. Volunta-

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ry savings in private pension funds is a way to create the sustainable pension fund with as highest possible income replacement ratio (OECD, 2018: 38).

This research will focus on the deeper analyses of so called “third-pillar” pension system part and its development challenges in Latvia.

Research object: voluntary investments in pension schemes and life insurance with savings.

Research subject: to assess the voluntary private investments contribution in pension system in Latvia.

The problem of research and research question: can voluntary private investments cover the gap between pre-retirement and after-retirement income of population in Latvia and what are the pre-conditions for it.

Methodology used: analysis of scientific publications, analysis of previous conducted research, analysis of statistical data on development of voluntary pension fund contributions in Latvia and comparison with other Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) countries.

1. Development of Pension System

The early beginnings of pension system as the mandatory social insurance we can find in Germany in year 1889, later it was officially introduced in France. After World War 2 the other developing countries created their own pension systems with the different kinds of contributions and reimbursement systems.

According to Holzman and Hinz (Holzman, Hinz, 2005: 2) pension systems in every country are up to five pillar combinations and can consist of:

“(a) a non-contributory or “zero pillar” (in the form of a democrat or social pension) that provides a minimal level of protection;

(b) a “first-pillar” contributory system that is linked to varying degrees to earnings and seeks to replace some portion of income;

(c) a mandatory “second pillar” that is essentially an individual savings account but can be constructed in a variety of ways;

(d) voluntary “third-pillar” arrangements that can take many forms (individual, employer sponsored, defined benefit, defined contribution) but are essentially flexible and discretionary in nature; and

(e) informal intrafamily or intergenerational sources of both financial and nonfinancial support to the elderly, including access to health care and housing.”

Every country tends to combine those 5 pillars in order to reach the most effective pension scheme suitable for their economical and demography situation. The first 3 pillars (a, b, c) fully depend on the regulations of local governments. “Third-pillar” which is voluntary arrangements made by or for individuals depends on private persons and sometimes their employer’s initiative. While the fifth pillar can be combination between state’s regulations and private initiative, it depends on the culture and habits of each country.

After a while Giarini (Giarini, 2009: 509) on behalf of The Geneva Association in his editorial defines 4 pillars by merging Holzman and Hinz named (a) and (b) into one – compulsory state pension and replacing the (e) with income from pensioner remunerated activities.

Giarini (Giarini, 2009: 510) suggests calling existing situation as the demographic revolution and treat the ageing as the “notion of older age” itself. The people nowadays having 60 years are comparable with 75 old ones a century ago. In the literature this phenomenon is named as “the lengthening of the life-cycle”.

Many academic researchers in many countries devote their academic research for private pension funds to analyse differences in several countries – in Lithuania (Kabašinskas, Šutienė, Kopa, Valakevičius, 2017: 1628), in Romania (Matei, Durac, 2016: 140). in Serbia (Đekić, Nikolić, Vesić, 2019: 76), in Lithuania (Simanskiene, et al., 2015: 106; Pauzuoliene, Simanskiene and Siksnylyte, 2017: 121) and in many other countries (Militaru, Spînu, 2011: 28) stressing the respective country specifics,

2. Pension system in Latvia

Latvia pension system structure is as follows:

1st Pillar – state compulsory unfunded pension scheme: based on the generation solidarity, introduced from year 1996, regulated by the Law “On State Pensions”.

2nd Pillar includes the state funded or accumulated pension scheme: part of the social contributions accumulating and investing in the financial and capital market and bank deposits, introduced from 1st July 2001, regulated by the “Law on State Funded Pensions”.

3rd pension Pillar is private voluntary pension scheme: part of income is invested in private pension funds by individual or by his employer, introduced from July 1998, regulated by the Law “On Private Pension Funds”.

According to OECD (OECD (2018:19), “there are two mandatory, earnings related pension schemes in Latvia: a pay-as-you non-financial (notional) defined contribution (NDC) and a funded defined contribution (FDC) scheme.” 1st and 2nd Pillars together contribute 47.5% of pre-retirement pension income level (see Figure 1).

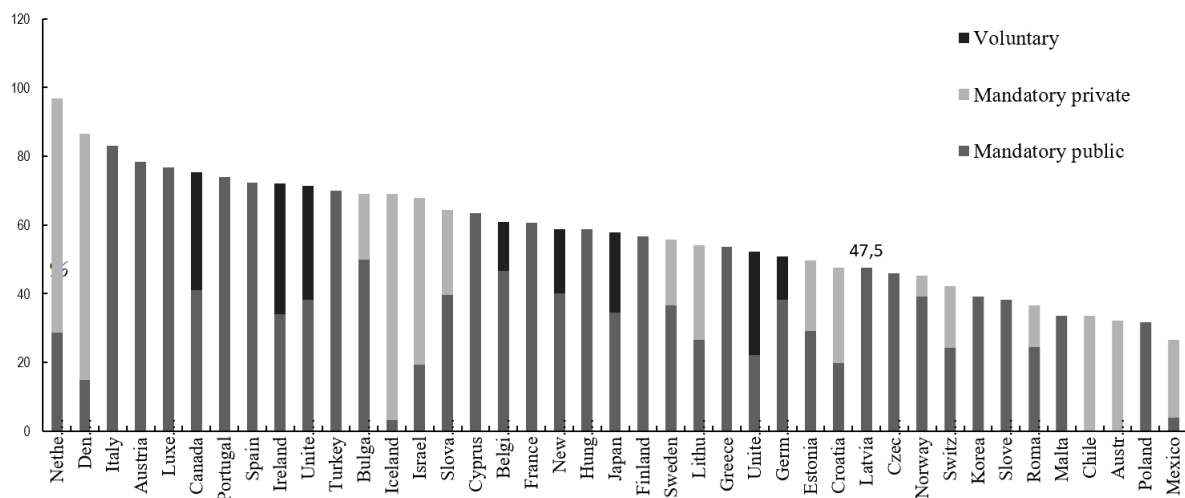


Figure 1. Gross pension replacement rates from mandatory public, private and voluntary private pension schemes (Percent of individual earnings, average earner)

Source: (OECD, 2017), other OECD data

Various literature and industry professionals suggest creating pension plan in the way to guarantee about 70% of pre-retirement net income. Knowing that the expecting share of guaranteed income in the old age is not going to exceed half of the working life income level the important part of pension system is voluntary savings and private investments.

For this purpose, the third pillar of pensions is established in Latvia. Voluntary saving system consists of pension funds and private investments in life insurance programmes.

2.1. Pension Funds

At the end of 2018 there were 6 pension funds in Latvia offering a choice from 18 pension plans (the statistical data of Latvia Financial and Capital Market Commission in www.fktk.lv). Plans differed according to risk perception of the client – there were more conservative and balanced plans in parallel with the ones with potentially higher income rates, meant for less risk averse people.

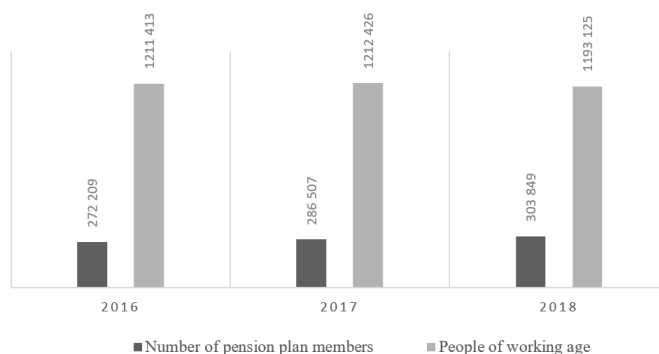


Figure 2. Number of people of working age and pension funds’ plans members in Latvia in years 2016–2018

Source: Statistical data from Latvia Financial and Capital Market Commission (www.fktk.lv)

Data included in Figure 2 shows the dynamics of number of pension plan members: in year 2018 it reached 303 thousand people and it is 12% more than in year 2016. Putting together this number with statistics of Latvia people of working age, the trend is positive: in year 2018 25% of Latvia people of working age were pension plan members in comparison with year 2016 with 22%. The total number of Latvia population of working age had reduced in year 2018 giving positive effect in our trend. Data included in Figure 4 shows the development of yearly contributions and payments of pensions funds for the period of 2016–2018.

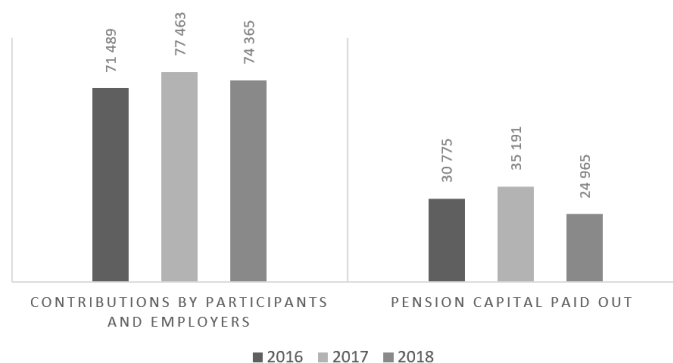


Figure 3. Latvia pension funds payments and contributions dynamics in years 2016–2018, thousands EUR

Source: Statistical data from Latvia Financial and Capital Market Commission (www.fktk.lt)

Although the number of pension plan participants is growing, the sum of contributions paid into the pension funds in year 2018 showed the negative trend.

Pension capital paid out in 2018 was almost 25 million EUR (Figure 3) and according to data from the Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia (www.csb.gov.lv) public pensions paid in year 2018 were in amount of 1,83 billion EUR. Assuming public pension pre-retirement income replacement rate at the level of 47%, the pensions funds input in it does not exceed 1%.

2.2. Life Insurance companies

Additional way how Latvia people are creating savings for retirement period. At the end of 2018 there were 6 life insurance companies offering annuity insurance pension plans in Latvia. The statistical data of Latvia Financial and Capital Market Commission shows positive trend in development of annuity insurance premiums (see Figure 4).

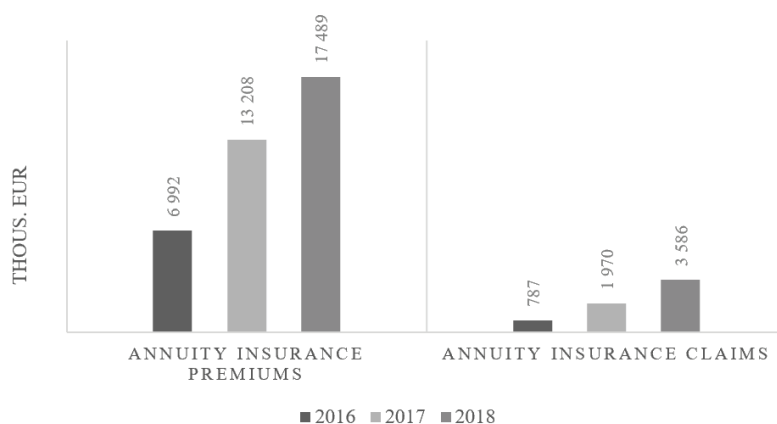


Figure 4. Latvia life insurance companies performance in Annuity insurance pension plans, years 2016–2018 (in thous. EUR)

Source: Statistical data from Latvia Financial and Capital Market Commission (www.fktk.lv)

Annuity Insurance claims paid is growing, still 3,6 million EUR from private insurance companies is very small amount if we compare with public pensions paid in year 2018 in amount of 1,83 billion EUR (data from the Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia, www.csb.gov.lv).

Since Annuity insurance is only the part of life insurance with savings programmes, the part of pension plans ment for retirement had been booked under other types of life insurance agreements. According to statistics (www.fktk.lv) the total life insurance pogramms with savings claims paid in year 2018 exceeds 42 million EUR and therefore brings higher contribution into common pension system as pension funds.

3. Voluntary savings driving factors

3.1. National government initiative

Well balanced and effective pension system is one of the strategic tasks of every national government. World Bank as well as OECD and European Union institutions are monitoring and giving recommendations for the improvements of pension systems. Not only socio-economic situation varies in the different parts of the world, even within Europe the development stage of economy and therefore pension system can have their specifics.

In the process of pension system reforms basic principles should be considered (Holzman, Hinz, 2005: 55) – the system should prevent from old age poverty, the contribution level should be affordable for people and state budget, sustainability and stability in contributions, should be kept and pension system has to be developed in a minimum risk initiated by change in economy, demography or politics.

By establishing pension system and realizing reforms, governments not only interact mandatory contributions pensions pillars, they create motivation for people to make voluntary savings for retirement.

In Latvia there is special regime for insurance indemnities and payments applicability with personal income tax (The Law on Personal Income Tax; 1993). Income tax should not be paid for:

- insurance indemnities paid on occurrence of an insured event in respect of: the life and health of the insured person as a result of an accident or illness under the life insurance policy the insurance contract (including the accumulation of funds), regardless of who has concluded the insurance contract;

- supplementary pension capital formed by the natural person himself or by his or her spouse or by his / her relative contributions to private pension funds of persons up to the third degree within the meaning of the Civil Law licensed pension plans and paid out to members of pension plans.

Not all initiatives taken by Latvian policy makers gives immediate positive effect.

Accordingly the restrictions introduced by the tax reform on private third pillar pension and funded life insurance in the short term had a negative impact on the new contributions (Figure 3). The drop is largely due to the so-called ceiling for personal income tax relief. Starting in 2018, personal income tax can only be recovered for private contributions to the third pillar of pension and life insurance, which do not exceed EUR 4,000 a year and do not represent more than 10% of gross annual salary. This undermined the motivation for large payers, above 40,000 euros a year, to make contributions in excess of 4,000 euros a year, using all 10% of their annual income.

At the same time employer contributions to private pension funds increased relatively rapidly. Therefore the structure of contributions sources is changing and Latvia is shifting towards the practice of developed countries employers' contributions represent at least half of all contributions to private retirement savings.

An other actual topic in Latvia is about social benefits for people employed in special tax regime companies. This type of tax payment system was introduced on year 2010 as an answer on the financial crises caused solvency problems. For small businesses it turned to become the way to survive and developed. For employees it raised the issues of social benefits, including the amount of future pension income. The social contributions of the employees of a micro-tax company being several times lower than those of the general tax system, consequently, resulted with much smaller social guarantees, including smaller pension savings. As the role it influenced the lower level of salaries receiving people and therefore can cause the risk of poverty even on higher level.

From other perspective, if people cannot expect the adequate public pension level to keep the living standard, they should consider possibilities to save voluntarily as it is well organised and realised in many developed countries where financial literacy also on voluntary savings importance is well developed. The further research is focusing on people's ability to take initiative on themselves.

3.2. People financial literacy

If we analyse the factors influencing the ability and willingness to create private investments the first aspect to start with is the market situation.

Since 2011 World Bank Group is creating Global Financial Inclusion (Global Findex) database to make overview of 140 countries adults' ability for financial services. It includes the data of accessing bank accounts, making payments, saving, borrowing and managing the risk. Those are basic conditions after which people can decide on investments in their futures.

Latvia as the high-income country according to World Bank Group the Global Findex Database 2017 has the relatively high share of opened bank accounts for adults – 93% of them have a possibility to transfer digital money (Asli, Klapper, Singer, Ansar, Hess; 2018: 126). It is the level of United States, 6 ppts higher than Poland having 87% and 7 ppts lower than Norway and Sweden with 100% share.

The trend of changes of opened bank account for adult's ratio shows the rapid growth in developing countries while high-income countries have had reached rather high level with insignificant increase potential. For national policy makers it means challenges for further sophistication of legislation frameworks.

People having bank account have technical background to consider savings for retirement. The Global Findex Database 2017 shows that 44% of adults in high-income countries have savings for the old age while only 16% in developing countries have (Asli, Klapper, Singer, Ansar, Hess, 2018: 27).

The people financial inclusion driving factors according to World Bank are the policies of national governments, digital payments and innovative ways of financial services powered by internet and mobile technologies (Asli, Klapper, Singer, Ansar, Hess; 2018: 13).

Latvia is not unique in the people unwillingness to save for pensions. Countries with the important share of voluntary investments are facing the situation when employees opt-out from private pension schemes. Especially it is typical for employees with low income, younger people and short-term workers (Lusardi, Keller, Keller, 2009: 6). Peoples' values and perceptions are changing and there are other aspects to consider deciding for long-term saving. A. Lusardi, P. A. Keller, A. Keller in their research were modelling the way how communicate with people by using social marketing and reach expected results (Lusardi, Keller, Keller, 2009: 19).

In the literature of financial literacy researchers emphasise the difference in gender and in-come level within the same region or country.

3.3. Voluntary private savings marketing channels

In Latvia voluntary private savings for retirement income has been provided by pension funds and life insurance companies. Main marketing channels exploited for promotion of private saving programmes are agents and direct sales as well as bancassurance.

From 6 life insurance companies 3 of them is a part of financial conglomerates and 4 are operating in close cooperation with commercial banks in Latvia (Dundure, Sloka, 2019: 145). All pension fund management companies are integrated with banks and uses the Bancassurance as an alternative sales channel to a traditional distribution (Arefjevs, 2017: 196). Thus Bancassurance has become the dominating model for voluntary saving programmes.

Bancassurances advantage over other sales channels is to service the client at one place. It simplifies the access for the clients to the professional consultancy on the ways of private pension schemes. Nevertheless far from majority of banks' clients have the life insurance policy or participates in pension fund. The development trends of voluntary savings comes with the effectiveness of Bancassurance operations. Bancassurance itself depends on the market-based (exogenous) and operational-based (idiosyncratic) factors determining more successful or less successful performance (Staikouras, 2006: 141). The research conducted by Dundure E. and Sloka B. (Dundure, Sloka, 2019: 59) about market factors role on the development of Bancassurance shows "the positive impact of regulation environment, globalization and technological advances, negative factors were economic growth, market growth and demography".

Although operating in the same market still some of the service providers are more successful as others. Academics widely research the operational-based factors like business culture, corporate closeness, management initiative and corporate governance, branch environment, customer relations, range of services (Staikouras, 2006: 146), cross-buying and cross-selling (Soureli, Lewis, Karantinou, 2008: 14), trust in the banks, good financial terms, service quality (Lymberopoulos, Chaniotakis, Soureli 2004: 46); product bundles (Artikis, Mutenga, Staikouras, 2008: 122); solution business (Sharma, Iyer 2011: 728) and finally fees and the level of technology development (Kalotychou, Staikouras, 2007: 261). All the attempts to improve operations can be worthless until the bancassurance partners internal processes are not synchronized and integrated. The critical factor to start integration is management closeness of partner companies (Dundure, Sloka, 2019: 149).

Looking at the development stage of voluntary savings habits in Latvia the role of banks, insurance companies and pension funds collaboration potential has been strengthening.

Conclusions

Latvia as the one of member countries of Europe Union, NATO and OECD creates its pension system based on local socio-economic situation and so called "three pillar" system: (1) state compulsory unfunded pension scheme, (2) the state funded or accumulated pension scheme and (3) private voluntary pension scheme. Although the first two pillars – public pensions regulated by the government are meant to ensure

sufficient old age income the today's reality raises concerns. National policy makers call for people more initiative to create voluntary savings in order to ensure secured old age.

There are 6 pension funds and 6 life insurance companies providing people with the possibility to create savings for retirement period in pension funds or life insurance policies (situation in Republic of Latvia in 2019). The results of collected contributions are not significant but shows positive trend. Even more insignificant role private savings play for today's pensioners. According to authors estimation the total pre-retirement pension replacement rate increase does not exceed 2% and in total is less than 50% from pre-retirement net income.

There are several stakeholders participating in the development of voluntary savings for old age:

1. The framework of the pension system has been created by national government and parliament. Three pillar system regulations are only the bases for the further improvements. In parallel with systemic work on enlargement of effectiveness of public funds the policy makers must strengthen motivation to create pension funds voluntary by maintaining special tax regimes.
2. People willing to share responsibility of retirement income with the state. The duty to create voluntary savings is the question of people financial literacy and is based on the level of cultural as well as economic advancement.
3. Pensions funds and life insurance companies in the cooperation with commercial banks as the financial services providers which should put focus on the potential of private savings market growth and trigger the currently stuck situation.

All three system parts are interconnected and dependant from each other. From authors opinion the critical role in pension system adequacy and sustainability plays national government. People and private corporations take decisions, based on motivators and business interests. Policy makers responsibility is to raise it.

Still there is lack of financial literacy for people to contribute more for their private pension funds to ensure better financial stability during the retirement age – this is the next stage for looking of best practices in other countries and suggest possible solutions for Latvia, as well as investigate empirical findings of expert surveys as the voluntary savings for pensions is in the initial stage of development in Latvia.

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This paper was supported by the project “INTERFRAME-LV”

SAVANORIŠKŲ PRIVAČIŲ INVESTICIJŲ VAIDMUO LATVIJOS PENSIJŲ SISTEMOJE

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Santrauka

Pensijų sistemos šiandien tapo vienu pagrindinių nacionalinių vyriausybių prioritetų. Išsivysčiusių šalių gyventojai sensta, tai turi įtakos valstybių biudžetams, auga darbingo amžiaus žmonių mokesčių našta. Dabartinė pensijų sistema Latvijoje įgyvendinama pagal valstybinės privalomos netiesioginės pensijų sistemos reguliavimo įteisinimą nuo 1996 m. ir valstybės finansuojamų ar kaupiamųjų pensijų sistemos reguliavimą, pradėtą vykdyti 2001 m. Pensijų sistemos ramstis – privačios savanoriškos pensijų kaupimo sistemos, įgyvendinamos kaip žmonių įmokos į pensijų fondus ir gyvybės draudimo polisai. Visos trys sistemos dalys yra sujungtos ir priklausomos viena nuo kitos. Straipsnio autorių nuomone, pensijų sistemos adekvatumą ir tva-

rumā uztikrina nacionālā vyriausybē. Žmonēs ir privačios korporācijas priima motyvuotus sprendimus, paisydamos verslo interesų. Politikos formuotojų pareiga – suderinti visų interesus.

Tyrimo tikslas – išsami savanoriškų privačių investicijų, kaip pensijų sistemos dalies, analizė ir jos plėtros iššūkiai Latvijoje. Tyrimo metodai: mokslinė publikacijų ir ankstesnių tyrimų analizė, privačių pensijų fondų pokyčių Latvijoje laiko tėkmėje analizė ir palyginimas su padėtimi kitose EBPO šalyse.

Autoriai siekė atsakyti į klausimą, ar savanoriškos privačios investicijos į pensijų fondus gali sumažinti atotrūkį tarp Latvijos gyventojų ikipensinio ir paskesnio išėjimo į pensiją pajamas. Nustatyta, kad vis dar menkas finansinis raštingumas, žmonės galėtų daugiau mokėti į savo privačius pensijų fondus, siekdami užtikrinti geresnį finansinį stabilumą pensinio amžiaus laikotarpiu, bet tai jau kitas etapas, įgyvendinamas, remiantis geriausia kitų šalių patirtimi ir siūlant galimus sprendimus Latvijai. Be to, reikėtų ištirti ekspertų apklausų empirinius duomenis, nes savanoriškos pensijų Latvijoje santaupos yra pradiniam vystymosi etape.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *pensijų sistema, savanoriškos santaupos, finansinis raštingumas, bankinis draudimas.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: M10; M3

Received: 2019.09.09

Revised: 2019.10.04

Accepted: 2019.10.28

ENGAGING CITIZENS IN THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS. OPPORTUNITIES OF DIGITAL DEMOCRACY IN LATVIA

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ABSTRACT

The rapid development of internet and technologies in the 21st century is providing an opportunity for the development of digital democracy – citizen engagement in the decision-making process in an easier, faster and more contemporary way. The paper analysis Latvian public administration's attitude to the development of digital democracy in Latvia, looking into digital engagement as a possible solution that could foster the low rates of civic and political participation in Latvia. Research methods of the paper consists of an analysis of academic publications on digital democracy and political engagement, and survey to the representatives of the public administration in Latvia. Conclusions of the paper suggest that there are good preconditions for the development of digital democracy in Latvia, however, there is a need for a common regulation for how digital communication and online participation is coordinated. Public institutions should pay more attention to Latvian youth, educating them about public administration and political engagement, thus ensuring that gradually Latvian citizens become more knowledgeable about advantages and necessity to participate in the decision-making process of public administration in Latvia.

KEYWORDS: *citizen engagement, digital democracy, public institutions, social media.*

JEL CODES: I28, L86, M15, O31

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.1994>

Introduction

The level of citizen engagement in the decision-making process of public administration in Latvia is comparatively low. Around half of citizens vote in elections, thus determining to which political groups they are delegating their democratic power and to which direction the future development of the country will be organised. Nevertheless, even fewer citizens are participating in the day-to-day decision-making process, thereby, the final decision made by public administration is not always reflecting the needs and desires of citizens. Dissatisfaction with decisions made by public administration leads to a lower trust in the institutions and government in general. According to the Standard Eurobarometer 90, in Latvia, trust in the institutions is comparatively low: 32 percent of citizens in 2018 trusted public administration, 31 percent trusted Latvian Government, and 21 percent trusted Latvian Parliament (European Commission, 2018). There is a need to find new forms of participation and new types of communication channels that would be more attractive to citizens than current ones and foster citizen engagement in the decision-making process.

The purpose of the article is to examine digital democracy as a solution that could foster citizen participation in the decision-making process, therefore, helping to improve citizen attitude to the decisions made by public institutions and attitude towards the Latvian public administration in general. Accordingly, the object of the paper is citizen participation in the decision-making process of public administration in Latvia. To achieve the purpose of the article, several tasks are carried out: academic publications about digital democracy and political

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engagement are analysed; current types of citizen engagement in Latvia are identified and evaluated; statistical information on citizen engagement in Latvia and the European Union is summarized and evaluated.

A survey was carried out to the representatives of the public administration, to evaluate public administration's attitude towards digital democracy in Latvia. Survey was conducted in April and May 2019 using online research survey software QuestionPro. A personal invitation to fill out the questionnaire was sent to the representatives of Latvian public administration who are responsible for communication with society and cooperation with citizens. In total, 55 fully or partially completed surveys were received. Sixteen respondents were from Latvian ministries, there were also respondents representing Latvian Parliament, Cross-Sectoral Coordination Centre, local governments and several other Latvian public institutions. In the questionnaire, each representative of the public administration was asked to provide an in-depth information on how his/her institution is using tools of the digital environment, such as the social media and smartphone applications to communicate with citizens and to engage them in the decision-making process. Respondents also evaluated different forms of participation and communication channels from the perspective of the institution they were representing.

1. Citizens and political participation

Maureen Taylor and Michael L. Kent described engagement as a “part of the dialogue, and through engagement, organizations and public can make decisions that create social capital. Engagement is both an orientation that influences interactions and the approach that guides the process of interactions among groups” (Taylor, Kent, 2014: 384). It has been nearly 30 years since Latvia gained back independence from the Soviet Union, hence, returned to democracy as well. But the country and its citizens are still learning the value of democracy and citizen engagement. In reference to foreign observers, democracy in Latvia is stagnating in the development and further improvements are needed. According to the Democracy Index 2018, published by The Economist Intelligence Unit, Latvia is evaluated as a “flawed democracy” with 7.38 overall score and 5.56 rate in political participation, which is the lowest rate in the Baltic States (Estonia: 6.67 and Lithuania: 6.11). Latvia has had similar results in this rating for the last decade with the lowest overall score being 7.05 in 2010 (The Economist Intelligence Unit Limited, 2019). According to the OECD Indicators of well-being, between all OECD countries, in 2017, Latvia was in the 26th place in the civic engagement & governance rating (OECD, 2019). According to the evaluation of global civil society alliance CIVICUS: “The civil society sector in Latvia is relatively small in size due to limited financing and limited popular support” (CIVICUS, 2018). In the National Development Plan of Latvia for 2014–2020, citizen engagement is mentioned in the context of a strategic objective “Belonging to Latvia: Cooperation and Culture” where the goal for civic participation index of the population is set to 19 percent for year 2020, 7.4 percent in year 2009 is recognised as a base value (Cross-Sectoral Coordination Centre, 2012). The possibility to reach better citizen engagement results in Latvia depends on financial resources, but also comprehension on the democratic process and purpose is still an area where much work is needed. According to analysis by Vittoria Marino and Letizia Lo Presti, the most often recognised benefits of civic engagement activities are: “Access, involvement and participation; collective actions; democracy; social wellness; trust and transparency; the legitimacy of decision making; informing; relationship and dialogue; and civic relevance and inclusion” (Marino, Presti, 2018: 291).

As seen in Figure 1, in Latvia, participation rates in elections are gradually decreasing. The participation rate for Latvian parliament elections has dropped from 71.90 percent in 1995 to 54.56 percent in the latest 2018 elections (Central Election Commission of Latvia, 2018). In the municipal elections, the lowest participation was in 2013 with 45.99 percent (Central Election Commission of Latvia, 2013), but in the latest 2017 municipal elections, 50.39 percent of eligible voters participated (Central Election Commission of Latvia, 2017). Traditionally, the lowest citizen interest in Latvia is in participation in the European Parliament elections – participation rates are below EU average (European Parliament, 2019A), except for 2009 elections when European Parliament elections in Latvia was conducted together with municipal elections. In the latest 2019 European Parliament elections, 33.53 percent of eligible voters participated (Central Election Commission of Latvia, 2019), which is the lowest result in Baltic states, with 37.60 percent turnout in Estonia and 53.48 percent turnout in Lithuania (European Parliament, 2019B).

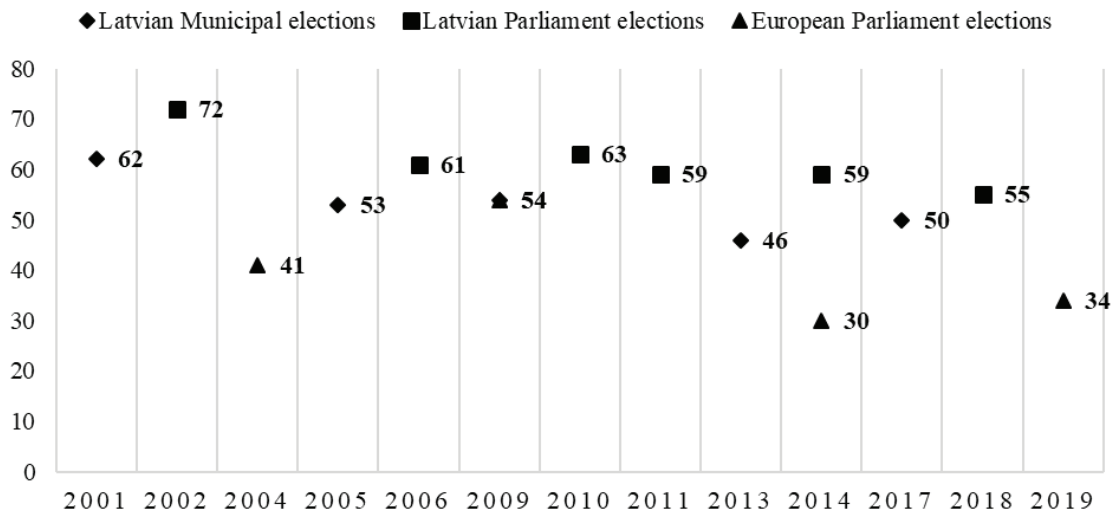


Figure 1. Citizen participation in Municipal, Latvian Parliament and European Parliament elections in Latvia, participation rate (in%)

Source: Author's construction based on data from the Central Election Commission of Latvia, 2019

Latvian citizens have a variety of options to participate in the day-to-day decision-making process and provide their opinion to public institutions – different surveys and consultations, public discussions, rallies and direct communication with local or national authorities. Nevertheless, Latvian public administration sees consultative bodies as the most favourable form of citizen engagement, for example, advisory councils where citizens are represented through a non-governmental organisation or lobby groups. It is estimated that in 2018, there were 170 consultative bodies in Latvian ministries (State Chancellery of Latvia, 2018). According to slightly older data, in 2014, there were 165 consultative bodies in Latvian ministries and citizens there were represented by 1128 different non-governmental organisations (Valsts Kanceleja, 2015). Nevertheless, it must be taken into account that Latvians are not widely participating in the non-governmental organisations in general – only around five percent of Latvian citizens are members of non-governmental organisations (Pārresoru koordinācijas centrs, 2017). Therefore, Latvian citizens are only partly interested in the election process and minimally engaging in the day-to-day decision-making process, thereby, there is a need for new methods and communication channels on how to interest Latvian citizens in the democracy and foster their civic and political participation.

Lars Hasselblad Torres stated that the six aims of citizen participation are: “Informing and educating the general public about important policy issues; Improving government decisions by improving the information flow from citizens to decision-makers; Creating opportunities for citizens to shape and in some cases, determine public policy; Legitimizing government decisions by ensuring that the voices of those impacted by government policy have been heard, considered, and addressed; Involving citizens in monitoring the outcomes of policy for evaluation; and Improving the quality of public life by restoring the trust and engagement of citizens” (Torres, 2007: 135). All of those aims are easier to reach by using digital solutions and providing citizens with access to open data that helps to adopt more thoughtful and qualitative decisions. John C. Bertot et al. are linking use of digital technologies with opportunities to improve citizen trust in government: “The combination of e-government, social media, Web-enabled technologies, mobile technologies, transparency policy initiatives, and citizen desire for open and transparent government are fomenting a new age of opportunity that has the potential to create open, transparent, efficient, effective, and user-centered ICT-enabled services” (Bertot, Jaeger, Grimes, 2010: 268). Although digital democracy is a highly discussed topic in academia for more than ten years, not enough attention is paid to it Latvia, however, in Latvia, there are several preconditions for a successful development of digital democracy.

2. Development of digital democracy

As seen in Figure 2, in the last decade the use of the internet and social media has grown significantly in Latvia (Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia, 2019). However, household internet access in Latvia is below the EU average (89 percent in 2018) and below the access rate in Estonia (90 percent in 2018), but it is slightly above the access rate in Lithuania, which was 78 percent in 2018 (Eurostat, 2019). At the same time, it is important to consider not only the access to the internet, but also the speed of the internet, which is comparatively fast in Latvia. For the last five years, Latvian citizens are also actively using internet in their smartphones (56 percent in 2018), in the youth segment this proportion is even higher – more than 90 percent are using internet and social media via their smartphones. From the perspective of public institutions, this is good news because a significant portion of Latvian citizens are online almost all the time.

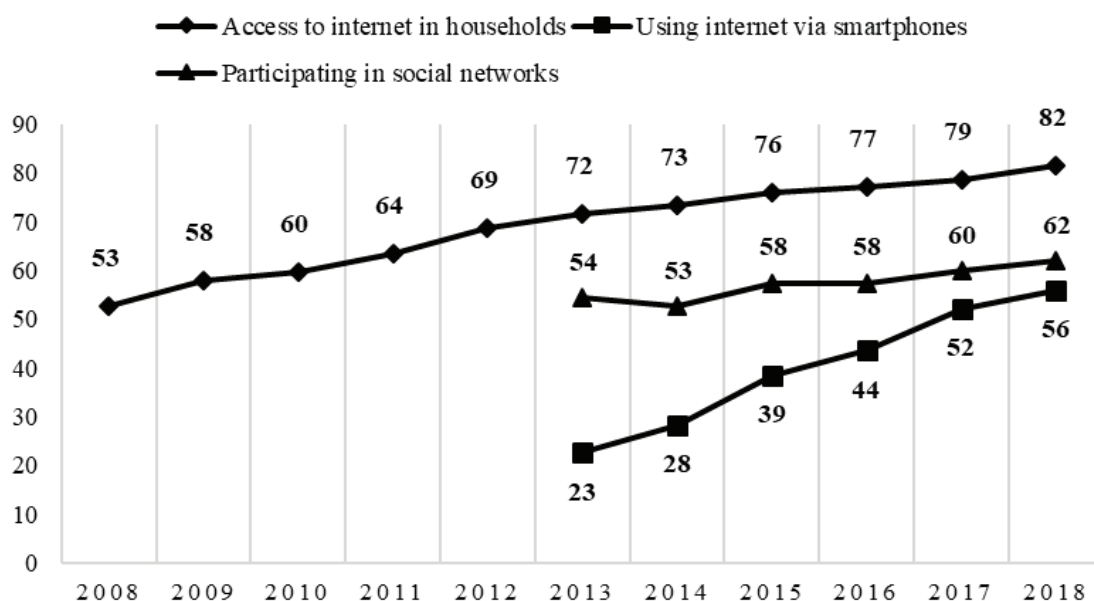


Figure 2. Use of internet and social media in Latvia (2008 until 2018), share (in%)

Source: Author’s construction based on data from the Central Statistical Bureau of Latvia, 2009–2019

It is not enough to have good preconditions, there is also a need for a strategy to successfully use the opportunities. As Taewoo Nam pointed out: “Technology is critical, but it is a tool, not a strategy,” and suggested that main strategies a public institution can use for citizen sourcing to acquire the wisdom of crowds are contests, wikis, social networking, and social voting (Nam, 2012: 15). It must be taken into account that for public institutions it is not easy to adapt to the fast-changing online environment. As John Carlo Bertot et al. indicated: “As new technologies that are currently unimagined will continue to emerge and be adopted by government agencies, the development of more responsive information policies that are based on principles that are not tied to specific technologies will be a vital step in ensuring that policies can remain relevant and useful to government agencies and members of the public” (Bertot, Jaeger, Hansen, 2012: 37). This is also a matter of attitude from the management of the public institution – whether the responsible managers are looking at the digital environment as an opportunity or as an encumbrance. In the case study about digitalization of services in the Dutch municipality, it was emphasized: “If top management is not willing to induce a continuously improving culture throughout the entire organization, this type of culture only becomes established temporarily at the periphery of the organization” (Gravesteijn, Wilderom, 2018: 741). Thereby, implementation of digital democracy innovations is closely connected to the knowledge and will of the public institution’s senior management.

There are several factors that must be considered when designing a strategy for implementation of digital tools for citizen engagement in the decision-making process. One of the most significant factor is regional context. Results of a study on the use of social networking sites for mobilizing activists in the USA, China and Latin America supported the notion that social media help people to be more active in political and civic arenas and help to promote dialogue, however, authors of the study pointed out that: “Activists in China and Latin America assigned more importance to the usefulness of social networking sites in fostering debate, while survey respondents in the United States were significantly more confident in their power to solve society’s problems. (...) cultural settings frame the use of social networking sites for collective action, as activist efforts vary across countries and activists cannot ignore their regional realities – as well as their own patterns of thinking and acting in regard to activism” (Harp, Bachmann, Guo, 2012: 313). Although digital environment and social media are global, people who are using them must be comprehended from the local perspective, in the case of Latvia, those could be specific peculiarities of Latvian behaviour, comparatively small population, communication habits and attitude to public institutions.

A very important regional factor is knowledge and skills of political participation and the use of digital tools in general. In the study on Facebook groups and offline and online political engagement, it was emphasized that: “Online political groups that are facilitated through social network sites platforms such as Facebook perform many similar functions to their offline counterparts. Online political group membership is positively related to offline political participation but appear to fall short on (...) political knowledge. (...) while the groups offer many applications that members can use to feel engaged and politically empowered, the group wall discussion falls short of quality deliberation and offers little substantive information sharing” (Conroy, Feezell, Guerrero, 2012: 1544). Similarly, in the study by Halpern and Gibbs, it was concluded: “Although discussants are not using social media to “attack” other citizens, most of them are not debating rationally or deeply in this media”, thereby “political exchanges in social media may be more superficial in nature, rather than being characterized by in-depth debate or deliberation, and calls into question their efficacy” (Halpern, Gibbs, 2013: 1166). In the study on e-participation in Canada, the importance of educating citizens on new ways of participation and use of digital technologies was pointed out: “Government should pay close attention to this issue and focus on the ancillary factors to enhance citizens’ technological and psychological capability to use online government service. Online service should be flexible, easy to navigate and download, and fully available. At the same time, citizens should get technological tips regarding the handling of technological interfaces associated with e-Gov and the mental motivation to use the system” (Shareef et al., 2011: 28). Furthermore, it is important to consider not only the level of knowledge and skills of citizens who will be using those digital democracy tools, but also the level of knowledge and skills of the employees of the public institutions who has to use this information channel to foster citizen engagement in the decision-making process.

3. Engaging citizens in the decision-making process

Citizen view on their possibilities to provide their individual input in the decision-making process of public institutions was evaluated in a survey that was carried out in 2018 by the State Chancellery of Latvia. Respondents of this survey evaluated their opportunities to participate in the decision-making process as 5.86 on average (in the scale from 1 to 10). Although half of the respondents considered that, in Latvia, various opportunities exist for an individual person to provide his/her opinion to the public institutions, disbelief of citizens in their ability to influence social and political processes is mentioned as an obstacle that hinders wider involvement. Results of the survey point out the lack of feedback from the public institutions as one of reasons for this disbelief (State Chancellery of Latvia, 2018). The digital environment could help to improve the current level of citizen engagement and satisfaction with decision-making process. Also, digital development of Latvia and representation of Latvian public administration in the digital environment creates a notion that Latvia can be used as a positive example how country can use the opportunities of citizen participation in the 21th century. However, a closer look at the online activities of Latvian public administration

and analysis from the perspective of their ability to engage citizens in the decision-making process rises a question whether these opportunities are used successfully. Therefore, to be able to understand what improvements should be made, it is important to understand the viewpoint of the public administration on digital representation and its connection to citizen engagement.

Table 1. Types of communication channels used by Latvian public administration to identify and gain opinion of citizens

<i>n</i> = 32	Age group:	<15	16-19	20-24	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64	>65
Social network Draugiem.lv		1	2	0	0	1	4	4	3
Social network Facebook.com		2	10	19	26	28	20	16	8
Social network Instagram.com		3	12	13	10	8	7	5	4
Social network Twitter.com		0	2	10	23	27	23	16	7
Social network Youtube.com		1	9	13	19	20	18	11	3
Home page of the institution		5	14	19	24	27	26	25	20
Consultative body / Advisory committee		0	1	5	13	15	17	16	9
Participation portal		1	1	1	2	3	2	2	0
Smartphone application		3	6	6	6	5	3	2	1
Public consultation		4	7	12	14	16	18	17	14
Online survey		4	8	12	14	15	13	12	7

Source: Author’s survey to representatives of the Latvian public administration, 2019

To evaluate public administrations’ attitude towards digital democracy in Latvia, the author carried out a survey to the representatives of the public administration. As seen in Table 1, Latvian public administration is already using different types of communication channels to identify and gain opinion of citizens. Institutions are represented in various social media portals and, for each of them, it is possible to recognise that representatives of the institutions have selected slightly different age groups as a primary audience. It is a positive result that shows that public institutions have a notion on different audiences they are working with. However, according to the results of questionnaire, the most often used channel still is the home page of the institution.

Analysis of the age groups that representatives of the public institutions are mentioning as target audience to each channel, one can observe that most of the channels are used to communicate with citizens 25 years or older, raising a discussion on who is responsible for citizen knowledge on political participation and how one can become an active citizen when public institutions are not actively communicating with them while they are younger than 25. Often, family or school is seen as the environment where young citizens get their knowledge on civic and political participation. As Marie K. Heath pointed out: “Educational technologists should consider the role of citizenship in public schools and consider the role of critical theorists and educational technology. Technology integration in schools should help students develop a sense of identity, place, community and mattering in order to allow students to drive their own learning through affinity spaces, connected learning and participation” (Heath, 2018: 353). At the same time, web 2.0 and social media allows communication without intermediators, thus, public institutions could communicate with youth online and become one of those who are educating youth on civic and political participation as well. Yet, as seen in Figure 3, when representatives of public institutions were asked to evaluate in the scale from 1 to 10 different activities that could foster citizen engagement (where 1 is minimal influence on engagement; and 10 is very important support for engagement), from public administrations’ perspective, the most valued activities are educating young people in schools (8.17 arithmetic mean) and informing citizens in mass media on their opportunities for civic and political participation in Latvia (8.1 arithmetic mean).

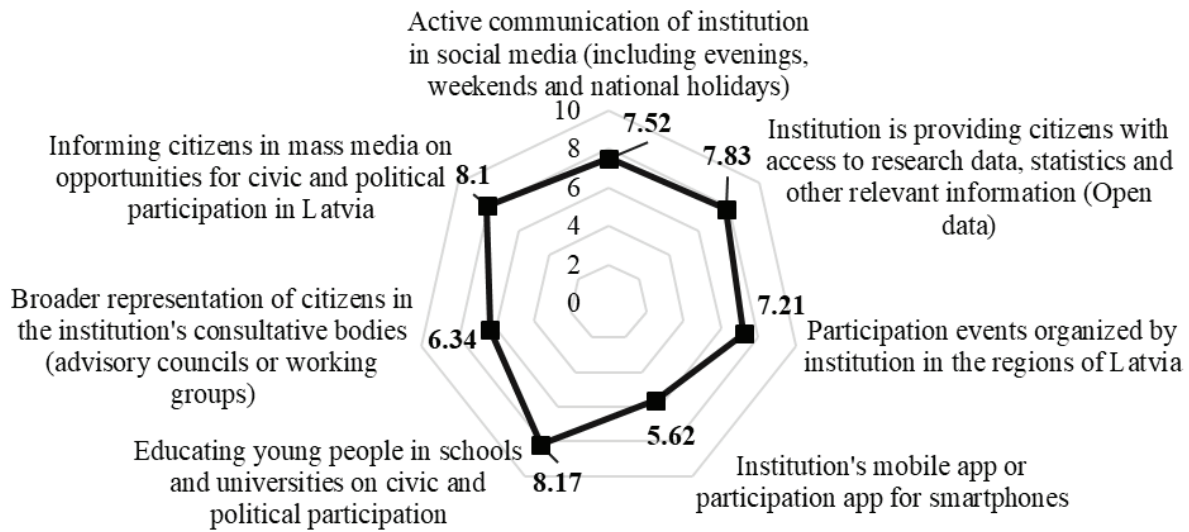


Figure 3. Responses of representatives of Latvian public administration evaluating activities that could help foster civic and political engagement

Source: Authors' conducted survey to representatives of the Latvian public administration, 2019, $n = 32$

Although smartphone application could be one of the most effective ways to reach citizens, as it reaches citizens directly and immediately, it is rated with 5.62 arithmetic mean which could be explained by the low number of existing examples of such applications made by public institutions in Latvia, resulting in not enough experience on this type of direct communication.

One of the biggest advantages of the digital communication is the speed of information exchange and feedback. Representatives of the public institutions were asked to evaluate how fast the feedback made to public institutions social media content can reach the responsible persons in the institutions. As seen in Figure 4, survey results indicate that, in most situations, valuable information from social media followers reaches the responsible persons of the institution in less than three hours (84 percent) and, in half of the institutions (48 percent), in less than one hour. This is a very good result as one of the core characteristics of social media is a fast exchange of information – if the institution is capable to meet this condition, it helps to build a better connection with social media followers and gain their trust for future situations when fast exchange of information with institution will be needed, for example, in emergency situations. Additionally, to understand the current communication habits, in the questionnaire to representatives of the Latvian public administration, respondents were asked to identify the fastest way for an individual person to reach an institution in case there is a specific information that citizen wants to deliver to the representative responsible for this matter. Answers showed that, according to current habits of information exchange in the institutions, digital communication with citizens is often accepted: more than half of the respondents mentioned e-mail or social media as an advisable channel for communication. However, communication habits vary a lot: several institutions indicated that an official application to the representative still would be the best choice to guarantee that citizen opinion is noticed.

As any other organisation or company, public institutions should control their public communication to maintain consistency and certain level of quality. Nevertheless, there are various possible solutions to control communication. Data in Figure 5 indicate internal regulations that affect content creation for Latvian public institutions social media accounts. Accordingly, the most often used internal regulation is informal rules / communication habits (in 34 institutions), then comes communication guidelines (in 26 institutions) and work descriptions (in 25 institutions). This created a situation where each institution is speaking to citizens according to their own rules and in their own specific voice. The communication would be more comprehen-

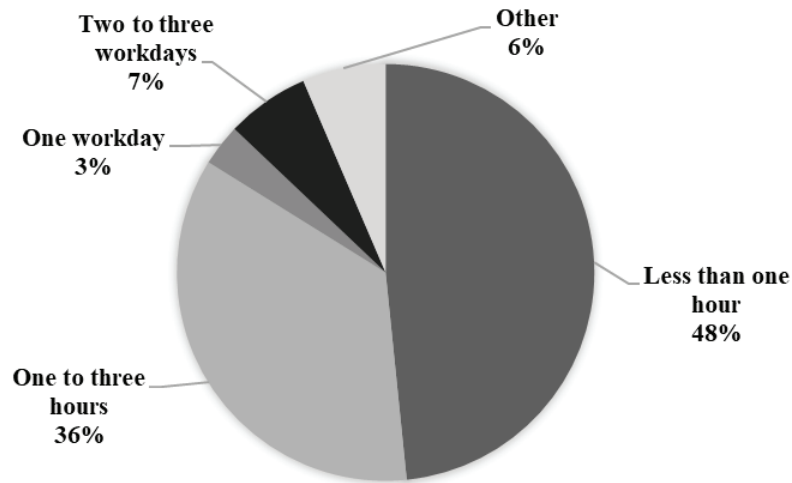


Figure 4. Distribution of responses on question If followers of your institution's social media account make valuable contribution to the content published by your institution – how fast this information reach responsible persons in your institution?

Source: Authors conducted survey to representatives of the Latvian public administration, 2019, n = 31

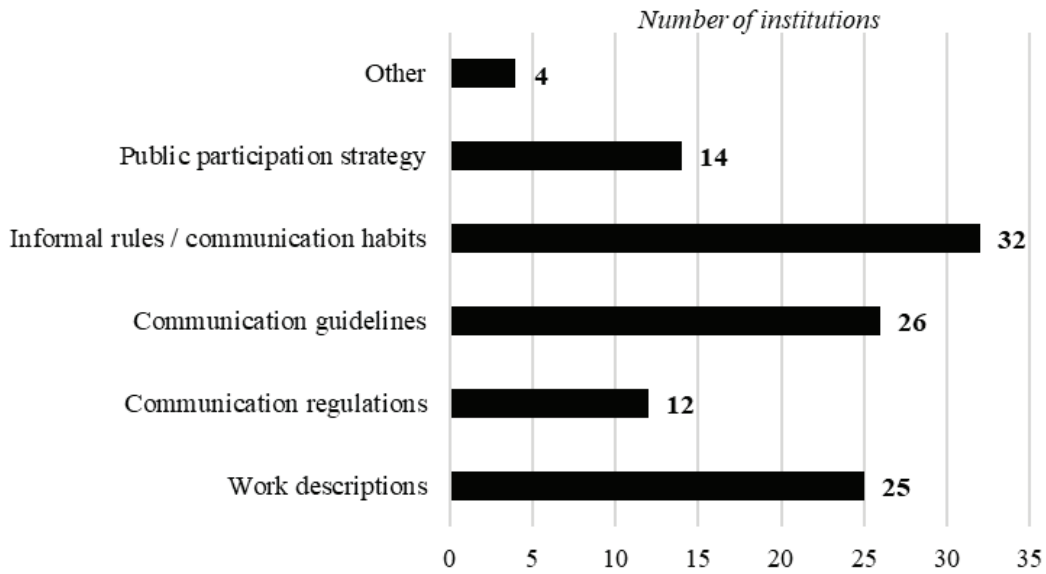


Figure 5 Internal regulations in the Latvian public administration institutions' influencing creation of social media content by the institution (respondents could select more than one option)

Source: Authors conducted survey to representatives of the Latvian public administration, 2019, n = 55

sible to citizens if all Latvian public administration institutions communicated according to the same rules to ensure a unified image of the public institutions and to ease gathering of information from public institutions, communication with them, and participation in the decision-making process.

In the survey to representatives of Latvian public administration, respondents were asked to evaluate the necessity for a common regulation by state on how the institutions are communicating with citizens online. In the scale from 1 to 10, where 1 is not necessary and 10 is definitely needed, respondents evaluated the necessity of common regulations with 5.71 arithmetic mean. Although responses were very heterogenous, there were several evaluations both for 10 and for 1 as well. Thus, it can be observed that there are various and even diametrically opposite attitudes to the digital communication in Latvian public administration that was also seen in the previous question on the current internal regulations. Therefore, it is in the hands of senior management of Latvian public administration whether the institutions will successfully use the opportunities for citizen engagement provided by digital environment.

Conclusions

Latvia provides an interesting example to study political participation and opportunities of digital forms of participation. On one hand, Latvians are still learning how democracy works and how important political engagement is for daily decision-making process of public administration. On the other hand, Latvia is experiencing a rapid digital development, thus offering an easily accessible digital environment as a place where public administration and citizens can meet and cooperate. The challenge for public administration in Latvia is to use this situation for a benefit and foster political engagement in Latvia.

Latvian public institutions are already using digital opportunities, they are represented in social media, there are open data projects and, also, a few applications for smartphones. However, there is no common national regulation on how the communication with citizens should be organised online and there is no common strategy on how this digital communication can be used to foster citizen engagement in the decision-making process of public administration. According to results of the survey to representatives of the Latvian public administration, communication guidelines and regulations in different institutions vary a lot. If there was one common strategy or a national legal regulation for digital communication of public institutions in Latvia, it would help citizens to perceive all public institutions as a unified public administration and facilitate the understanding on how citizens can participate in the decision-making process.

Results of the survey to representatives of the Latvian public administration indicated that, for now, citizens are seen as target group for engagement in the decision-making process mostly if they are 25 years and older. To strengthen the rate of citizen engagement, it is important to think long term, thus, to educate youth about civic and political engagement. An example could be a social media page or a smartphone application specifically designed for communication with youth, educating them about democracy, public institutions and the importance of participation in the decision-making process of public administration. Therefore, public administration could ensure that later there will be grown-ups that understand the value of political engagement and are motivated to participate in the decision-making process. Youth should also be already engaged in decisions of public administration that are directly connected to the regulations and initiatives for youth sector.

The paper was supported by the national research programme “Latvian heritage and future challenges for the sustainability of the state” project “Challenges for the latvian state and society and the solutions in international context (INTERFRAME-LV)”

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PILIEČIŲ ĮSITRAUKIMAS Į SPRENDIMŲ PRIĖMIMO PROCESĄ. SKAITMENINĖS DEMOKRATIJOS GALIMYBĖS LATVIJOJE

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Santrauka

Sparti interneto ir technologijų plėtra XXI amžiuje sudaro galimybes vystyti skaitmeninei demokratijai: piliečiams lengviau ir greičiau įsitraukti į sprendimų priėmimo procesą. Straipsnyje analizuojamas Latvijos viešojo administravimo institucijų požiūris į skaitmeninės demokratijos plėtrą Latvijoje, nagrinėjant skaitmeninį įsitraukimą, kaip galimą sprendimą didinti žemą pilietinio ir politinio dalyvavimo Latvijoje procentą.

Latvijoje piliečių įsitraukimas į viešojo administravimo sprendimų priėmimo procesą yra gana menkas. Maždaug pusė piliečių balsuoja rinkimuose ir taip nustato, kurioms frakcijoms jie deleguoja savo demokratinę galią ir kur link kryps būsima šalies plėtra. Kasdieniame sprendimų priėmimo procese dalyvauja dar mažiau piliečių, taigi galutinis viešojo administravimo sprendimas ne visada atskleidžia piliečių poreikius ir norus. Nepasitenkinimas viešojo administravimo sprendimais lemia mažesnę pasitikėjimą institucijomis ir šalimi apskritai.

Straipsnio tikslas – aptarti skaitmeninę demokratiją, kaip sprendimą paskatinti piliečių dalyvavimą sprendimų priėmimo procese, taip keisdamas piliečių požiūrį į viešojo administravimo ir apskritai institucijų priimamus sprendimus. Tyrimo metodai: akademinų publikacijų skaitmeninės demokratijos ir politinės veiklos temomis analizė bei Latvijos viešojo administravimo atstovų apklausa, atlikta 2019 m. balandžio–gegužės mėnesiais internetine tyrimų apklausos programine įranga „QuestionPro“. Latvijos viešojo administravimo atstovams, kurie yra atsakingi už bendravimą su visuomene ir bendradarbiavimą su piliečiais, išsiųstas asmeninis kvietimas užpildyti klausimyną. Gražintos 55 visiškai arba iš dalies užpildytos apklausos: šešiolika respondentų – iš Latvijos ministerijų, kiti respondentai atstovavo Latvijos Parlamentui, Tarpsektoriniam koordinavimo centrui, vietos valdžios institucijoms ir kelioms kitoms Latvijos viešosioms įstaigoms.

Klausimyne kiekvieno viešojo administravimo atstovo prašyta pateikti išsamią informaciją, kaip jo įstaiga išnaudoja skaitmeninės aplinkos galimybes, tokias kaip socialinė žiniasklaida ir išmaniųjų telefonų programos, siekdama bendrauti su piliečiais ir įtraukti juos į sprendimų priėmimo procesą. Respondentai vertino skirtingas dalyvavimo formas ir komunikacijos kanalus, žvelgdami iš atstovaujamos institucijos pozicijų.

Straipsnio išvadose teigiama, kad Latvijoje sąlygos plėsti skaitmeninę demokratiją yra puikios, trūksta tik bendro reguliavimo, kaip Latvijoje koordinuojamas skaitmeninis bendravimas ir dalyvavimas internete, be to, valstybinės įstaigos turėtų daugiau dėmesio skirti Latvijos jaunimo švietimui, informuoti apie pilietinį ir politinį įsitraukimą. Taip pamažu Latvijos piliečiai sužinotų, kaip galima dalyvauti Latvijos viešojo administravimo sprendimų priėmimo procese.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *piliečių įsitraukimas, skaitmeninė demokratija, viešosios įstaigos, socialinė žiniasklaida.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: I28, L86, M15, O31.

Received: 2019-08-25

Revised: 2019-09-15

Accepted: 2019-10-01

THE PROBLEM OF ESTABLISHING WELFARE STATE MODELS, THEIR VALUES AND COHERENCE WITH THE PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION MODELS

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ABSTRACT

It is pointed in the article that a significant and relevant direction of new social sciences in the body of the problems of research into welfare states (in general) and in Central and Eastern European countries in particular, could be the investigation of the problem of compatibility and coherence between welfare state models and public administration models, to be more precise, examining if this relation is accidental or not. This problem of coherence between welfare state and public administration models has to be investigated empirically in subsequent research, as the author raises this problem firstly in this article theoretically.

KEYWORDS: *welfare state models, public administration models, values, compatibility, coherence, New Public Governance.*

JEL CODES: I31.

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.1995>

Introduction

The economic approach in the modern world, including Central and Eastern Europe, has reached its apogee along with its economic indicators, such as promotion of competition or aiming at GDP growth, whereas individual success or failure is seen through the lens of the stories of micro-economic success or failure. P. Genschel, by referring to Garret's insights, properly notes (2004: 614) that "the globalization of markets seemed to leave governments with no choice but to pursue neo-liberal policies. "Good government" has become synonymous with "market-friendly government". Yet what actions encouraged this and what effect globalization and the economization of many areas has had on the values, political and administrative changes of a welfare state? Economic integration of states that was encouraged by the globalization since 1980 and economic crises that are becoming more intensive had influence on the changes of the welfare state. The influence of the political left and right on values and administrative systems conditioned various reform programmes, aiming at significantly reducing the role of the state and the administrative structures and functions by providing social services. The ongoing value changes encouraged the shift of priorities, by associating them with the programmes and projects ensuring the functions of a welfare state. In the countries of the post-Soviet bloc the critical assessment of a welfare state was influenced by the collapse of communism, when the ideas of communism were and still are associated with the ideas of "state socialism". In the context of globalization, in 2010s, one should not wonder at radical social system shifts in Poland, Hungary or, to a smaller extent, yet incremental shifts in Sweden, Germany, France, Italy (Kim, 2005: 377; Gizelis, 2005: 141; Stambolieva, 2015: 379).

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On the other hand, these processes may be explained also by changing needs of the electorate of the political parties and their cycles. Green-Pedersen and Jensen note (2019: 803–805) that both the political right and the political left are constantly competing with each other for the attention of the voters. This attention is significantly associated with the actualization of the existing problems and election needs in the context of a welfare state. Yet the changing needs and values of voters condition also the shift of the priorities of the traditional political structures. In post-industrial economy the political left, which would traditionally represent the interests of the less educated working class, currently focus more on the educated middle-class due to more social-cultural rather than economic reasons related to redistribution and those related to a welfare state. For these processes, also transition from the more industrial to more service sector, individual experience with social programmes, the shift of the voters' personal values, demographic distribution are more common (Gingrich, Häusermann, 2015: 52–54; Lynch, Myrskylä, 2009: 1072; Green-Pedersen, Jensen, 2019: 804–805). It is noteworthy that “at the domestic level, a rapidly aging population and a shrinking labour force poses markedly higher future costs for maintaining welfare benefits at current levels for most European states” (Gizelis, 2005: 140). Hence the behaviour of the voters may be seen as a factor determining the shifts of the value priorities, political parties, welfare state and administrative systems.

Modern world raises especially difficult challenges and issues to mind and the development of activities. The theories and decisions of the 20th century often are not in line with the new, complicated conditions of the global 21st century, when former regularities are not valid anymore, the demographic and climate change is happening, there are huge emigrations waves, the development of international relations is contradictory (Keskinen, 2016: 353; Genschel, 2004; Gizelis, 2005), and the development of technologies is unimaginably rapid. We are on the verge of something very big and new, when the old things are not valid anymore, and the new has not been created yet; therefore, even timid novel attempts should be encouraged, approved more often than blocked, not debarred and delimited. Social problems, such as social guarantees for self-employed, reintegration of the persons in social exclusion, budget deficits of social protection and multiple other issues make us look for ways to achieve social stabilization in tense global and local situations. Yet globalization itself has not only positive but also negative effects, as glocalization is thriving along with it, which is restricting everything, and individual states start seeking ‘closure’ rather than ‘openness’ so that they are able to control the undesired phenomena. Likewise, for example, in Europe integration aims to create supranational political and economic institutions that seem to challenge the primacy of the nation state and its effectiveness to regulate the welfare of its citizens (Gizelis, 2005: 140).

In the article of the authors', the problem of coherence of welfare state and public administration models is raised and formulated on the basis of a descriptive and comparative method and critical analysis, which later on, upon verification of it in practice and upon completion of broader interdisciplinary research in social and humanitarian sciences, is likely to receive approving or, on the contrary, disproving assessments and feedback.

1. On the issue of welfare state models and their values

One of the concepts contradicting to the all-encompassing ‘neoliberal economization’ is the so-called theory and practice of Western ‘welfare states’, the value basis of which is made not only of economics but also other social and humanitarian sciences. They are concerned not only with what is egoistic but also with what is altruistic; not only with what is private, but also with what is and has to be public; not only with macro-economic but also with macro-social indicators; not only with the economic but also social value, which may not necessarily be possible to express in quantitative terms and calculate. But naturally question appears, where is the difference between the traditional state and welfare state concepts? According R. Harisalo and J. McInerney (2008), “the state has four major institutional tools available to promote its purposes. These are: services, regulation, financial transfers, and delegation to local government“. A welfare state is not only an economically strong state but also a society that is built on the value-laden foundations of solidarity and relative equality under the conditions of capitalism. According S. Keskinen (2016: 354), the establishment of the welfare model not only was an economic and social process, but was also about cons-

tructing national identities. This process historically was related to such specific cultural elements as values implementation in the political and administrative system. As T. Gizelis writes, “western welfare states have three primary goals: redistribution, efficiency, and social cohesion“ (Gizelis, 2005: 142).

The measures and instruments of the state in such a welfare state are directed to the mitigation of sharp contradictions of capitalism, manifestation of relative equality, and first of all – manifestation of equal opportunities and humanity. In a welfare state, the national dimension and national values have not been denied. In the most general terms, the definition of a welfare state could be as follows. A welfare state is the body of the measures of the social policy and administration of the state, first of all – in the area of social protection, which is supplemented by the measures of non governmental organizations and private sector aiming at not only economic efficiency but also social justice in the direction towards a sustainable state and development of society. Should the definition of a welfare state single out ‘a welfare society’ rather than ‘a welfare state’, in the view of the author, such a definition would lose its right to be seen from the lens of social justice achievement in the entire problematics of a welfare state with all the consequential methodologies and ideological implications. It is exactly the emphasis of ‘a welfare society’ rather than ‘a welfare state’ that is more characteristic of the representatives of modern neoliberalism in the entire world both in the terms of values and practical welfare achievement, yet it has huge drawbacks as a result of widespread phenomena of social injustice, poverty and social exclusion. Nowadays are forming also other aspects of welfare state, which are expressed, for example, as outlined by S. Keskinen, “welfare nationalism” aspect: “In which welfare and national identity are intertwined and welfare provision is based on national membership. In such discourses, the welfare state and its future are presented as a national concern that should be the focus of politics and economy (...) Welfare chauvinism frames welfare provision as reserved only ‘for our own’ in the sense that belonging or non-belonging is based on (ethno) nationalist, othering and often racialising criteria. I use welfare exclusionism to refer to discourses and ideologies in which welfare provision is reserved only for a part of those who live and work in the country, not for all with a residence permit. This includes views and policies that deny or condition access to income benefits or social services for migrants and their descendants even after they have lived in the country for several years and gained a permanent residence permit” (Keskinen, 2016: 355).

During the last three decades welfare states in Western Europe have somewhat retreated, yet they did not collapse. Their ‘golden age’ was in 1950s to 1975, yet even today, under the conditions of globalization, they are still constructed on the basis of the same value-moral foundations. According P. Genschel (2004: 615), „the welfare state steps in where the market fails, but can do so only if it is not exposed to market forces itself. Globalization, however, subjects the welfare state to the market pressures of international competition and thus inevitably undermines its viability and effectiveness“. And it is hardly possible that their current, even not ‘silver’ but ‘bronze age’ (Moreno, 2016) will turn into ‘iron age’. One can see evident shifts of showing interest in the welfare state both worldwide especially now, when neoliberal development has exhausted its possibilities and does not look like the only progressive direction of the movement. Especially it was the last global economic crisis of 2008–2010 that ‘helped’ to understand this. It resulted in louder discussions on social injustice and exclusion both in the public space in the world and in Europe. This discussion was too late, yet the macrosocial indicators achieved do not allow to continue being silent and wait for these problems, with improving economic situation, to be solved automatically (Mykolaitytė, 2019). To achieve a social balance it is necessary to ensure a strong welfare state. From the methodological point of view, today it is already possible, by making a scientific-ideological cross-section of the entire country (or countries), to group them according to the categories of decommodification, public/private ratio and other categories. Today, for example, Lithuania may be seen only as a minimum post-communist corporate-bismarckian-clientelistic type welfare state, slowly drifting to a liberal-marginal type. Why liberal as well as ‘marginal’? Since this type generates marginal groups, social exclusion. This, according to the methodology of G. Esping-Andersen, may be proven not only in qualitative but also quantitative terms (Esping-Andersen, 1990). The significance of a welfare state has long been substantiated, there are many of Western authors published (Keskinen, 2016; Gizelis, 2005; Gingrich, Häusermann, 2015; Bannink, Hoogenboom, 2007; Ha-

risalo, McInerney, 2008; Lynch, Myrskylä, 2009; Genschel, 2004; Green-Pedersen, Jensen, 2019) and tens of conferences held for this purpose, only in Eastern and Central Europe there are still countries that want to turn their still not developed welfare states into substitute 'welfare societies', which in fact ensure welfare only to a handful of the chosen ones and indeed do not want and attempt to develop a middle class, and make the marginals leave their social exclusion.

There are no ideal models of welfare states in practice. Yet individual countries, such as Sweden, Germany or the USA are closest to the typical models of welfare states, as they were taken in mind by R. Titmuss (Titmuss, 1958; 1974), and later depicted by G. Esping-Andersen (Esping-Andersen, 1990), as institutional-universal-redistributive-socialdemocratic (Beveridgean) in the Nordic countries, industrial achievements-corporative-conservative (Bismarckian) in the continental Western European states and liberal-marginal (residual) in the anglo-saxon countries. The institutional-socialdemocratic model methodologically is based on the social rights, corporative-conservative model is based on the labour market and family, and liberal-marginal model methodologically is based on the market values. One of the most important criterias for this division is qualitative and quantitative public/versus/private relation in each of the models and the calculation of decommmodification indexes. The authors of the article clearly follow this division of welfare states theoretically as proven empirically, also adding the subsequently defined models to this typology as corporative-Bismarckian-conservative-clientelistic model in Southern European countries (Ferrera, 1996) and postcommunist corporative-Bismarckian-clientelistic model in Central and Eastern European countries (Fenger, 2007; Aidukaitė, Bogdanova, Guogis, 2012). Overall, the concepts of the existing welfare state may be divided into several categories. First, a welfare state is a certain stage of social development. With social development, a certain type of the society is created, which due to the development of production is characterized as material abundance, freedom or tolerance, which is determined by political development. This special type of the society extends the opportunities of the state, especially in meeting material needs of the citizens. A welfare state is defined as an inevitable relation with material abundance and civic freedoms, hence it is only possible in a developed capitalist society, since, for example, in the countries of former (Soviet Union, Albania) or existing (Cuba, North Korea, Belarus) state socialism the civic rights were not and are not ensured. Other Central and Eastern European countries, for example, in former Yugoslavia have shown different welfare developments. So, Slovenia's welfare model became an example of mixed corporative conservative (Bismarckian) and social-democratic (Beveridgean) system. Minor reforms, such as the introduction of a supplementary pension scheme based on individualized savings, voluntary health insurance, active labor market measures, have been undertaken; however, the state retained its stronghold. Similarly, Croatia kept the mixed Bismarckian / Beveridgean model, while introducing some (neo)liberal elements promoted by the international financial institutions. Despite reforms, various exceptions made to dampen their adverse effects or to preserve privileges have diluted the new elements. Serbia's and Montenegro's welfare systems suffered tremendously during the 1990s when their functionality was brought under question. The overthrow of the previous political regime allowed the two countries to rebuild their systems (Stambolieva, 2015: 383).

In the past three decades, Western welfare states have been overrun by multifarious reforms. Social security benefits have been substantially reduced in many countries, eligibility rules have been significantly tightened and in many cases the administration of the arrangements has been drastically revised (Bannink, Hoogenboom, 2007: 19).

A welfare state may be defined as a lifestyle. According to this interpretation, the concept of a welfare state is explained as the person's behaviour in the society. The residents of such countries have an individual lifestyle, yet the fundamental life conditions are ensured to them by the society. A welfare state contains social measures organized and implemented firstly by state, only afterwards by non-governmental and private organizations. Nowadays it is attempted to rationally reduce huge influence of the state. The residents appreciate the values of freedom, equality and solidarity. Third, part of people single out the political essence of a welfare state (Cousins, 2005). They see it as 'a collection of social and economic policy', when the welfare of citizens consists of old-age and unemployment benefits and state healthcare. The relation of all the kinds of state policies makes people to include any government (state) policy into the concept of a welfare state.

Upon inclusion of all the aspects of a state policy into such a concept, it becomes similar to a welfare state as a stage of development of the society. Fourth, part of people give most attention to the governance style of the state. They claim that during the second half of the 20th century the governments of almost all industrial countries significantly extended the bureaucratic apparatus. In their opinion, the bureaucratic system is the most important feature of a welfare state.

Welfare states may be divided based on a philosophical approach, since this division is characteristic of not only gnoseological (knowledge) approach, but also, due to its 'social sensitivity', on the ontological (being) and axiological (values) aspects. Welfare states are divided also on the socio-political approach – that is on the aspects of economics, sociology and political science. This way the liberal marginal welfare state gives priority to the market. The most typical countries of this model are Anglo-Saxon countries. A conservative corporative (Bismarckian) welfare state gives priority to dependence on the labour market and family. The most typical countries of this model are continental Western European countries, which first of all may be divided into countries that are more to the North, South and East. Some authors, for instance, Ferrera, single out a separate type of this model of countries – the countries of Southern Europe that have more features of clientelism (Ferrera, 1996), for the definition of which names of the model of the Mediterranean and Roman model are used. European Union countries of Central and Eastern Europe also have a number of features of the latter model – hence, they could be singled out as a separate group of countries (Kaarlainen, Lehtonen, 2006; Aidukaitė, Bogdanova, Guogis, 2012; Pop Radu, 2014), which is divided by some of the authors into several more groups of states (Skudis, 2009; Tache, Neesham, 2011; Lauzadyte-Tutliene, Balezentis, Goculenko, 2018). A universal institutional social-democratic welfare state gives priority to the state and social citizenship, social equality and solidarity is important to it. The most typical country of this model is Sweden along with four other countries of Northern Europe.

2. On the problem of compatibility and coherence of welfare states and public administration models in CEECs

A significant and relevant direction of new social sciences in the body of the problems of research into welfare states (in general) and in Eastern European countries in particular, could be the investigation of the problem of coherence between welfare state models and public administration models, to be more precise, examining if this relation is accidental or not. The aim of this kind of research would be to establish the logical, rational, not contradicting to itself relation of the models, which would encourage so effective public administration that would allow reaching the social aims of creation of an efficient welfare state. But if the contradictions appear between the latter and the former, the researchers' aim is to reveal these contradictions, to show their theoretical and practical incompatibility, and to suggest a more rational and logical way to overcome these contradictions for sustainable grounding and implementation.

Theoretically, the liberal-marginal welfare state model, which is based on the market, generates New public management model and vice/versa (as private sector's principles and methods in Anglo-Saxon countries), the corporative - conservative welfare state model, which is based on 'Bismarckian' conservative principles and methods, coincides more with the Hierarchical model (as labour market principles and methods in continental Western European countries), and certain traits of New public governance model are found in the Nordic countries, corresponding more to universal - redistributive social-democratic welfare state model, which is based on social citizenship. The question actually arises to examine the interaction of these models in CEECs, in which the mixed features of certain minimal welfare states are prevailing with the more visible characteristics of a 'Bismarckian' – corporative conservative model along with clientelism, and the shift to marginal-liberal model is noticed as well. However, because of the features of clientelism of a welfare model – nepotism, corruption, protectionism, lack of social capital, insufficient activities of NGOs and political organizations, the necessity for better public administration in the form of New Public Governance in CEECs is on the agenda. In addition, it is necessary to take into account the importance of multilevel governance in the majority of CEECs as EU

countries (Moreno, 2018). New Public Governance is of vital importance in CEECs for its values and methods enabling openness, transparency, participation, pluralism, democracy, social justice, social responsibility, social quality, interorganizational and intersectoral cooperation, non-corruption, an active role of non-governmental organizations. These values and methods appear to be decisive not only in the final stage of reaching results, but they also penetrate into the very lasting administrative process in order to reach these results. It is rather obvious that the model of New Public Governance is more socially orientated than the Hierarchical and, especially, New Public Management model. In this regard, the most generic definition of the models of public administration can be provided here both with regard to theoretical – normative, and practical – implementation approach, as a means to formulate and implement the practices of public administration.

The previous social research investigated the welfare states/societies and public administration models separately, without trying to combine them worldwide (Kim, 2005; Green-Pedersen, Jensen, 2019; Stambolieva, 2015; Harisalo, McInerney, 2008; Gingrich, Häusermann, 2015; Gizelis, 2005). As we have outlined above, the models of welfare states were defined and investigated by Titmuss, Esping-Andersen, Ferrera et al. Sociologist Titmuss distinguished the main three models: a marginal-residual, industrial achievements and universal-institutional-redistributive models. Esping-Andersen developed the welfare typology by introducing not only qualitative parameters (public versus private, etc.), but also quantitative indicators (decomposition and stratification) and adjusted this theory to political science, defining liberal, conservative and social-democratic models (Bannink, Hoogenboom, 2007). Italian researcher Ferrera added the fourth welfare state model of a Mediterranean – South European type, Kaarlainen, Lehtonen (Kaarlainen, Lehtonen, 2006), Fenger (Fenger, 2007) started talking about a separate post-communist Eastern European model (both latter models having features of clientelism, Aidukaite, Bogdanova, Guogis, 2012).

On the other hand, Weber developed a hierarchical public administration model by indicating its ‘bureaucratic pyramid’. Hood (Hood, 1991), Osborne, Gaebler (Osborne, Gaebler, 1992) defined the New Public Management model which was already practically implemented in Anglo-Saxon countries after Thatcher-Reagan reforms. New Public Governance was a development of the public administration theory and practice in the Western world (Pollitt, Bouckaert, 2011) and more theoretically – in Central and Eastern Europe (Guogis, 2013; Rakšnys, Guogis, Minkevičius, 2015). The necessity for New Public Governance in CEECs is postulated as having more of social value, as it was pointed above, than New Public Management and Hierarchical models. In any case, this research question of finding the coherence between the models of welfare states and public administration models has the focus on the effective public administration and active social policy in CEECs in general, and the suitability / non-suitability of these models for the social aims in particular. From the authors’ point of view, the proposition of the universal-institutional-redistributive model and New Public Governance (and established coherence between them) can contribute to the public discourse on the elimination of nepotism, corruption, protectionism, not sufficient activities of NGOs and political organizations and the encouragement of cooperation, social justice, social responsibility, social equality and social inclusion. It is important at this stage of development and problem solving and in this stage of research that it is easier to describe the necessity of New Public Governance by theoretical principles as a normative public administration model, but it is more difficult to describe it by practical implementation methods and practical tools. In terms of the perspectives in the related subject, with gaining more practical results and making more values evident in the development of welfare states, public administration and research of welfare states and New Public Governance, it can be argued that more empirically based projects and publications will appear in social and humanitarian sciences too.

Conclusions

1. A welfare state contains social measures organized and implemented firstly by state, only afterwards by non-governmental and private organizations.
2. The models of public administration theoretically and practically express the measures by creating the practices of public administration.

3. The problem of coherence of welfare states and public administration models is relevant in attempting to avoid the contradictions in the creation of welfare states.
4. If consider the social aims, the most valuable coherence between the models of welfare states and public administration may be shown as achieving the compatibility of the universal institutional-redistributive welfare model and the New Public Governance model. This kind of conclusion, at least theoretically, may be seen not only considering the problems of Western countries, but also considering Central and Eastern European countries.
5. Having founded the problem of coherence between welfare states and public administration models, later on, in the longer term perspective, it is useful to implement the respective practices and scientific research in all above mentioned aspects.

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GEROVĖS VALSTYBĖS MODELIŲ, JŲ VERTYBIŲ IR SUDERINAMUMO SU VIEŠOJO ADMINISTRAVIMO MODELIAIS PROBLEMA

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Santrauka

Gerovės valstybių modelių kūrimo problema egzistuoja jau ne vieną dešimtį metų. Ypatingas vaidmuo, siekiant socialinės kokybės, kai kuriamos gerovės valstybės, tenka vertybių puoselėjimo klausimui. Autoriai straipsnyje šiuo aspektu kelia originalią gerovės valstybės ir viešojo administravimo modelių atitikimo bei jų suderinamumo problemą tiek Vakaruose, tiek ir Centrinės bei Rytų Europos šalyse. Jų teigimu, liberalus marginalinis gerovės valstybės modelis anglosaksiškose šalyse generuoja naująją viešąją vadybą ir atvirkščiai, o korporatyvus-konservatyvus gerovės valstybės modelis labiau atitinka hierarchinį viešojo administravimo modelį kontinentinės Vakarų Europos valstybėse. Tam tikri naujojo viešojo valdymo bruožai atskleidžia labiau universalų persikirstomąjį socialdemokratinį modelį kūrūsiose Šiaurės Europos šalyse. Kyla klausimas dėl Pietų, Centrinės ir Rytų Europos gerovės valstybės modelių, kuriems, be „bismarkinių“

korporatyvaus modelio savybių, būdingi ir klientelistiniai atitikimo hierarchiniam viešojo administravimo modeliui elementai, nes pastaruoju metu jie „dreifavo“ liberalaus marginalinio modelio link. Dėl klientelistinių bruožų (nepotizmo, korupcijos, protekcionizmo, mažo nevyriausybinių ir politinių organizacijų aktyvumo) šioms valstybėms aktualus naujojo viešojo valdymo elementų formulavimas ir jų įgyvendinimas. Bet kuriuo atveju gerovės valstybės modelių ir jų atitikimo bei suderinamumo problema yra aktuali teorinė ir praktinė problema tiek Vakaruose, tiek Centrinės bei Rytų Europos šalyse.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *gerovės valstybės modeliai, viešojo administravimo modeliai, vertybės, atitikimas, suderinamumas, naujasis viešasis valdymas.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: I31.

Received: 2019-09-05

Revised: 2019-09-26

Accepted: 2019-10-16

NORDIC-BALTIC COOPERATION: OPPORTUNITIES, DIVISIONS AND EXTERNAL THREATS

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ABSTRACT

The Nordic Baltic region (5+3)² is now closely interlinked via trade, investment, mobility of people, and banking. All the countries in this group have pursued some form of integration with the European Union (EU). Six of them are EU member states, four of them are members of the euro area, and all of them are within the European Economic Area (EEA) and are Schengen member states. But can these small countries as a group cooperate more closely and perhaps exercise more collective authority in Europe? The Nordic countries and the Baltic States cooperate in the Bretton Woods institutions, the World Bank and the IMF, and six of them are among European NATO member states. When it comes to European integration the lack of common approach complicates their cooperation. Within this group there are internal divisions between the hardcore EU and euro area member states (the Baltics and Finland), EU members (Denmark and Sweden) and EU outsiders (Iceland and Norway). Common pathways for the future cooperation in Europe may be hard to find. Also, the Nordics are high income welfare states, but the Baltics are neoliberal with minimal governments and low-tax regimes. Additionally, external forces continue to challenge the Nordic Baltic region, including revanchist Russian policies threatening Baltic Sovereignty, unpredictable US policies towards NATO as well as reduced military presence in Europe, and dismal EU and euro area post crisis economic performance. All point to a future of uncertainty including both economic and security risks. **KEYWORDS:** *European integration, small states, regional cooperation, Nordic countries, Baltic States.*

JEL CODES: F15, F50, P20

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.1996>

Introduction

The Nordic Baltic region is closely interlinked via trade, investment, mobility of people, and banking. Because of this integration, as well political, cultural and historical ties, these countries are sometimes referred to as the Nordic-Baltic countries (NB8). All the countries in this group have pursued some form of integration with the European Union (EU)³ as will be discussed below.

Internally, the level of economic and political integration varies among these eight countries, for several reasons. These include, for example, different economic and political policies and priorities as well as different security concerns.

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² Nordics (5): Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Norway and Sweden. Baltics (3): Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. All the eight countries together are sometimes referred to as NB8.

³ The EU is an economic and political union between 28 European countries that together cover a large share of the continent. The EU was created in the aftermath of the Second World War. The first steps were to foster economic cooperation: the idea being that countries that trade with one another become economically interdependent and so more likely to avoid conflict, see further (European Union 2019a https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/eu-in-brief_en). Current member states are: Austria, Belgium, Bulgaria, Croatia, the Republic of Cyprus, the Czech Republic, Denmark, Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Latvia, Lithuania, Luxembourg, Malta, the Netherlands, Poland, Portugal, Romania, Slovakia, Slovenia, Spain, Sweden and the UK.

Externally the Nordic and the Baltic countries are greatly influenced by non-EU member states in Europe. Most notably the five countries in this group that share borders with Russia.⁴ In fact, the Nordic-Baltic region has the distinction of being the only part of the EU that borders Russia. Countries in distant regions are also important, especially the United States (USA) because of its role as security guarantor in Europe via its participation in the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO)⁵ (NATO, 2018) and leadership within that alliance.

While the focus of this article is mainly on the EU and NATO, it should be noted that those countries also cooperate in other institutions such as the Bretton Woods institutions (i.e. the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund) as well as the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development, the Council of Europe, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe and the United Nations, amongst others.

The objective of this paper is to answer the question: Can the Nordic-Baltic countries as a group exercise collective authority in Europe? Answering this question requires considering internal differences including different approaches to European integration as well as different economic and social policies. External concerns also come into play, including proximity with Russia, reliance on the US and NATO, and finally economic and social performance of the EU and Euro Area post crisis.

1. The Nordic Baltic Region: EU integration and NATO membership

European integration is important for the Nordic countries and the Baltic States as their economies largely, albeit to varying degrees, depend on trade of goods and services with EU member states and thus access to the EU internal market. Dependence on trade with other nations is typical of small states which have relatively small domestic markets, produce a limited variety of goods and need to rely on cross-border trade to achieve economies of scale⁶ in their production. Cross-border capital flows within the EU are also important to the Nordic countries and the Baltic States. This is especially true of the Baltic States, which are still in transition, catching up with richer EU member states. Access to the common labour market can be beneficial, especially if the flows of people are circular, that is, people migrating to other countries and returning with more experience and education. Nevertheless, this can be a challenge for the lower-income Baltic States, where young people may not have an incentive to return once settled in higher-income countries with better living conditions, including more advanced welfare systems. The austerity programmes in the Baltics have made them particularly vulnerable post 2008 crisis. Security issues also come into play as an important incentive to participate in European integration, and defence alliances are particularly important for small states that can be, and often have been, threatened by larger, more powerful neighbours. Iceland's situation is special in this regard as it is located in the Atlantic Ocean, far from continental Europe and has a bilateral defence agreement with the US in addition to NATO membership.

Because of their strategic locations, the Nordic and the Baltic countries have often been targets of conquest and control. During World War II Denmark and Norway were occupied by Germany. Finland fought against the Soviet Union. Iceland was under British and later US control. Only Sweden managed to remain neutral. All the Nordics regained their independence after World War II. In contrast, all three Baltic States suffered occupation for decades after World War II being annexed to the Soviet Union until 1991.

⁴ Finland, Estonia, and Latvia have eastern borders with Russia while Lithuania borders Kaliningrad. Norway borders Russia in the north-east.

⁵ NATO's essential purpose is to safeguard the freedom and security of its members through political and military means, see further (NATO, 2019) <http://www.nato.int/nato-welcome/index.html> Among the Nordic countries, Denmark, Iceland and Norway are members. All three Baltic States are members. Finland and Sweden are not NATO member states but cooperate closely with NATO. The USA has been the major guarantor of peace in Europe via NATO although recent developments after the 2016 presidential elections have raised concerns about its weakening commitment.

⁶ Economies of scale mean the cost advantage that arises with increased output of a product. Average cost per unit decreases as volume increases.

While the levels of Nordic and Baltic European integration are different, all the Nordic countries and the Baltic States are within the European Economic Area (EEA)⁷ and participate in Schengen (European Commission, 2018a).⁸ Six out of the eight countries are EU member states and two are European Free Trade Association (EFTA)⁹ member states. Four of the Nordic-Baltic EU member states are also euro area member states and have thus adopted the euro¹⁰ (see Figure 1 below).

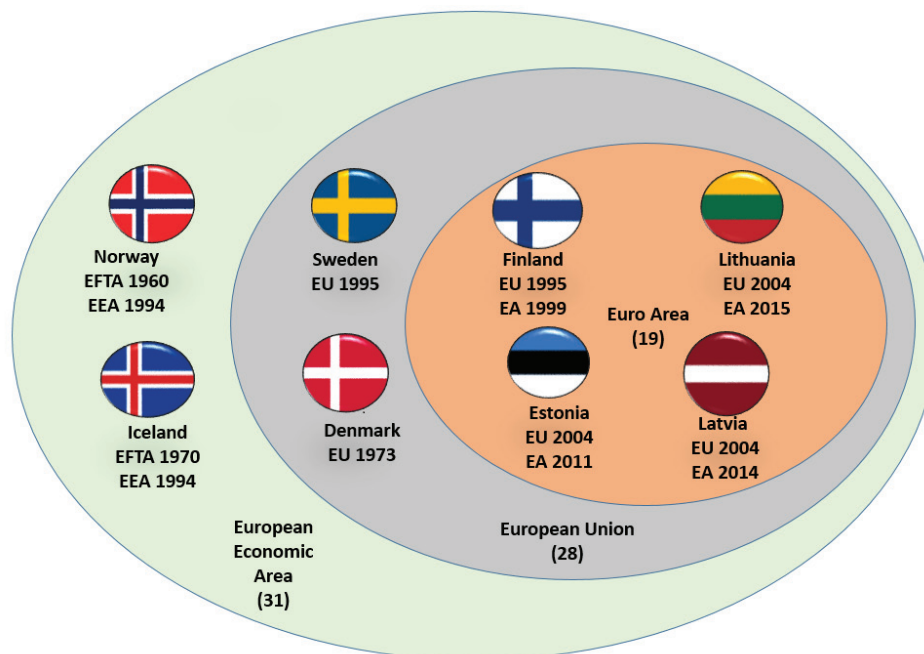


Figure 1. Different levels of European integration within the Nordic-Baltic region

Source: Constructed by the author; EFTA 2014 and European Commission 2018b.

Euro Area (EA), European Economic Area (EEA), European Free Trade Association (EFTA) and European Union (EU)

⁷ The EEA unites the EU member states and the three EEA EFTA States (Iceland, Liechtenstein, and Norway) into an Internal Market governed by the same basic rules. These rules aim to enable goods, services, capital, and persons to move freely about the EEA in an open and competitive environment, a concept referred to as the four freedoms, see further (EFTA, 2019a) <http://www.efta.int/eea>

⁸ The free movement of persons is a fundamental right guaranteed by the EU to its citizens. It entitles every EU citizen to travel, work and live in any EU country without special formalities. Schengen cooperation enhances this freedom by enabling citizens to cross internal borders without being subjected to border checks. Non-EU countries such as Iceland and Norway also participate in Schengen, see further (European Commission, 2018a) http://ec.europa.eu/home-affairs/what-we-do/policies/borders-and-visas/schengen_en

⁹ EFTA is an intergovernmental organization set up for the promotion of free trade and economic integration for the benefit of its four member states. EFTA is responsible for the management of: (i) the EFTA Convention, which forms the legal basis of the organization and governs free trade relations between the EFTA states; (ii) EFTA's worldwide network of free trade and partnership agreements; and (iii) the European Economic Area (EEA) Agreement, which enables three of the four EFTA Member States (Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway) to participate in the EU Internal Market, see further (EFTA, 2019b) <http://www.efta.int/about-efta/european-free-trade-association>

¹⁰ All 28 EU member states are part of Economic and Monetary Union (EMU) and coordinate their economic policymaking to support the economic aims of the EU. However, a number of member states have taken a step further by replacing their national currencies with the single currency – the euro. These member states form the euro area. When the euro was first introduced in 1999 – as ‘book’ money – the euro area was made up of 11 of the then 15 EU member states. Of the Nordic countries, only Finland became a member of the euro area in 1999. Of the Baltic States, Estonia joined in 2011, Latvia in 2014 and Lithuania in 2015. Today, the euro area numbers 19 EU member states. Of the Nordic Countries outside the euro area, Denmark has “opted out” from joining (laid down in Protocols annexed to the Treaty) and Sweden has not yet qualified to be part of the euro area, see further (European Commission, 2018b) https://ec.europa.eu/info/business-economy-euro/euro-area/what-euro-area_en

Among the Nordic countries and Baltic States, Iceland and Norway have the lowest level of European integration, being members of EFTA and parties to the EEA Agreement since 1994. While they are not EU member states, this arrangement provides them with access to the EU internal market critical for their export sectors. Denmark and Sweden have closer integration with the EU as full EU member states. However, neither country has chosen to enter the euro area and adopt the euro as their legal tender. Denmark has pegged its krona to the euro.¹¹ Sweden, on the other hand, maintains a floating exchange rate regime with an inflation target (Gylfason et al.: 167). Finland and the Baltic States have the highest level of EU integration among the Nordic countries and the Baltic States, being both EU and euro area member states.

All eight Baltic and Nordic countries participate in Schengen along with 18 other European countries, enabling free movement of their citizens within the Schengen Area.¹² In addition to economic and security benefits from European integration, all the Nordic countries and Baltic States except Finland and Sweden are members of NATO.¹³ It is notable, but perhaps not surprising given their history and security concerns, that the Baltic States are the most internationally integrated countries in the Nordic-Baltic group. For the Baltics, EU membership was to provide long term prosperity. NATO membership was to provide military protection and hard security. They want the closest possible links with the West not only the older EU 15 member states (i.e. the member states before the 2004 and 2007 enlargements) but also the USA.

2. Economic integration and some theoretical considerations

For the Nordic Baltic countries, free trade among themselves and within the EU Internal market is critical, and arguably the internal market is the EU's greatest asset. Classical economic theory documents gain from international trade, demonstrating that nations can improve the welfare of their populations by engaging in cross-border trade with other nations. Trade between nations can, at least in theory, result in a positive sum game, meaning that the trading countries are all better off, benefiting from their gains from trade.¹⁴ To this day this is one of the fundamental principles underlying arguments for all countries to strive to expand and to promote free world trade (e.g. Czinkota et al., 2009). The efficiencies derived from economies of scale¹⁵ are also a key argument for economic integration:¹⁶ creation of a common market allowing larger production and trading volumes can benefit all participating countries. The EU pursues regional integration, where those who have access to its common market can benefit as described above. According to regional integration theory, the level of integration varies. From least to most integrative, they are: a free trade area, a customs union, a common market, and finally, an economic and political union.

2.1. The European Free Trade Association (EFTA) and the European Economic Area (EEA)

EFTA is a free trade area and represents the loosest form of economic integration where all barriers to trade among member countries are removed. This is the route that Iceland and Norway have chosen and currently maintain in addition to access to the EU internal market via the EEA Agreement that came into force in 1994. Both countries have been reluctant in participants in European integration and have so far chosen

¹¹ Denmark has a treaty-based exception, i.e. "opt-out" from monetary union, which is not the case for Sweden.

¹² A Schengen Visa is a document issued by the appropriate authorities for visiting/travelling to and within the Schengen Area. The Schengen Area comprises 26 countries that have agreed to allow free movement of their citizens within this area as a single country. Of the 26 countries bound by the Schengen agreement, 22 are part of the EU and the other 4 are part of EFTA. The Schengen area covers the majority of European countries, except for the UK and countries such as Romania, Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus and Ireland, soon to be part of the agreement. However, countries that are not part of the EU such as Norway, Iceland, Switzerland and Liechtenstein do belong in the Schengen area and enjoy the free movement policy, see further (Schengen, 2019) <http://www.schengenvisainfo.com/>

¹³ NATO is always headed by a European Secretary General although most of the heavy lifting militarily has been done by the USA.

¹⁴ Without trade, countries can consume what they produce, but with trade they can consume beyond their production capabilities.

¹⁵ Economies of scale are factors that cause the average cost of producing something to fall as the volume of its output increases.

¹⁶ In addition to the economic benefits of economic integration, important political and security concerns may also drive the integration process.

to stay out of the EU. The current arrangement pursued by Iceland and Norway does not require a common trade policy, such as a common external tariff, with respect to non-members, as do customs unions such as the EU. Nor does it require the surrender of numerous measures of their national sovereignty to supranational authorities in Union-wide institutions such as the European Parliament, the European Commission and the European Council. Nor, too, does it require participation in common agricultural or fisheries policies. Furthermore, Iceland and Norway do not take part in European Central Bank activities as they are not part of the monetary union and have their own currencies.

Initially, the Nordic countries Denmark, Norway and Sweden were among the founding members of EFTA in 1960. Other founding members were Austria, Portugal, Switzerland and the United Kingdom (UK). Given the size of its economy, as well as its regional and global importance, the UK was in a leadership role in EFTA from the beginning until it left and joined the European Economic Community (EEC) in 1973. By joining the EEC, the UK sought more influence in shaping the EEC, a difficult or perhaps impossible task had the UK remained an EFTA member state only. Recently the UK decided to exit the EU but future arrangements with the EU and the level of economic integration remain unknown at the time of writing. With Brexit, the UK is entering uncharted territory and was scheduled to leave the EU, with or without an exit deal by the end of March 2019, now extended until end of October 2019.

Iceland became a member of EFTA in 1970 and Finland in 1986. All the Nordic countries thus decided to take part in this early regional integration effort led by EFTA. The Baltic States could not have participated in EFTA since they were occupied by the Soviet Union until their independence was re-established in 1991. To date the only Nordic countries that remain members of EFTA are Iceland and Norway. Denmark left in 1973 to join the EEC, while Finland and Sweden left in 1995 to join the EU, (see Table 2. below). Those Nordic countries were willing to surrender some of their national sovereignty to supranational authorities in Union-wide institutions and possibly hoped that they, as a like-minded group on many issues, would be able to influence the EU, that is, by being *systems-affecting* in the sense suggested by Keohane (Keohane, 1969) *that is*, states that cannot affect the international system if acting alone but that can exert significant impact on the system if working through small groups or alliances or through universal or regional international organizations.

Currently EFTA has four member states; Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland. EFTA has three core tasks: The first is the liberalization of intra-EFTA trade. Second, the EFTA states have built networks of preferential trade relations throughout the world.¹⁷ Third, three of the four EFTA states – Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway – are parties to the European Economic Area Agreement,¹⁸ which ensures their participation in the Internal Market of the EU (EFTA, 2014).¹⁹ Switzerland, also an EFTA member state, does not participate in the EEA Agreement, but has a bilateral agreement with the EU.²⁰

As EFTA/EEA member states, Norway and Iceland have no formal influence on the decision-making phase on the EU side. They cannot directly affect EU laws and regulations governing the EU internal market that they are part of. EFTA/EEA member states can, though, participate in what is called ‘decision-shaping’. This means that in the phase of preparatory work undertaken by the European Commission in drawing up new legislative proposals, the EEA Agreement contains provisions for input from the EEA EFTA side at various stages before new legislation is adopted (see Figure 2 below).²¹

¹⁷ EFTA is not a customs union.

¹⁸ The EEA Agreement does not include the following EU policies: Common Agriculture and Fisheries Policies; Customs Union; Common Trade Policy; Common Foreign and Security Policy; Justice and Home Affairs (the EFTA States are part of the Schengen area); Economic and Monetary Union (EMU).

¹⁹ The EEA EFTA States do not have the right to participate in political decision-making within the EU institutions. The EEA Agreement does, however, enable EEA / EFTA State experts to contribute to the shaping of EU legislation (EFTA, 2014).

²⁰ More information can be found about this agreement on the European Commission website https://eeas.europa.eu/delegations/switzerland_de and on the Swiss Federal Administration website (Swiss Federal Administration, 2019) <https://www.eda.admin.ch/dea/fr/home/bilaterale-abkommen.html?lang=en>

²¹ Decision-shaping is the phase of preparatory work undertaken by the European Commission to draw up new legislative proposals. The European Commission has an exclusive right to propose new legislation but is obliged to call on advice from external sources when doing so. The EEA Agreement contains provisions for input from the EEA / EFTA side at various stages before new legislation is adopted. Input can take the form of participation by EEA / EFTA experts on European Commission committees or submission of EEA / EFTA

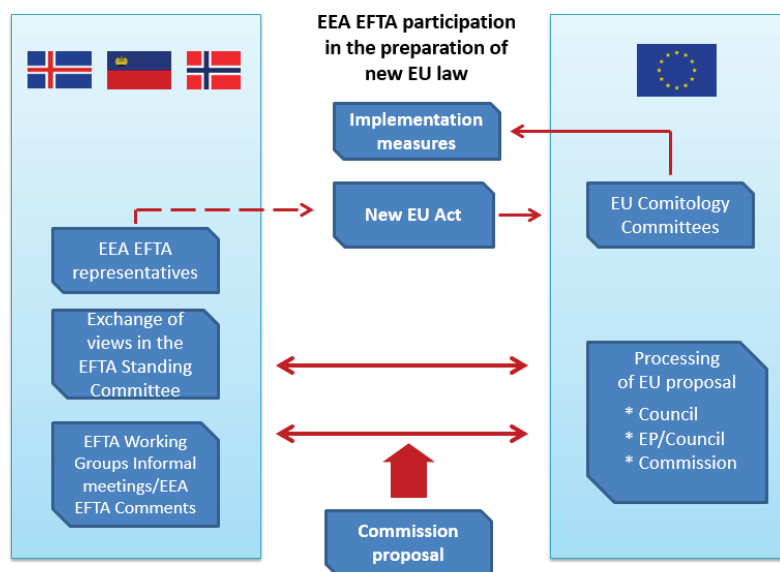


Figure 2. Decision Shaping i.e. EEA EFTA participation in the preparation of new EU law

Source: EFTA (2014)

Given how small the EFTA/EEA member states are compared to the EU, it is questionable whether they can be classified as *systems-affecting* in the EU context. The reality is that Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway receive the rules and laws governing the single European market via email without being able to directly influence the process of making them. In this regard, we can speak of sovereignty infringement. Since Iceland and Norway can only comment on those laws and regulations at an early stage of preparation at an expert level, they are not part of the final decision-making process and must adopt whatever decision is made finally by EU member states. This is the cost of enjoying access to the single market. So far the benefits have been assessed as higher than the costs.

As Table 1 shows, EFTA has lost most of its members, who chose closer economic integration by joining the EEC and later the EU, including the Nordic countries Denmark, Finland and Sweden. The Baltics never joined EFTA and immediately sought full EU membership.

Table 1. European Free Trade Association (EFTA)²² membership through the years

1960	Austria, Denmark, Norway, Portugal, Sweden, Switzerland and the UK establish EFTA
1970	Iceland becomes a member of EFTA
1973	Denmark and the UK leave EFTA to join the EEC
1985	Portugal leaves EFTA to become a member of the EEC
1986	Finland becomes a full member of EFTA
1991	Liechtenstein becomes a member of EFTA
1995	Austria, Finland and Sweden leave EFTA to join the EU

Source: EFTA, 2014; Constructed by the author

comments, as well as adoption of resolutions in response to European Commission initiatives. Bearing in mind that the EEA/ EFTA States have little influence on the decision-making phase on the EU side, it is all the more important for them to be actively involved in the decision-shaping process of EEA legislation (EFTA, 2019c) <http://www.efta.int/eea/decision-shaping>

²² EFTA is an intergovernmental organization set up for the promotion of free trade and economic integration for the benefit of its member states (today Iceland, Liechtenstein, Norway and Switzerland). The Association is responsible for managing the EFTA Convention, which forms the legal basis of the organization and governs free trade relations between the EFTA States; EFTA's worldwide network of free trade and partnership agreements; and the Agreement on the European Economic Area, which extends the EU Internal Market to three of the four EFTA States (Iceland, Liechtenstein and Norway) (EFTA, 2014).

2.2. The European Union (EU) and the Euro Area

The EU has been moving towards an economic and political union. This involves not only abolition of tariffs and quotas among members – as in the case of a free trade area such as EFTA – but also a common tariff and quota system, abolition of restrictions of factor movements, as well as harmonization and unification of economic policies and institutions. While EFTA has lost membership, the EU has expanded its membership, with currently 28 countries. This has included three Nordic countries and all the Baltic States.

Denmark joined (the then EEC) in 1973, Sweden and Finland joined the EU in 1995, and the Baltics – Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania – in 2004 (see Table 2 below). Norway rejected EEC membership in a referendum in 1973 and rejected EU membership in a referendum in 1994. Iceland applied for EU membership in 2009, but in 2013 the Icelandic government requested that ‘Iceland should not be regarded as a candidate country for EU membership’ (see Table 2. below). This decision was made without a public referendum, but by a cabinet coalition formed in 2013 (Hilmarsson, 2017). Opinion polls show that support for EU membership immediately after the crisis evaporated in Iceland in light of the failure of the EU leadership in handling the crisis (see for example Hilmarsson, 2015 and 2017; Hannibalsson, 2017). There are no signs of change and the new cabinet formed in 2017 is not seeking EU membership.

Table 2. The EU and the Nordic-Baltic Region

1962	<i>Norway</i> , the UK, <i>Denmark</i> and Ireland apply for membership in the EEC.
1973	<i>Denmark</i> , Ireland and the UK become members of the EEC. ²³ <i>Norway</i> rejected EEC membership in a popular referendum.
1994	The <i>Norwegian</i> referendum rejects accession to the EU.
1995	<i>Austria</i> , <i>Finland</i> , and <i>Sweden</i> become members of the EU. ²⁴
2004	<i>Estonia</i> , <i>Latvia</i> and <i>Lithuania</i> join the EU. ²⁵
2009	<i>Iceland</i> applies to join the EU. ²⁶
2013	The <i>Icelandic</i> government requests that ‘Iceland should not be regarded as a candidate country for EU membership’ ²⁷

Source: Constructed by the author.

The formation of an economic union requires nations to surrender some measure of their national sovereignty to supranational authorities in union-wide institutions. Iceland and Norway have not been prepared to join the EU.

Surrendering sovereignty is not controversial only in the Nordic region, as the recent decision of the UK to leave the EU demonstrates. British exit was decided in a 2016 referendum whereby British citizens voted to exit the EU: Brexit.²⁸ It remains to be seen how Brexit will be implemented and if some other EU member states will follow the UK and also consider exiting. This also depends on what kind of a deal, if any, the UK manages to make with the EU. EFTA nations are closely watching EU and UK negotiations as the final outcome could result in demands for a changed EEA agreement.

EU member states clearly have different opinions on what regional integration should include and how far it should go. This has resulted in varying levels of integration among countries within the EU. Nineteen out of 28 member states have adopted the euro (€) as their common currency and sole legal tender (see Figure 1). Among the Nordics, Denmark and Sweden, both EU members, have chosen to stay out of the euro area.

²³ (European Union, 2019b) https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/countries_en

²⁴ (European Union, 2019b) https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/countries_en

²⁵ (European Union, 2019b) https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/countries_en

²⁶ (European Commission, 2019) https://ec.europa.eu/neighbourhood-enlargement/countries/detailed-country-information/iceland_en

²⁷ (European Commission, 2019) https://ec.europa.eu/neighbourhood-enlargement/countries/detailed-country-information/iceland_en

²⁸ Brexit is an abbreviation for ‘British exit’, which refers to the 23 June 2016 referendum whereby British citizens voted to exit the EU.

The formation of a common currency area can bring economic benefits to the members of the currency union, particularly if there is a high degree of international trade among them — that is, a high level of trade integration. This is primarily because of reductions in transaction costs in trade and the reduction in exchange-rate uncertainty.

However, joining a currency union also involves costs, namely, loss of independent monetary policy and loss of the exchange rate as a means of macroeconomic adjustment. Among the Nordic countries, only Finland has adopted the euro. All the Baltic States have also done so (see Table 3 below). Denmark and Sweden rejected euro area membership and adoption of the euro in referendums. Iceland and Norway would not be eligible for membership in the euro area and could not do so unless first joining the EU and then fulfilling the euro area criteria for at least two years.

Table 3. The Euro Area and the Nordic-Baltic Region

1992	Denmark granted opt-outs from participating in the euro.
1999	Finland becomes a member of the euro area and adopts the euro. ²⁹
2003	Sweden decides not to adopt the euro for the time being in a referendum.
2011	Estonia becomes a member of the euro area and adopts the euro. ³⁰
2014	Latvia becomes a member of the euro area and adopts the euro. ³¹
2015	Lithuania becomes a member of the euro area and adopts the euro. ³²

Source: Constructed by the author

2.3. The lack of common approach in European integration

In addition to economic theories on gains from trade and economies of scale, as well as theories on the economics of integration, including a common currency area, there are theories on the behaviour of small states within multilateral arrangements. Small states as well as large states have a choice to engage in bilateral negotiations and/or multilateral arrangements to address issues that cannot only be resolved within their borders. Bilateral negotiations are carried out between two countries focusing only on their own interests. On the other hand, multilateralism is the international governance of the many, for example, EFTA with four member states, the euro area with 19, the EU with 28, and the EEA with 31 member states, large and small. Schengen has 26 member states and NATO 29.

Arguably, the lack of a common approach among the Nordic countries to European integration is unfortunate (see Figure 1) and is not in their best interest collectively. The Nordics have rather homogenous populations and are often considered like-minded, with a similar social and cultural background as well as political traditions. A Nordic group with a coordinated approach could have become a stronger voice within EU decision-making bodies. This might help to further the interest of the Nordics as well as influencing the future direction of European integration efforts (Gylfason, 2010: 167).

On the other hand, the Baltic States have a common European integration approach, but are neoliberal, with their approaches in terms of both economic and social policies differing from the Nordics. On this account the Nordics and the Baltics are not like-minded countries.

The Baltics along with Finland all have the same level of integration, being both EU and euro area member states.³³ Finland adopted the euro in 1999, Estonia in 2011, Latvia in 2014 and Lithuania in 2015. The

²⁹ European Union, 2019c) https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/countries/member-countries_en

³⁰ European Union, 2019c) https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/countries/member-countries_en

³¹ European Union, 2019c) https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/countries/member-countries_en

³² European Union, 2019c) https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/countries/member-countries_en

³³ The Baltic States are also NATO member states so arguably their level of integration is higher than that of the Nordic Countries, none of which is an EU and euro area member as well as a NATO member.

Baltic States made huge sacrifices to ensure euro area membership by implementing austerity programmes during the 2008/9 global economic and financial crisis.

It would be hard, if not impossible, for the Nordics to implement such policies without social unrest. The level of tolerance for such radical government decisions is lower in the Nordics. Arguably, income and wealth inequality within the Baltic States has undermined democracy in those countries with divisions between the elite and the poor much sharper not only as compared to the Nordics but also as compared with countries at a similar income level such as the Czech Republic, the Slovak Republic and Slovenia (Hilmarsson, 2014).

3. Security concerns, Euro Area and NATO

In addition to economic considerations when joining the euro area, Finland and later the Baltic States had political motives to settle their political identities once and for all. Finland has for long lived in the shadow of either the Soviet Union or Russia. The Baltic States were occupied by the Soviet Union after the end of World War II until regaining independence in 1991. Finland, Estonia and Latvia have eastern borders with Russia, while Lithuania borders Kaliningrad,³⁴ since 1945 part of the Soviet Union and then Russia. For those countries, EU and euro area membership are more than merely an economic integration arrangement. Security concerns too are of utmost importance for Finland and the Baltics. The EU could hardly ignore an attack on a member state without responding. Large EU countries, especially Germany and France, both euro area member states, could hardly tolerate an attack on the euro area. In addition to EU and euro area membership, the Baltic States were also keen on NATO membership and all became members in 2004.³⁵ It is notable that while EU enlargement proved to be a very lengthy and complex process for new member states, including the Baltics, NATO enlargement, which proceeded in parallel, proved much simpler and faster. Perhaps US support helped?

Of the Nordic countries, Denmark, Iceland and Norway joined NATO in 1949 and thus had been members for 55 years when the Baltic States joined (see Figure 3). NATO still remains the primary actor in European collective defence. The Baltics thus participated in a twin enlargement of the EU and NATO in 2004, driven by economic, political and security motives. Since the Ukraine crisis the Baltics have been increasingly concerned with the emerging security threat from Russia, looking to the USA to lead NATO for protection. NATO can be viewed as the alpha and omega of their security, but EU membership and especially euro area membership is also important. It is notable that while NATO was expanding and its commitment increasing, the USA was reducing its military presence in Europe. Increased commitment thus coincided with reduced military power in Europe. This has weakened NATO as a guarantor of peace in Europe.

Recently, the US commitment to NATO has also come under question. During the 2016 presidential campaign, Donald Trump stated that NATO may be ‘obsolete’ and the European allies would have to start paying their way in NATO.³⁶ Trump considers the Europeans as free-riders.

Regardless of Trump’s views and intentions, Europeans may need to recognize that the USA may not be able – financially, politically or militarily – to play the role of global policeman it assumed in 1945 (see, for example, Howorth, 2017). The USA is faced with many challenges, most notably in the Middle East and in the Pacific region. The US economy represented about half of the world economy’s GDP at Bretton Woods conference, but this is now merely 25%. Times have changed and Europe may increasingly be forced to take more charge of its own security. As Angela Merkel recently stated, Europe’s fate is “in our own hands.”³⁷

There is a need to rethink relations between the EU and NATO. The EU may increasingly need to take over NATO, recognizing that the world has changed and the USA has other security priorities than it had

³⁴ The Russian exclave of Kaliningrad on the Baltic Sea is sandwiched between Poland to the south and Lithuania to the north and east. Annexed from Germany in 1945, the territory was a closed military zone throughout the Soviet period.

³⁵ Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania became members of NATO on 29 March 2004. Prior to NATO membership they were members of the Warsaw Pact since 1955 as part of the Soviet Union.

³⁶ Merkel hits back at Trump: Europe’s fate is “in our own hands” (Business Insider, 2017).

<http://uk.businessinsider.com/merkel-hits-back-at-trump-europes-fate-is-in-our-own-hands-2017-1?r=US&IR=T>

³⁷ (Business Insider, 2017) <http://uk.businessinsider.com/merkel-hits-back-at-trump-europes-fate-is-in-our-own-hands-2017-1?r=US&IR=T>

post-World War II, when NATO was established. Arguably the euro area may to some extent have replaced NATO as a security alliance backed up by Germany and France as military powers. Since the Baltics and Finland are euro area countries, those main euro powers would have to respond to any attack on them. The EU powers may also increasingly need to take over NATO as US commitment weakens, because US relative economic power has diminished, its presence in Europe has been reduced and also because the USA is busy in other regions, most notably in the Middle East and in the Pacific.

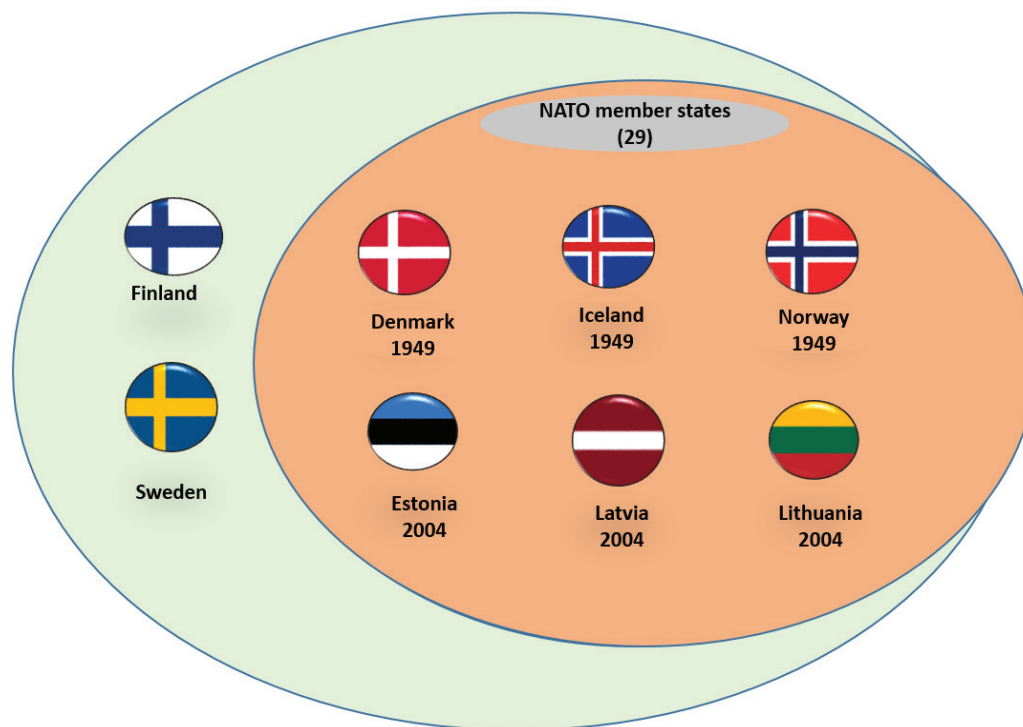


Figure 3. Nordic and Baltic membership in NATO

Source: Constructed by the author

Denmark, Iceland and Norway were founding members of NATO post-World War II. The Baltic States took part in a twin enlargement of EU and NATO, becoming members of both institutions in 2004. Russia has warned it would respond to any move by Finland or Sweden to join NATO, see for example Guardian (2016) ³⁸

Conclusions

Can the Nordic-Baltic countries as a group exercise collective authority in Europe?

If all eight Nordic countries and Baltic States (NB8) had a united position on European integration issues, they might be able to influence the other 22 EU member states to a greater degree than they can today. The same level of integration within the EU could make the Nordic countries and the Baltic States *system-affecting*, that is, states that cannot affect the international system if acting alone but that can exert significant impact on the system if working through small groups or alliances or through universal or regional international

³⁸ “Russia has warned it would respond to any move by Finland or Sweden to join NATO. In a meeting with his Finnish counterpart in early July, Vladimir Putin claimed (wrongly) that Russian troops had been withdrawn 1500km from the Finnish border, but suggested that decision would be reviewed if Finland moved towards NATO membership” (Guardian, 2016). <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2016/aug/22/finland-us-russia-military-security>

organizations. Considering security, the NB8 countries are also divided vis-à-vis NATO with six countries as member states while two countries, Finland and Sweden, remain out of NATO.

In retrospect, the most effective and successful exercise of the EU in recent decades has been the transformation of most Central and Eastern European states, including the Baltics, from authoritarian polities and command economies into democracies embracing market forces and the rule of law. However, the Nordics are welfare states and with economic and social policies that differ sharply from the neoliberal Baltics with minimal governments, low-tax regimes and weak social safety nets. How much benefit they could gain from cooperation is questionable, especially when the countries have different economic and social policies and continue to be at very different levels of economic development, with the Baltics still poorer than the Nordics now almost 30 years after regaining their independence.

Furthermore, the EU and the euro area have not shown impressive economic performance since the 2008/9 crisis. Economic growth remains relatively low and unemployment remains high, especially among young people, resulting in large outward migration, especially from poorer EU member states such as the Baltics to richer EU15 member states.

Iceland and Norway have chosen to stay out of the EU with access to the common market via the EEA agreement. Denmark and Sweden, both EU member states, have chosen to keep their own currency, the former with an exchange rate pegged to the euro, and the latter with a floating exchange rate and an inflation target. They have kept the option to manage their own exchange rate should the need arise. In contrast, Finland and the Baltic State both EU and euro area member states are locked in a fixed exchange policy as long as they keep the common currency.

From an economic perspective, euro area membership means giving up monetary autonomy for member countries, and comes at the cost of increased macroeconomic instability should asymmetric shocks become significant. The only Nordic country adopting the euro is Finland.

Small states are also vulnerable when dealing with the EU and larger EU member states during times of crisis, as the case of Iceland and Latvia (Hilmarrsson, 2014) clearly demonstrates. The Baltics were also vulnerable when dealing the Nordics (most notably Sweden) when the latter sought to protect its banking interests in the Baltics during the 2008/9 crisis insisting of fixed exchange rate policy in the Baltics.

Within the Nordic-Baltic group there are thus internal divisions between are hardcore EU/euro area member states (Baltics and Finland), EU members (Denmark and Sweden) and EU outsiders (Iceland and Norway). Common pathways for future cooperation in Europe are not obvious.

External forces also continue to challenge the Nordic Baltic region, including revanchist Russian policies threatening Baltic Sovereignty, unpredictable US policies towards NATO and reduced military presence in Europe, as well as EU and Euro Area dismal economic performance post crisis. All point to a future of uncertainty including both economic and security risks for the Nordic Baltic region.

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ŠIAURĖS IR BALTIJOS ŠALIŲ BENDRADARBIAVIMAS: GALIMYBĖS, BENDRADARBIAVIMAS, IŠORINĖS GRĖSMĖS

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Santrauka

Baltijos šalių Šiaurės regionas (5 + 3) glaudžiai susijęs prekybos, investicijų, žmonių judumo ir bankininkystės sritymis. Šiaurės šalys (5): Danija, Suomija, Islandija, Norvegija ir Švedija. Baltijos šalys (3): Estija, Latvija ir Lietuva. Visos aštuonios šalys kartu vadinamos NB8. Visos šios grupės šalys siekė tam tikra forma integruotis į Europos Sąjungą (ES).

Šešios iš jų yra ES valstybės narės, keturios – euro zonos narės, visos yra Europos ekonominėje erdvėje (EEE) ir yra Šengeno valstybės narės. Bet ar šios mažos šalys, kaip grupė, gali glaudžiau bendradarbiauti

ir galbūt vykdyti daugiau kolektyvinių įgaliojimų Europoje? Šiaurės ir Baltijos šalys bendradarbiauja Bretono Vudso monetarinėje sistemoje, Pasaulio Banko ir Tarptautinio Valiutos Fondo veikloje, šešios jų yra Europos NATO valstybių narės. Kalbant apie Europos integraciją, bendro požiūrio nebuvimas apsunkina jų bendradarbiavimą. Šioje grupėje išlikęs vidinis pasiskirstymas tarp senųjų ES šalių ir euro zonos valstybių narių (Baltijos ir Suomijos), ES narių (Danija ir Švedija) ir ES nepriklausančių šalių (Islandija ir Norvegija). Gali būti sudėtinga surasti bendrą būsimo bendradarbiavimo Europoje būdą. Jei visos aštuonios Šiaurės ir Baltijos šalys (NB8) Europos integracijos klausimais laikytųsi bendros pozicijos, jos galėtų paveikti kitas 22 ES valstybes nares. Be to, tai gali padaryti įtaką Šiaurės šalims ir Baltijos valstybėms, kurios, veikdamos atskirai, negali daryti įtakos tarptautinei sistemai apskritai, bet gali daryti didelę įtaką sistemai, dirbdamos per mažas grupes ar aljansus, visuotines, regionines, tarptautines organizacijas. NB8 šalys yra susiskaldžiusios ir kalbant apie saugumą: šešios valstybės yra NATO narės, dvi – Suomija ir Švedija – nėra NATO.

Žvelgiant iš ekonominės perspektyvos, narystė eurozonoje reiškia, kad valstybės narės turi atsisakyti pinigų autonomijos. Vienintelė Šiaurės šalis, įvedusi eurą, yra Suomija. Beje, Šiaurės šalys yra stiprios ekonomikos šalys su dideliais mokesčiais (gerovės valstybės), tuo tarpu Baltijos šalys yra neoliberalios, jų mokesčių režimas – mažas. Be to, išorinės jėgos ir toliau meta iššūkį Šiaurės Baltijos regionui, įskaitant revanšistinę Rusijos politiką, kuri kelia grėsmę Baltijos šalių suverenitetui, nenuspėjamą JAV politiką NATO atžvilgiu, mažesnę karinę grėsmę Europoje ir niūrias ES bei euro zonos ekonomines pasekmes po krizės. Kalbama apie ateities netikrumą, kuris apima ir ekonominę, ir saugumo riziką.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *Europos integracija, mažos valstybės, regioninis bendradarbiavimas, Šiaurės šalys, Baltijos šalys.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: F15, F50, P20.

Received: 2019-09-15

Revised: 2019-09-30

Accepted: 2019-10-01

ANCIENT ROMAN FORTRESS SOSTRA AS A CULTURAL AND HISTORICAL TOURIST RESOURCE

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ABSTRACT

The paper is part of a research series for ancient Roman sites in Northern Bulgaria which aim to present the possibilities of creating a specialized form of cultural and historical product that ensures sustainable utilization of the Bulgarian tangible heritage. A study of the Roman fortress Sostra, located on the Via Traiani road as a cultural and historical tourist resource was conducted. The castellum is characterized as an object of cultural heritage in the region of Troyan Municipality in Bulgaria. The methodology applied in assessing the potential of the Ancient Roman fortress Sostra is primarily designed for historical and cultural sites. An evaluation was made under the following criteria: potential for development, degree of impact / interaction, degree of modification with relevant indicators. Also an expedition-field method for terrain research was applied. Summaries and conclusions were made in order to highlight the possibility of forming a tourist product of cultural and cognitive tourism.

KEYWORDS: *tourist resource, cultural tourism, tourism policy, regional development.*

JEL CODES: L83, R 58.

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.1997>

Introduction

Bulgaria is a country with a unique cultural and historical heritage. Historically, the country existed among the most ancient civilizations and cultures such as the Thracian, Roman and Old Bulgarian. Almost 40,000 registered sites dated back to different historical eras are a proof for the richness of Bulgarian cultural heritage. Seven sites have the status of immovable cultural values of global significance and more than 10 000 have national heritage importance. Bulgaria ranks third in Europe after Greece and Italy for the number of its valuable archaeological and cultural monuments (National Strategy for the Sustainable Development of Tourism in Bulgaria 2014–2030). This makes cultural tourism a promising sector for developing and allows Bulgaria to become a regional leader in Central and South-eastern Europe. European and global trends in tourism development also support this assertion.

A survey, requested by the European Travel Commission (Ministry of tourism), which has studied preferences and reasons for travel of tourists, visiting Europe, shows that relatively high proportions of tourists who go on a holiday in European destination are the most likely to say that cultural and sports tourism are a concomitant goal to travel (39%). In turn 45% of Russian tourists visiting Europe combine the holiday with cultural activities. Tourists from Canada (60%), Japan and Korea (34%) have the same motivation to travel.

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In 2018 Bulgaria was visited by a total of 9 273 345 foreign citizens (Ministry of tourism, statistics). The share of European tourists is 61.4%, Russian – 5.6%, Ukrainian – 4% and Canadian – 2%. In this regard, more than 70% of the tourist flow to Bulgaria for 2018 has a potential for diversification through cultural tourism product. However, the holiday tourism retains its leading position for the same period – 62.6% of all tourist visits. Analysis of the Bulgarian tourism market shows that the share of cultural tourism is slightly above 10%. It must be emphasized that the potential of Bulgaria to develop cultural tourism and the demand for such a product from outbound tourism market do not match the actual supply.

The contrast to Bulgaria's positioning worldwide is even more pronounced. By the Natural and Cultural Resources subindex which is a part of the Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index (TTCI) 2015 framework, Bulgaria is rated 1.96. By this subindex ranking the country attains the 54th position out of 141 countries included in the survey as in the Balkans only Montenegro is after Bulgaria (Levkov, 2017). The TTCI benchmarks the T&T competitiveness of 141 economies. It comprises four subindexes, 14 pillars and 90 individual indicators, distributed among the different pillars. The Survey data is derived from responses to the World Economic Forum's Executive Opinion Survey and range in value from 1 to 7. Each of the pillars has been calculated as an unweighted average of the individual component variables (Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index, 2015).

Reasons for poor performance of Bulgaria at cultural tourism market are complex and they are listed in founding documents for tourism development such as "Strategy for Sustainable Development of Tourism in Bulgaria 2014–2030" (Ministry of tourism, Bulgaria). Therefore, the topic will not be discussed in detail. For the purposes of this study will be pointed out that one of the main reasons for this is the insufficient readiness of objects of tangible cultural heritage from potential tourist resource to become a basis for setting up competitive tourism product.

1. Material and methods

The study is part of a survey of ancient sites on the territory of Pleven and the region. As a territory bordering Romania, sites located in the region can become the basis for development both for an internal and international tourism. This will contribute to the balanced economic development of the region and the alternative employment of labor resources. In this connection, ancient sites are considered as a resource with a potential for tourism development.

The study aims to present the possibility of creating a regional tourist product based on the ancient Roman castellum Sostra. In the specialized literature the tourist product is defined as a concept that contains a substantial material substance and at the same time it is also a set of services. The tourist product also includes resources and attractions, conditions and infrastructure, activities, imaginative presentations and values. Together they have to meet the needs of a particular group of users. It is clear that services are the basis of the tourist product while it has also a material basis, such as tourist resources (Banabakova, et. al., 2017). They are one of the factors motivating potential tourists to choose a destination. In this case it is the cultural heritage in the district of Lovech, namely the ancient Roman castellum Sostra.

The following tasks will help to achieve the above goal:

1. A characteristic of the site is presented.
2. An evaluation of the potential of cultural and historical tourism resources of the ancient Roman castellum Sostra according to specific criteria is made.

In assessing the potential of ancient Roman castellum Sostra, a methodology has been applied that reviews the site as an anthropogenic tourist resource. According to the Methods for evaluation of cultural and historical tourist resources and their potential, the following three criteria for evaluating are used:

1. Capacity (potential, ability) Development (CD) – consistent with the factors and conditions for development of the resource.
2. Degree of impact / influence – the level of attractiveness is estimated.

3. Degree of modification (resulting from the tourism) – evaluation of utility / value / significance of the tourist attraction.

For the assessment are used:

- method of point rating – a certain number of points is awarded by the selected characteristics of cultural and historical resources, specific indicators to measure them and aggregate subjective opinions;
- the sum of the awarded points from the total rating of the given object;
- selected characteristics and corresponding indicators have different weight in the assessment, which is defined in points (1 to 100);
- the maximum number of points for a certain object is 100 and it is formed as a sum of the points for each of the selected and evaluated characteristics and indicators;
- a scoring matrix is developed which takes into account the main characteristics of cultural and historical tourist resource Roman castellum Sostra, used in the measurement and evaluation along with their inherent indicators – significance and weight (Table 1).

The following research methods are used in the study:

- expedition field method – field work, the method of observation and interview method;
- mapping method;
- expert evaluation method as a part of heuristic evaluation.

The authors have complied with the idiographic approach that highlights the unique features and competitive characteristics of the site.

2. General characteristics of Roman roadside station and castellum Sostra

In the first third of the first century AD, the territory where the Roman road station and castellum Sostra are situated was part of the Roman Empire as the province of Moesia. This is a consequence of long military campaigns completed during the time of Emperor Tiberius, reigning from 14 AD to 37 AD. Romans built many roads that serve the army, administration and trade within the Empire and beyond (Figure 1). Trajan time is part of the road system of the Roman Empire. Its construction began during the reign of Tiberius (14–37) but was finished and actively used during the Emperor Trajan (98-117) when he transformed Dacia (Dacia Trajana) into Roman province. After Philipopolis Via Traiani was incorporated into another great Roman road – starting from Singidunum (today the Serbian capital Belgrade) continuing to Serdica (mod. Sofia), Philippopolis (mod. Plovdiv) and Adrianopolis (mod. Edirne in Turkish Thrace). At certain distances along the main roads the Romans built roadside stations and ancient castrum (fortified military camp) that served as a protected place for accommodation, storage facilities for food, weapons, horses changing point, and administrative records. According to a Roman road map (illustrated itinerarium), known as *Tabula Peutingeriana*, the way stations via Trajan's road on Bulgarian territory were nine: *Oescus 14* Roman miles (village of Gigen, Pleven district), *Ad Putea 7* (village of Riben, Pleven dist.), *Storgisia 11* (Pleven), *Doriones 10* (village of Slatina, Lovech district), *Melta 13* (Lovech), *Sostra 10* (village of Lomets, Troyan district), *Ad Radice* (village of Beli Osum), *Monte Naemno* (Beklemeto), *Sub Radice* (village of Hristo Danovo, Plovdiv district).

The Roman roadside station and castellum Sostra is situated on a territory which in the Pre-Roman period (1 BC) is associated with the lands inhabited by the Thracian tribe of Krobyzoi. Sostra is the sixth station, serving Via Trayana. “Sostra” from ancient Greek means belt, bandaging, barrier). The castellum is located in the Osam river valley. It is part of the Troyan Fore-Balkan. It consists of low hills with an east-west stretch, cut from the rivers, in this case from the valley of the Osam River through the village of Lomets.

On the cartosheme, it is well seen (Figure 1) that Sostra is situated directly on the Roman road and it is the last one before it enters the central mountain massif.

Today, apart from the section studied at Sostra, sections of it are preserved in the Central Stara Planina (Figure 2).

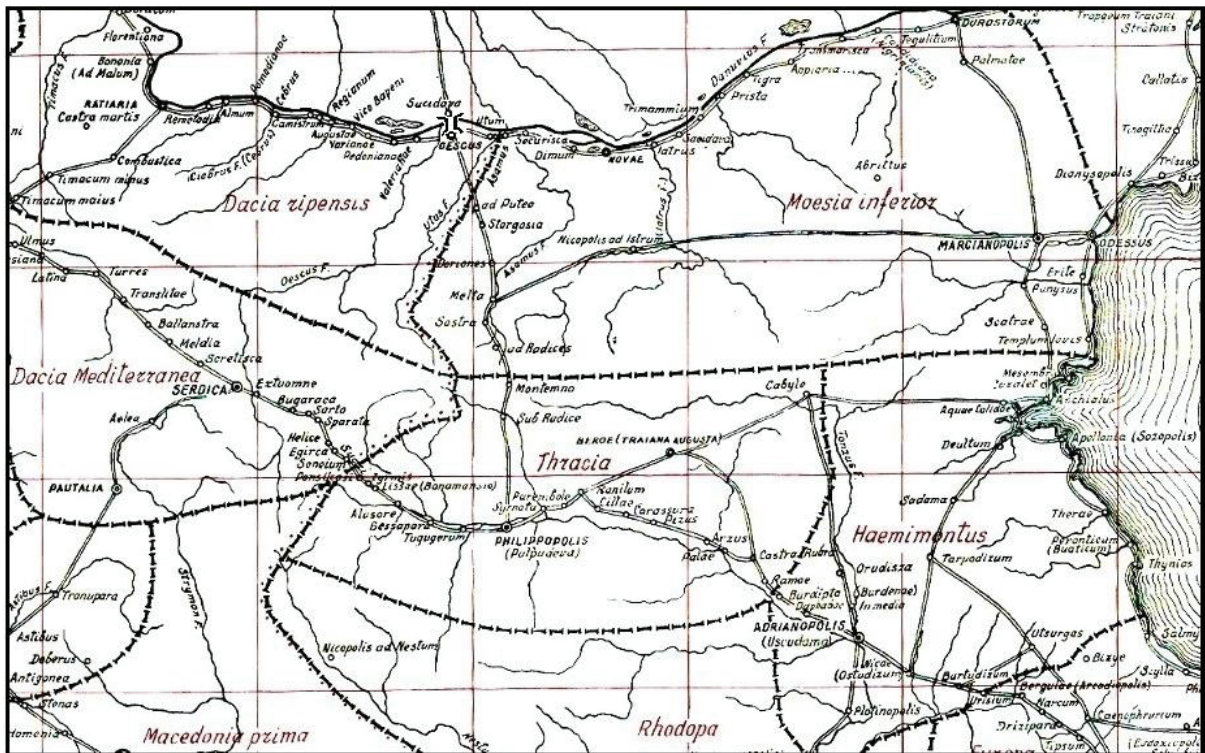


Figure 1. Schematic map of Roman roads in Bulgaria in IV–VI centuries

Source: V. Tapkova-Zaimova, V. Velkov

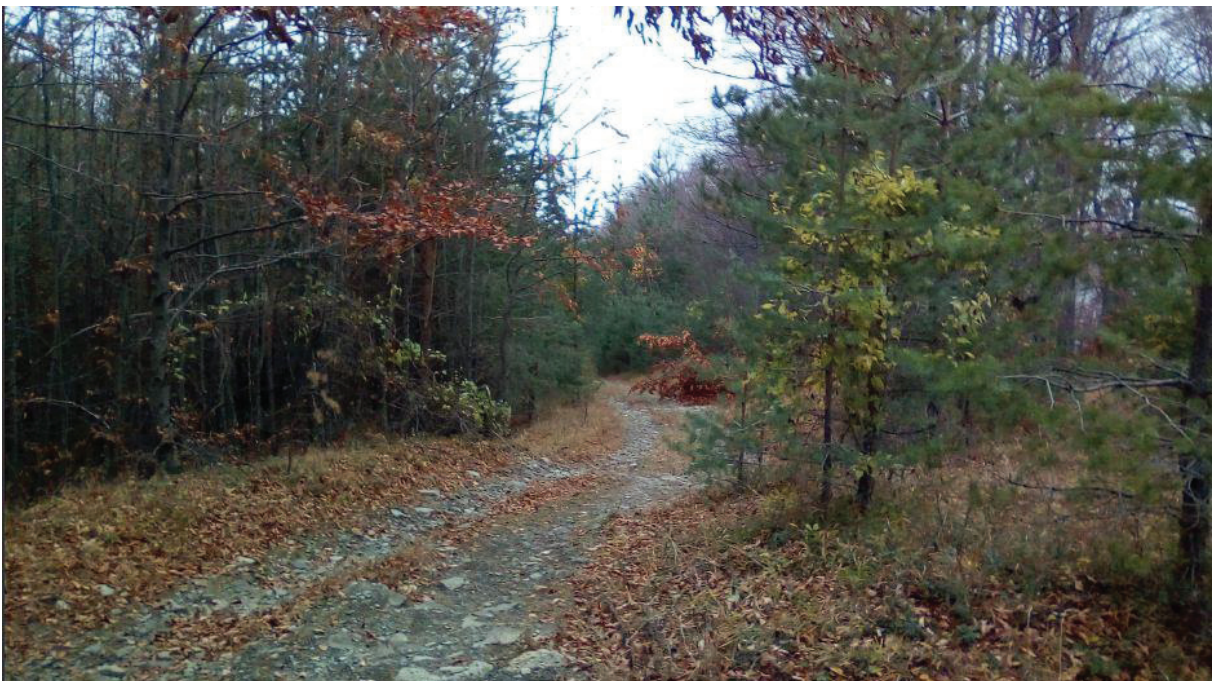


Figure 2. A section of Via Traiani in the Balkan Mountains

Source: authors' archive

The castellum Sostra is located 150 km east of Sofia 150 km, near the village of Lomets and about 16 km north of the town of Troy and 28 km south of Lovech. The location of the fortress is strategic, because the access to the south to Troyan was controlled, and the roadway was in the immediate vicinity of it. The eastern (main) gate of the fortress was turned in the direction of the “Kalugerskoto” locality, from where it was the only passage to the upper course of the Osam River.

Sostra was twice destroyed by the Goths in the middle of the 3rd and the second half of the 4th century, but it was recovered after these invasions. Initial archaeological studies showed that Sostra included settlements, necropolises, a roadside station and a strong fortress (castellum). The entire valley where the fortress is situated covers an approximate area of 4 km². Sostra was founded in the middle of the 2nd century and it existed for more than 300 years. Four construction periods have been established. Sostra fort was built around 145 AD at the order of Roman Emperor Antoninus Pius during his fourth consulate (Hristov, 2011). Around 147 AD the cohorts II Mattiacorum was stationed in Sostra and the construction of the the castellum began. It was so called cohorts milliaria, i.e. around 1000 soldiers (milliaria). There are evidences of the presence at a later stage of Cohors I Cisipadensium in Sostra, First Spanish Gordian cohort (cohors I Hispanorum Gordiana), and part of the I Aurelian Cohort.

In the late period of its existence (IV–V centuries) barbaric mercenaries played the role of militia. With the invasions of Goths and Huns, the castle of Sostra lost its military significance and it became a civilian settlement. Sostra was completely destroyed by the Huns at the end of the 5th century. In the 19th century a small road inn called “Lomeshki Hancheta” was built.

Sostra is a base camp. According to Hristov (2011) the Latin term “castellum” can be used for a fortified military camp. The term is a diminutive form of “castra”. This term designated the bearings of auxiliary parts, as is the case with Sostra. It was found that the plan of this castellum is similar to a rhombus whose larger diagonal is oriented to the northwest – southeast (figure 3). The fortified territory covers an area of approximately 1.5 ha (125 m west-east x 121.5 m, north-south). Exact measurements allow the calculation of the standard sized cohorts quingenaria units. In its present form, Sostra presented a plan of a fortified fortress, the achievement of which occurred at the end of the 3rd century and the beginning of the 4th century. The fortress was built in strict compliance with the natural features of the plain around the Azamus River (today Osam River). At the center of the castellum was the principia or the military headquarters (figures 4 and 5). In front of the principia passed the main stree Via Principalis. Against it at right angles to Via Principalis passed the second main street Via Pretoria. Part of the fortification of Sostra castellum was implemented by towers at the gates and corners of the fortification. There are two types of towers – rectangular, flanking the gates in the middle of the curtain wall and rounded – at the corners (Figures 6 and 7). All towers in the castellum were covered with tegulae and imbrices.

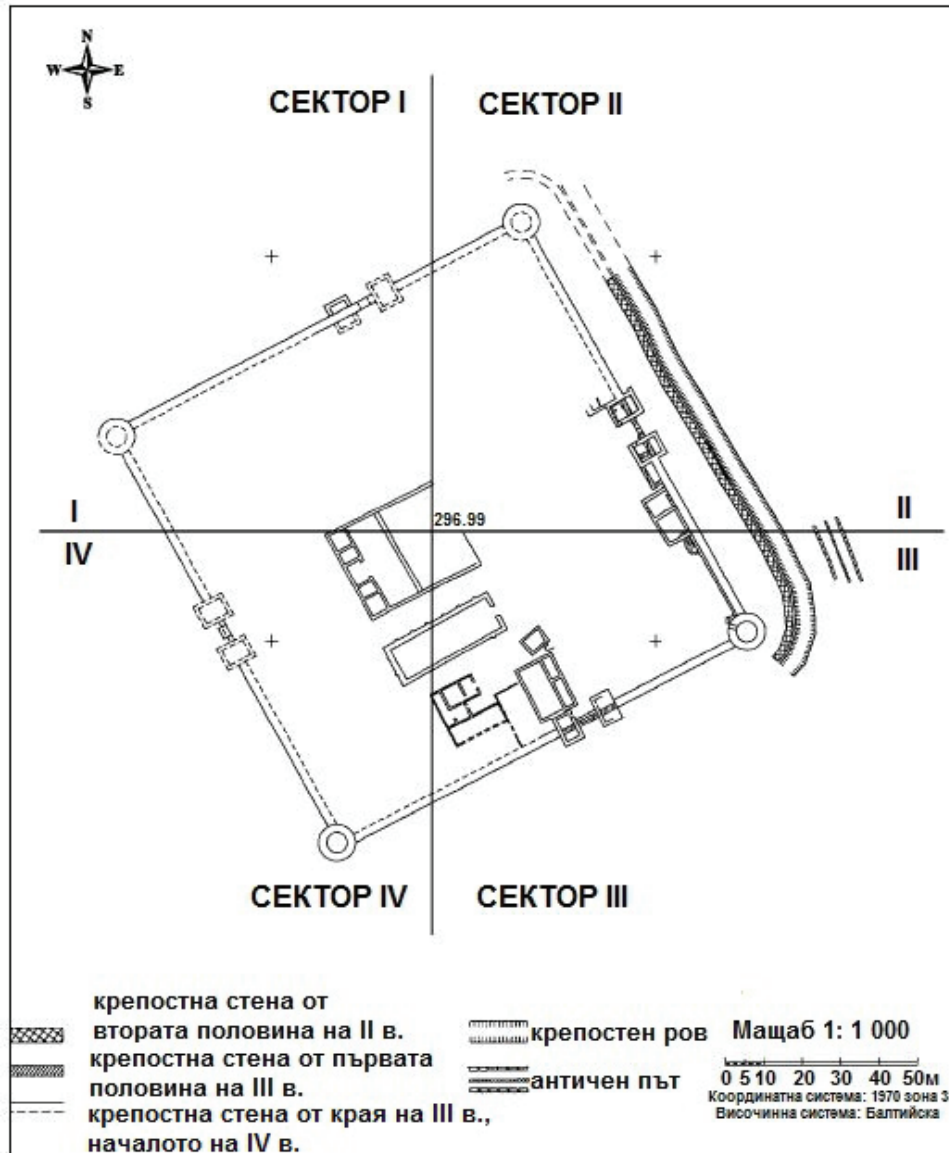


Figure 3. Plan of castellum Sostra

Source: Hristov, 2011



Figure 4. Via Principalis



Figure 5. Military headquarters

Source: authors' archive



Figures 6 and 7. Southeastern round tower and part of the Roman road

Source: authors' archive

The rectangular towers of Sostra are located in the middle of the fortress walls near the gates in order to secure and protect them. Their external dimensions, with a few exceptions, are the same 8 / 6.50 m. They are 1/3 out of the line of the fortress wall (Hristov, 2011), (Figures 8, 9 and 10).



Figures 8 and 9. Eastern fortress wall with main gate and rectangular towers

Source: authors' archive

The Roman road passes immediately before the eastern fortress. A great length of the road is revealed, divided into two lanes with an axial line, a banquet and a width of 7 m (Figure 11).

The organizational archaeological research of the Roman complex has been done by Dr. Georgi Kitov, Totyu Totevski, Assoc. Prof. Sergei Torbatov (National Archaeological Museum of Bulgarian Academy of Science) and prof. dr. Ivan Hristov (National Historical Museum). The first organized archaeological researches in the region of Sostra were held in 1979 under the guidance of Professor Georgi Kitov. Since 2002 there are regular exploratory and restoration activities under the guidance of prof. dr. Ivan Hristov from the National Museum of History and with the cooperation of the Municipality of Troyan and the Museum of Crafts. Major sections of the military camp, buildings from the civilian settlement, early Christian basilica, ceramic furnace, sanctuary of Thracian god rider, roadside station etc. were studied. During the excavations, silver coins, clay pots and jewels were found. Part of the findings are exhibited at the Museum of Crafts in the town of Troyan.



Figure 10. Reconstruction of the east gate of the castellum Sostra Source: authors' archive



Figure 11. Part of Via Traiani right in front of the Sostra castellum

Source: authors' archive

4. Evaluation of potential of the Ancient Roman fortress Sostra as cultural and historical tourist resource

Complex evaluation of cultural and historical tourist resources of Ancient Roman fortress Sostra is 57 points from maximum 100 possible points (Table 1).

Table 1. Main characteristics and indicators for assessment of the historical and cultural tourism resources of the Ancient Roman fortress Sostra

No.	Defining characteristics (associated with the main criteria)	Indicators and metrics	Weighting (number of points)			
			Max	Max	For the object	Max for the object
1	Attractiveness (Criterion 2)	1. Prominence / popularity 2. Combined with beautiful and diverse landscape 3. Authenticity / preservation 4. Uniqueness 5. Beauty / exotic 6. Cognitive / scientific value	1.5 2.3 3.4 4.5 5.4 6.4	25	1–2 2–3 3–4 4–3 5–3 6–3	18
2	Importance (Criterion 2)	1. Worldwide (incl. The UNESCO) 2. National (incl. 100 National Tourist Sites of Bulgaria) 3. Local 4. Ensemble 5. Monuments for reference	1.8 2.5 3.2 4.2 5.1	18	1–0 2–0 3–2 4–1 5–1	4
3	Accessibility (Criterion 1)	1. All vehicles / buses (incl. oversized) 2. Only by car 3. Only off-road vehicles 4. Accessible by foot	1.5 2.3 3.2 4.1	11	1–5 2–3 3–2 4–1	11
4	Capacities / carrying capacity (Criterion 2)	1. Carrying capacity (number of visitors weekly, daily, per 1 hour) 2. Facility carrying capacity 3. Ecosystems load level 4. Possible maximum number of visitors /per 1 m ² / 5. Ratio number of visitors – the number of beds	1.3 2.3 3.3 4.2 5.2	13	1–3 2–3 3–2 4–1 5 – no data available	9
5	Utilization for the needs of tourism (Criterion 3)	1. Safety in use 2. Degree of exploration 3. Guaranteed period of operation 4. Capital intensity	1.4 2.2 3.4 4.3	13	1–2 2–1 3–3 4–2	8
6	Readiness to accept and service tourists (Criterion 3)	1. Availability of tourist infrastructure and superstructure 2. Level of staffing provision 3. Presence / absence of guide services 4. Degree of suitability for formation of tourist products	1.7 2.5 3.3 4.5	20	1–4 2–0 3–0 4–3	7
TOTAL NUMBER OF POINTS FROM THE MAXIMUM (100)						57

5. Results and Discussion

By the “attractiveness” criterion 2, the site has been rated 18 by a maximum of 25 points. This is mainly due to the authenticity of the site, the beautiful landscape and its cognitive and scientific value. Under these criteria insufficient popularity is one of the weaknesses of the site. The “accessibility” criterion has the maximum rating points. The site has a built-in transport infrastructure. It is available for all types of vehicles as well as on foot.

Directly next to the main road there is a parking lot and signs are placed. A macadam leads to the fortress. A serious disadvantage is the safety of the site. Through it passes unsafe for pedestrians' railway line (Figure 12).



Figure 12. Railway line Lovech – Troyan passes via castellum Sostra

Source: authors' archive

The indicator “Utilization for the needs of tourism” (criterion 3) is estimated at 69% of the maximum possible. This is due to the degree of exploration of the fortress, the restoration and conservation of the sites, as well as the exploitation potential that exists during the year. Lack of visitor data is an obstacle to fully assessing the subject under this indicator. This criterion has the potential for a higher grade.

For the good assessment of these two indicators is also contributed by the realized project of National Historical Museum and Municipality of Troyan related to exploration, restoration and conservation of Sostra.

Criteria “Importance” (criterion 2) has the lowest rating. In general, the site has local significance and it is not part of an ensemble. It is also not popular and interesting for tourists outside the region. Potential tourists can be attracted by incorporating the site as a cultural and historical tourist resource into a comprehensive regional tourist product.

According to the “Readiness to accept and service tourists” criterion the Roman roadside station and castellum Sostra received only 35% of the maximum points. The site has partly developed tourist infrastructure, but the lack of superstructure and trained staff reduces the its tourist value. At present, the site does not offer tour guide services. The visit mode is free. There is a lack of a permanent staff which reduces the satisfaction and aesthetic perception of the site by tourists and the opportunities for ongoing maintenance.

Conclusions

The Roman fortress of Sostra has the potential to form a tourist product of cultural and cognitive tourism. It is an archaeological site partly prepared for visiting by tourists. A competitive advantage is the location of the site next to the main road Lovech – Troyan – Troyan Pass. At the same time, the lack of developed thematic cultural and tourist product remains the object isolated and unknown to potential tourists.

There is, however, good practice in local government to turn Sostra into an attractive tourist destination. First of all, the municipality has acquired the castle as a property. Together with the state and public-private partnership, the municipality has invested funds in exploration, conservation and restoration of the site. In the planning documents of the Troyan municipality for the period 2014–2020, the sustainable development of tourism is considered

as one of the five priorities for development of the region (Municipal Development Plan of Troyan for the period 2014–2020). The authors of this paper believe that good cooperation has been achieved between the Municipality and the National history museum, as a result of which in the beginning of 2019 the investment project: “Archaeological complex Sostra – restoration, exhibition and socialization of Roman castle and Roman roadside station – 1st stage” was presented. The investment project was prepared with funds from the municipal budget. It envisages preservation, exposure and socialization of Sostra. Main activities are: recovering Sostra’s vision through conservation methods and technologies, as well as readable exposure solutions; providing access for people with mobility disabilities, alleyways and artistic lighting; creating an attractive part, safe passage of visitors through the railway line; Last but not least, build a visitor center as well as a dining and accommodation facility (Municipality of Troyan. News section). During the implementation of the project, the weaknesses in the above assessment will be removed and Sostra to a large extent will be completed as a tourist site. The question remains about the implementation of the project commitments, as well as how Sostra and other ancient sites in the region to be combined in a common thematic, regional tourist product. They are territorially located on three districts and two tourist regions. On the other hand, they are at a different stage of development as objects of cultural tourism. This makes it very difficult to coordinate efforts to achieve progress in this direction. One of the reasons for this is the weaknesses of the current tourist zoning of the country (Levkov, Lakov, 2018). More than 5 years the destination management system is not working properly which could be one of the possible solutions to the discussed problem.

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SENOSIOS ROMOS ĮTVIRTINIMAI – KULTŪRINIS IR ISTORINIS TURIZMO ŠALTINIS

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Santrauka

Šis straipsnis – tai mokslinių tyrimų serijos apie senosios Romos vietas Šiaurės Bulgarijoje dalis. Straipsnio tikslas – sudaryti specializuoto kultūrinio-istorinio paveldo lankomumo galimybes, tai užtikrintų tvarų Bulgarijos materialiojo paveldo panaudojimą. Atliktas Romos įtvirtinimų Sostra kaimelyje Via Traiani kelyje kultūrinio ir istorinio turizmo šaltinio tyrimas. Įtvirtinimai apibūdinami kaip kultūros paveldo objektas Trojano (bulg. *Троян*, angl. *Troyan*) savivaldybės regione, Bulgarijoje. Siekiant įvertinti senosios Romos tvirtovės Sostra kaimelyje galimybes taikoma istorinių ir kultūros vietų apibūdinimo metodika. Vertinimas atliktas pagal šiuos kriterijus: plėtros galimybės, poveikio / sąveikos laipsnis, modifikavimo laipsnis, taikant tvarumo rodiklius.

Taikytas ir lauko ekspedicijos metodas reljefo tyrimams. Nustatyta, kad iš šioje teritorijoje esančios savivaldybės galima pasimokyti gerosios praktikos, kaip Sostrą kaimelį paversti patrauklia turistų lankoma vieta. Visų pirma savivaldybė šį objektą įsigijo kaip nuosavybę. Bendradarbiaudama su valstybe ir viešuoju bei privačiuoju sektoriais savivaldybė investavo lėšas į teritorijos tyrinėjimą, jos išsaugojimą ir atkūrimą. Trojano savivaldybės 2014–2020 m. planavimo dokumentuose darni turizmo plėtra laikoma vienu iš penkių regiono plėtros prioritetų. Išvados pabrėžia galimybę suformuoti patrauklų kultūrinio ir pažintinio turizmo produktą. Tyrimu nustatyta, kad šio objekto galimybės pritraukti turistus – didžiulės.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *turistinis išteklius, kultūros turizmas, turizmo politika, regioninė plėtra.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: L83, R 58.

Received: 2019-09-10

Revised: 2019-09-28

Accepted: 2019-10-01

PROMOTING EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION AS A METHOD TO ACHIEVE EMPLOYABILITY OF GRADUATES

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ABSTRACT

Emotional intelligence can play an important role in an individual's education and career success. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the opinion of employers on the importance of competencies related to emotional intelligence in the recruitment process in Latvia, as well as the extent to which these competencies can be developed in vocational education and training. Total of 750 companies participated in this research, rating the importance of competencies and the performance of vocational education institutions using a four-point Likert scale. The list of methods currently applied in vocational education developing emotional intelligence competencies was developed through in-depth interviews with the managers of vocational education institutions. The research results show that most of employers evaluate ability to work independently, work motivation and problem-solving skills as very important in the recruitment process. Vocational education institutions need to pay more attention to improving ability to take responsibility in students. The main methods used by vocational education institutions to develop competencies linked to emotional intelligence are extra-curriculum activities, international events and mobility, as well as work-placements, which are supplements to education programmes rather than core curriculum, indicating to low link between emotional intelligence competencies and expected learning outcomes of vocational education. The research provides the basis for reconsidering the vocational education curriculum in the light of its contribution to development of competencies that are highly valued in the labour market.

KEYWORDS: *emotional intelligence, employability, vocational education.*

JEL CODES: M51

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.2006>

Introduction

The education system should consider the need to prepare graduates not just for immediate employment after graduation in their occupations but for sustainable employability in competitive and changing labour market. Līce and Sloka (Līce, Sloka, 2019: 8) found that vocational education in Latvia does not develop competencies and attitudes which are linked to person's self-management and emotional intelligence despite the fact that emotional intelligence has positive effect on personal performance. In competitive and changing labour market conditions, graduates are required to cooperate with other people, solve complex problems and constantly adapt to changing situations. Emotional intelligence can help individuals to operate in a socially complex world with multi-level, interdisciplinary challenges and to be self-aware of one's role, impact and needs.

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Problem. Although the goal of vocational education is to prepare graduates for the labor market, it does not develop competencies and attitudes which are linked to person's self-management and emotional intelligence (Līce, Sloka, 2019: 9) that are important for employability.

Purpose. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the opinion of employers on the importance of competencies related to emotional intelligence in the recruitment process in Latvia, as well as the performance of vocational education institutions in developing these competencies in students.

Object. Competencies related to emotional intelligence.

Tasks:

1) to examine employers' evaluations by conducted survey of employers, evaluating their opinion on the importance of competencies related to emotional intelligence in the recruitment process in Latvia, as well as the performance of vocational education institutions in developing these competencies in students;

2) to collect information on the methods applied in vocational education institutions aimed at developing competencies related to emotional intelligence by conducted interviews with VET managers;

3) to analyze research results and draw conclusions about the importance of competencies related to emotional intelligence in the labour market in Latvia, as well as the performance of vocational education in developing them, including the methods applied.

Methods. The methods of research included the analysis of scientific publications, a survey of employers ($n = 750$) and the in-depth, semi-structured interviews with the managers (directors or deputy directors) of vocational education institutions in Latvia ($n = 12$).

1. Theoretical findings

Considering the changing labour market, ensuring employability of graduates in the long term has become an important topic for education policy makers, managers and researchers. There is a broad consensus that learning to learn is critically important competence for everyone (Council of the European Union, 2018) to be able to adapt to new skills requirements in the circumstances of technological development, fragmented careers and increased uncertainty. Some of employability researchers have also listed emotional intelligence as one of the important aspects in achieving employability, for example, Yorke and Knight (2002) and Pool and Sewell (2007), however, whereas emotional intelligence is closely linked to a set of emotional and self-management competencies that are essential to employability, it deserves a much higher profile. The competencies linked to emotional intelligence are especially important in complex jobs because a deficiency of these abilities can hinder the use of technical expertise or intellect a person may have.

According to Mayer and Salovey (1997: 29), emotional intelligence is a cognitive ability that is associated to general intelligence and consists of four different dimensions including perception of emotion, emotional facilitation, understanding emotions, and management of emotions (Mayer, Salovey, 1997: 29). This concept is closely linked to Gardner's interpersonal intelligence, which he defined as the ability to understand other people, motivate them, how they work, how to work practically with them (Gardner, 1983: 29). More broadly, he defined intelligence as an ability to solve a problem (Gardner, 1983: 25). Goleman (1998: 317) who has made a significant contribution to the promotion of emotional intelligence defined emotional intelligence as "the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, and for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships". He also argues that the term "emotional intelligence" most accurately describes various prime qualities and portable skills that keep people employable in the labour market without job security (Goleman, 1998: 4). According to Goleman (1998: 28), an emotional competence is a learned capability that results in outstanding performance at work. It determines one's potential for learning the practical skills that are based on its five elements: self-awareness, motivation, self-regulation, empathy, and adeptness in relationships (Goleman, 1998: 28). More recently, Pekaar, Bakker, van der Linden and Born (2018) developed and validated the scale to measure emotional intelligence, distinguishing between four factors: self- and other-focused emotion appraisal and emotion regulation.

Emotional intelligence and how it affects the individual and organizational development is becoming more and more researched aspect by academic researchers. Most of the research has focused on the positive effects of emotional intelligence and understanding the competencies and strategies that foster successful education and business functioning.

The positive effects of emotional intelligence on the labour market outcomes has been empirically proven. Rode, Arthaud-Day, Ramaswami and Howes (2017: 83) showed that emotional intelligence has a significant and positive effect on subsequent salary levels as it helps individuals acquire the social capital needed to be successful in their careers. Wen, Huang and Hou (2019: 127) tested the positive effect of emotional intelligence and emotional labour strategies on job satisfaction.

The implications of emotional intelligence on the organizational development and organisational challenges have also been extensively researched, including marketing effectiveness of corporate organizations (Nwokah, Ahiauzu, 2009: 879), customer satisfaction (Kernbach, Schutte, 2005: 441), solving intercultural communication problems (Dimitrijević, Starčević, Marjanović, 2019: 106), effectiveness of leader role (Afzalur, Psenicka, 2005: 339). Hess and Bacigalupo (2010: 227) have found that behaviors attributed to emotional intelligence may benefit leading the knowledge-based organization and help to balance the interests of the individual and organization. Clarke (2010: 29) has researched relationships between emotional intelligence and specific teamwork behaviors, but Gantt and Agazarian (2004: 149) has introduced an idea of emotional intelligence as a systems phenomenon that is relevant at all system levels, organizational, group, role and individual level, showing how individuals can contribute to the organisational emotional intelligence.

Researchers have also extensively studied the role of various competencies closely linked to emotional intelligence in ensuring individual employability, including good communication skills, ability to work in a team, leadership, motivation, aspiration (Coppes, Plimmer, 2014: 38; Pool, Qualter, Sewell, 2014: 285), ability to adapt (Fugate, Kinicki, Ashforth, 2004: 36) as well as self-competencies, efficacy and reflection (Bridgstock, 2009: 41; Coppes, Plimmer, 2014: 39; Law, Watts, 2003: 4; Pool, Sewell, 2007: 286; Yorke, Knight, 2004: 26).

Recently often asked question by academic researchers and educators world-wide is “Can emotional intelligence and the competencies linked to it be trained?” – on those aspects extensive meta-analytical investigation was performed (Mattingly, Kraiger, 2019: 153) showing a moderate positive effect and encouraging researchers and practitioners to further develop strategies and methodologies to facilitate development of emotional intelligence competencies.

2. Empirical research methodology

A sample for the employer survey was created by multistage cluster sampling method. The answers to the questionnaire were collected by the research centre SKDS Ltd. First, the companies which were in the database of “SKDS” were contacted, then the companies from the public databases of companies were selected according to the random sampling method. The data were collected in two phases: 1) from 27.03.2017 until 04.04.2017, when 499 internet questionnaires were collected, and 2) from 05.04.2017.–03.05.2017, when 251 telephone interviews were conducted by 19 interviewers. For telephone interviews, there were 587 cases of non-response: in 87.6% of these cases respondents didn’t want to participate in the interview, 7% – didn’t have time and 5.5% stopped answering during the interview. Considering the size of the general population, the margin of error (MOE) at 95% confidence level is +/-4.0%.

To assess the importance of certain skills, competencies and attitudes in the recruitment process, the Likert-type question was included in the questionnaire. The scale was bi-directional with 4 possible answers. An option “difficult to answer” was included as well. The list of items to be assessed was elaborated, based on the Emotional Competence Framework, developed by Daniel Goleman (Goleman, 1998: 326) and the list of employability attributes which resulted from operationalization of the CareerEDGE employability model (Pool, Qualter, Sewell, 2014: 311; Pool, Sewell, 2007: 286). The list of items was adapted to the needs of the target audience of employers and the limitations of the survey questionnaire. Additional questions on the profile of companies were included: sector, region, number of employees, and whether the company has had trainees in their company during the last 5 years.

For data analysis of the survey results descriptive statistics were used: indicators of central tendency or location (arithmetic mean, mode, median), indicators of variability (range, standard deviation, standard error of mean).

Semi-structured, in-depth, interviews with managers of vocational education institutions in Latvia were conducted by Anita Līce in February and March 2018. In total, 12 interviews were conducted with 15 directors or deputy directors from 12 public vocational education institutions (out of 34 public vocational education institutions in Latvia), each 40 to 90 minutes long. The vocational education institutions were selected to ensure appropriate representation of all Latvian regions, education fields, education levels and institutional subordination. The interviewees were invited to comment the methods vocational education institutions have used to facilitate development of 17 specific competencies linked to employability – as mentioned above suggested by scientific research results, among those 11 were linked to emotional intelligence (*ability to create new ideas, ability to work in a team, attitude to work, communication skills, presentation skills, target orientation, ability to adapt, ability to work independently, planning and self-organising skills, problem-solving skills, work motivation, ability to take responsibility*). The interviewees were able to choose which competencies to comment on. The data were analysed by the content analysis method. First, the categories of mentioned methods were identified, and then the data were coded and quantified accordingly.

3. Empirical findings

The frequencies of employer evaluations on importance of selected competencies linked to emotional intelligence (*ability to adapt, ability to work independently, planning and self-organising skills, target orientation, work motivation and problem-solving skills*) in the recruitment process in Latvia are included in the following table 1.

Table 1. Distribution of employers' evaluations on the importance of selected competencies in the recruitment process

Evaluations by employers	Ability to adapt		Ability to work independently		Planning and self-organising skills		Target orientation		Work motivation		Problem-solving skills	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
Very important	356	47.5	454	60.5	278	37.1	284	37.9	417	55.6	374	49.9
Rather important	343	45.7	272	36.3	360	48.0	363	48.4	296	39.5	327	43.6
Rather not important	31	4.1	9	1.2	74	9.9	72	9.6	17	2.3	29	3.9
Not important	4	0.5	2	0.3	18	2.4	8	1.1	4	0.5	4	0.5
Hard to evaluate	16	2.1	13	1.7	20	2.7	23	3.1	16	2.1	16	2.1
Total	750	100	750	100	750	100	750	100	750	100	750	100

Source: Author's calculations based on Anita Līce conducted survey of employers in 2017, $n = 750$, evaluation scale 1–4, where 1 – very important; 2 – rather important; 3 – rather not important; 4 – not important.

Survey data analysis indicate that the overall importance of the selected competencies in the labour market is very high. Proportion of positive answers exceeds 93% for (in decreasing order) *ability to work independently, work motivation, problem-solving skills* and *ability to adapt*, and 85% – for *target orientation* and *planning and self-organizing skills*. Employers have evaluated as the most important *ability to work independently* which received the biggest share of evaluations “very important” – 60.5%, then followed by *work motivation* (55.6% of employers rated as “very important”). As data of table 1 indicate, most of employers gave evaluations for all analysed aspects and only small part of employers had difficulties to evaluate (for almost all analysed aspects there were less than 3% of employers answering “hard to evaluate”). The main

statistical indicators of employers' evaluations on the importance of analysed competences in the recruitment process are included in table 2 (cases where employers did not provide the evaluation are excluded).

Table 2. Main statistical indicators of employers' evaluations of the importance of selected competencies in the recruitment process

	Ability to adapt	Ability to work independently	Planning and self-organising skills	Target orientation	Work motivation	Problem-solving skills
Valid	734	737	730	727	734	734
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	1.57	1.40	1.77	1.73	1.47	1.54
Std. Error of Mean	0.022	0.020	0.027	9.025	9.021	0.022
Median	2	1	2	2	1	1
Mode	1	1	2	2	1	1
Standard Deviation	0.603	0.530	0.727	0.679	0.573	0.600
Variance	0.363	0.281	0.529	0.462	0.328	0.361
Range	3	3	3	3	3	3
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	4	4	4	4	4	4

Source: Author's calculations based on a survey of employers conducted by Anita Līce in 2017, $n = 750$, evaluation scale 1–4, where 1 – very important; 2 – rather important; 3 – rather not important; 4 – not important

Although the employers have used full evaluation scale for their evaluations, the mode and the median for all analysed aspects was either 1 or 2 (it means that importance of those aspects was recognized by employers). Data analysis indicate that *ability to work independently*; *work motivation* and *problem solving skills* have mode and median 1 – it means that most of employers evaluate them as very important. Arithmetic means of employer's evaluations show that average evaluation was highest for *ability to work independently* where the evaluations were rather similar for employers – with relatively small indicators of variability. The biggest differences in evaluations by employers (indicated by indicators of variability) were for *good planning and self-organising skills*, *target orientation* and *ability to adapt*.

Distribution of employers' evaluations on performance of vocational education institutions in developing the selected competencies is included in table 3.

Table 3. Distribution of employer's evaluations on the performance of vocational education in developing selected competencies

Evaluations by employers	Ability to work in a team		Planning and self-organising skills		Communication skills		Presentation skills		Ability to take responsibility	
	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%	<i>n</i>	%
fully develops	31	4.1	278	37.1	22	2.9	284	37.9	10	1.3
rather develops	306	40.8	360	48.0	279	37.2	363	48.4	165	22.0
rather not develops	167	22.3	74	9.9	198	26.4	72	9.6	261	34.8
not develops	36	4.8	18	2.4	27	3.6	8	1.1	94	12.5
hard to evaluate	210	28.0	20	2.7	224	29.9	23	3.1	220	29.3
Total	750	100	750	100	750	100	750	100	750	100

Source: Author's calculations based on a survey of employers conducted by Anita Līce in 2017, $n = 750$, evaluation scale 1–4, where 1 – develops very well; 2 – develops rather well; 3 – does not develop very well; 4 – does not develop at all

Survey results indicate that employers had some difficulties to evaluate *communication skills* (29.9% of employers), *ability to take responsibility* (29.3% of employers) and *ability to work in a team* (28% of employers), most of employers did not have difficulties in evaluating the *planning and self-organising skills* (only 2.7% of employers had difficulties to evaluate this aspect) and *presentation skills* (only 3.1% of employers had difficulties to evaluate this aspect). The main statistical indicators of employers' evaluations on the performance of vocational education in developing selected competencies are included in table 4 (cases where employers did not provide the evaluation are excluded).

Table 4. Main statistical indicators of employers' evaluations on the performance of vocational education in developing selected competencies

	Ability to work in a team	Planning and self-organising skills	Communication skills	Presentation skills	Ability to take responsibility
Valid	540	730	526	538	530
Missing	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	2.39	1.77	2.44	2.25	2.83
Std. Error of Mean	0.030	0.027	0.029	0.029	0.032
Median	2	2	2	2	3
Mode	2	2	2	2	3
Standard Deviation	0.697	0.727	0.658	0.663	0.732
Variance	0.486	0.529	0.433	0.440	0.536
Range	3	3	3	3	3
Minimum	1	1	1	1	1
Maximum	4	4	4	4	4

Source: Author's calculations based on a survey of employers conducted by Anita Līce in 2017, $n = 750$, evaluation scale 1–4, where 1 – develops very well; 2 – develops rather well; 3 – does not develop very well; 4 – does not develop at all

Survey results indicate that employers had rather similar evaluations although full evaluation scale was used for all analysed aspects. Modal evaluation by employers most often was 2 and median evaluation was 2 (half of respondents gave evaluations 2 or less and half of respondents gave evaluations 2 or more) except for *ability to take responsibility* where mode and median was 3 (the evaluation “does not develop very well” was given by 49.2% of employers and 17.7% of employers made evaluation “does not develop at all”, only 1.9 % of employers evaluated this aspect with “develops very well” and 31.1% of employers evaluated *ability to take responsibility* with “develops rather well”. It means that vocational education institutions need to pay more attention and devote serious work to improve *ability to take responsibility* in vocational education students. Employers were more optimistic about development of *planning and self-organising skills* in vocational education in Latvia as the arithmetic mean of those evaluations was 1.77, however, variability of those evaluations were rather different (characterized by relatively big standard deviation and other indicators of variability).

The main results of the interviews with the managers of vocational education institutions on the methods institutions are applying to facilitate development of selected competencies are included in table 5. The interviews showed that vocational education institutions apply extra-curriculum activities, international events and mobility, as well as work-placements as the main methods to develop competencies that are linked to emotional intelligence.

Table 5. Number of vocational education institutions commenting development of competencies and the methods applied to develop them

Competence	Freq. of mentions, N _{max} = 12	Methods to facilitate competence development													
		Competitions	Course evaluations	Duties at school	Extra-curriculum activities	Course and graduation works	International events, mobility	Keeping workshop clean	Learning basics	Learning methods	Mentorship, upbringing	Presentations	Scholarship, salary	Study tours	Work-placements
Ability to create new ideas	5	1			3		2								2
Ability to work in a team	6	1			3	1	2			4				1	2
Attitude to work	5		1	1	2		3	1				1			3
Communication skills	6				5		5			2	1	2			2
Presentation skills	7				2		2					5			2
Target orientation	4	1			3		2				1				1
Ability to adapt	7				3		3		1		1				4
Ability to work independently	6				2		2			3					2
Planning and self-organising skills	6		1		4	1	2	1							2
Problem-solving skills	5				5		2			1	1				2
Work motivation	3				2		2						2		2
Ability to take responsibility	4		1		2		2								2

Source: Anita Līce calculations based on interviews with managers of vocational education institutions conducted by Anita Līce in 2017, n = 12

Extra-curriculum activities are, by their nature, voluntary, and only most motivated or those having time engage. International mobility experience, however, is available to just 5.4% of vocational education students (Ministry of Education and Science, 2019). Although work-placements are obligatory part of vocational education programmes, they may be of various quality (Līce, 2018: 251) and may not provide useful knowledge and skills for work in occupation for as much as 20% of students (Klāsons, Spuriņš, 2015: 41). Activities of core curriculum of vocational education such as learning methods, course evaluations, course and graduation works have been mentioned much more rarely by the managers as the methods to develop selected competencies. Most rarely commented competencies were *work motivation*, *ability to take responsibility* and *target orientation* indicating to difficulties for the managers of vocational education institutions to talk about these competencies as the learning outcome of vocational education. Considering that extra-curriculum activities, international events and mobility and work-placements do not constitute core curriculum of vocational education and that only part of students can benefit from engagement in them and obtaining useful learning experience, this indicates to limited opportunities for students to develop emotional intelligence competencies in vocational education in Latvia.

Conclusions

Although development of competencies linked to emotional intelligence is very important in the recruitment process in Latvia, vocational education facilitate their development in students only on a moderate level. Most of employers evaluate *ability to work independently*; *work motivation* and *problem-solving skills* as very important in the recruitment process. Although employers evaluated positively the opportunities to develop *planning and self-organising skills* in vocational education in Latvia, however, their evaluations of vocational education performance indicate that institutions need to pay more attention and devote serious work to improve *ability to take responsibility* in students.

The main methods used by vocational education institutions to develop competencies linked to emotional intelligence are extra-curriculum activities, international events and mobility, as well as work-placements.

Considering that the activities which vocational education institutions apply most frequently to facilitate development of emotional intelligence competencies are supplements to vocational education programmes rather than core curriculum, their implementation to a large extent depends on external actors and factors (e.g., employers, affordability of students), and they reach only a portion of students, as well as the mediocre performance of VET institutions in facilitating development of student employability, the chances for all students to develop competencies linked to emotional intelligence are currently reduced.

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The paper was supported by the project "INTERFRAME-LV".

EMOCINIO INTELEKTO SKATINIMAS PROFESINIO MOKYMO ĮSTAIGOSE, SIEKIANT PADĖTI ĮSIDARBINTI

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Santrauka

Emocinis intelektas gali vaidinti svarbų vaidmenį, siekiant užtikrinti asmens išsilavinimą ir sėkmingą karjerą. Šiuo tyrimu siekta įvertinti darbdavių nuomonę apie su emociniu intelektu susijusių kompetencijų svarbą įdarbinimo procese Latvijoje, pasidomėti, kaip šias kompetencijas galima būtų tobulinti profesiniame mokyme. Tyrime dalyvavo 750 įmonių, kurios įvertino kompetencijų svarbą ir profesinio mokymo įstaigų veiklą pagal keturių balų Likerto skalę. Profesiniame mokyme taikomų metodų, ugdančių emocinio intelekto kompetencijas, sąrašas aptartas su profesinio mokymo įstaigų vadovais.

Tyrimo rezultatai atskleidė, kad dauguma darbdavių gebėjimą savarankiškai dirbti, darbo motyvaciją ir problemų sprendimo įgūdžius vertina kaip ypač svarbius įdarbinimo procese. Profesinio mokymo įstaigos daugiau dėmesio turėtų skirti studentų gebėjimui prisiimti atsakomybę ugdytis. Pagrindiniai metodai, kuriuos profesinio mokymo įstaigos taiko ugdydamos su emociniu intelektu susijusias kompetencijas, yra popamokinė veikla, tarptautiniai renginiai, be to, skatinamas mobilumas – išvykos į kitas šalis ar lankymasis

kitose organizacijose. Taip įgyvendinami numatomi profesinio mokymosi rezultatai ir ugdomas emocinis intelektas.

Tyrimas leidžia persvarstyti profesinio mokymo programą, siekiant ugdyti kompetencijas, kurios vertinamos darbo rinkoje. Kadangi veikla, kurią profesinio mokymo įstaigos dažniausia taiko ugdydamos emocinio intelekto kompetencijas, yra profesinio mokymo programų priedai, o ne pagrindinės programos, jų įgyvendinimas labai priklauso nuo išorinių veiksnių (pvz., darbdavių, studentų galimybių mokėti už mokymus), todėl tai pasiekia tik dalį studentų. Taigi svarbu, kad absolventų įsidarbinimo galimybės nemažėtų ir jie galėtų tobulinti su emociniu intelektu siejamas kompetencijas.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *emocinis intelektas, įsidarbinimo galimybės, profesinis išsilavinimas.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: M51

Received: 2019-08-20

Revised: 2019-09-10

Accepted: 2019-09-20

KLAIPĖDOS RAJONO GYVENTOJŲ KORUPCIJOS SUVOKIMO IR PATIRTIES KAITA TRUMPUOJU LAIKOTARPIU

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ANOTACIJA

Nacionaliniai statistiniai tyrimai atskleidžia, kad miestų ir rajonų savivaldybės laikomos vienos labiausiai korumpuotų institucijų Lietuvoje. Straipsnyje pristatomi 2016 m. ir 2018 m. Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybėje atlikto kartotinio tyrimo rezultatai, leidžiantys įvertinti gyventojų korupcijos suvokimo ir patirties kaitą, gyventojų požiūrį į savivaldybėje taikomas korupcijos prevencijos priemones. Iširta, kad gyventojai korupciją suvokia labiau neigiamai ir rečiau susidūrė su įvairiomis korupcinės veiklos formomis. Apklaustųjų nuomone, korupcija labiausiai paplitusi medicinos įstaigose, savivaldybės administracijoje ir jos padaliniuose bei žemėtvarkoje. 2018 m. buvo gerokai mažiau teigusių, kad davė kyšius skirtingiems asmenims: medicinos darbuotojui, pareigūnui, valstybės tarnautojui. Apklaustieji mano, kad veiksmingiausia kovos su korupcija priemonė yra bausmės korupcinę veiklą vykdančiams asmenims neišvengiamumas bei korupcijos atvejų viešinimas spaudoje, TV ir kitomis priemonėmis. Vis dėlto daugiau nei pusė apklaustųjų, susidūrę su korupcijos atveju, niekur nieko nepraneštų.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: korupcija, savivaldybės, korupcijos prevencija, gyventojų požiūris.

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: D73, H79, K40.

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.1999>

Įvadas

Korupcija dažniausia apibrėžiama kaip piktnaudžiavimas patikėta galia, siekiant asmeninės naudos (<https://www.transparency.org/glossary/term/corruption>, 2019; Ackerman, Truex, 2012). Pabrėždami šio piktnaudžiavimo blogį G. Slamkov'as, A. Bilalli-Zendeli'is (2016, p. 183) korupcijos reiškinį įvardija kaip socialinę patologiją, kuri, netaikant prevencijos, gali išplisti į socialinę epidemiją. Pasaulio Banko prezidentas J. Yong'as Kim'as korupciją įvardijo kaip „visuomenės priešą Nr. 1“ (Yap, 2017: 119). Šį reiškinį analizuojančioje mokslinėje literatūroje (Bowman, Gilligan, 2007; Sohel Iqbal, Seo, 2008; Ackerman, 2002; Graycar, Sidebottom, 2012; Ackerman, Truex, 2012; Slamkov, Bilalli-Zendeli, 2016; Kozłowski, Kozłowska, Swirska, 2016) ir nacionaliniuose teisės aktuose (LR Seimo nutarimas „Dėl LR nacionalinės kovos su korupcija 2015–2025 m. programos patvirtinimo“) akcentuojamas neigiamas korupcijos visuminis poveikis šalims ir tam tikroms visuomenės gyvenimo sritims. Korupcija didina skurdą, socialinę nelygybę,

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nepasitikėjimą teisingumu ir teisinį nihilizmą. Be to, ji neigiamai veikia pasitenkinimą ir pasitikėjimą valdžia bei teisine demokratija (Ackerman, 2002; Ackerman, Truex, 2012). M. Soheli's Iqbal'as, J. Seo (2008, p. 58), A. J. Kozłowski's, I. Z. Kozłowska, A. Swirska (2016) pabrėžia neigiamą korupcijos įtaką žmonių pasitikėjimui politine sistema, institucijomis ir lyderyste.

Užsienio mokslininkai (pvz., Ackerman, 2001; Ackerman, Truex, 2012, kt.) ir lietuvių tyrėjai (pvz., Palidaukaitė, 2005, 2006) nagrinėjo įvairius korupcijos reiškinio aspektus. Tyrėjai (Palidaukaitė, 2005, 2006; Bowman, Gilligan, 2007; Iqbal, Seo, 2008; Tanzi, 2012; Ackerman, Truex, 2012; Dyussenov, 2016; Slamkov, Bilalli-Zendeli, 2016; Kozłowski, Kozłowska, Swirska, 2016) pastebi išaugusį dėmesį korupcijai, kartu apgailestauja, kad nepaisant nacionalinių ir tarptautinių organizacijų pastangų tai išlieka rimta problema, kurią dar pasunkina korupcijos gebėjimas prisitaikyti prie besikeičiančios aplinkos ir įgauti naujas išraiškos formas. Vis dėlto autoriai įžvelgia ir teigiamų pokyčių. V. Linhartova (2017) nustatė, kad informacinių technologijų vystymasis, e. valdžios plėtra prisideda prie korupcijos lygio mažėjimo tiek ekonomiškai labiau išsivysčiusiose, tiek ir kai kuriose mažiau išsivysčiusiose šalyse. C. K. Kim (2014) ištyrė, kad korupcijos prevencija viešajame sektoriuje yra veiksmingesnė, e. valdžią pastiprinus kokybiška biurokratija – kompetentingais specialistais. Be to, mūsų nacionaliniai teisės aktai (Lietuvos Respublikos Seimo nutarimas „Dėl LR nacionalinės kovos su korupcija 2015–2025 m. programos patvirtinimo“, 2015) ir kiti statistinės informacijos šaltiniai mato nedidelius teigiamus antikorporcinės aplinkos pokyčius per ilgesnį laikotarpį (Lietuvos Respublikos Specialiųjų tyrimų tarnybos [toliau – LR STT] veiklos 2018 metais ataskaita), 2018; Lietuvos korupcijos žemėlapis, 2018).

Vertinant antikorporcinės aplinkos kaitą trumpuoju (2017–2018 m.) laikotarpiu pastebima, kad Korupcijos suvokimo indekso rodiklis Lietuvoje nepakito ir vis dar išlieka 6 balais žemesnis nei Europos Sąjungos vidurkis (LR STT 2018 m. veiklos ataskaita, 2018: 3). Kasmet atliekamos gyventojų, įmonių vadovų ir valstybės tarnautojų apklausos „Lietuvos korupcijos žemėlapis“ rezultatai atskleidžia ilgaites visuomenės korupcinės patirties mažėjimo tendencijas: 2018 m. 12 proc. gyventojų nurodė, kad per pastaruosius 12 mėnesių jie bent kartą davė kyšį, šis rodiklis yra 4 proc. žemesnis nei 2016 m. ir du kartus žemesnis nei prieš ketverius metus. Tačiau antikorporcinė aplinka gerėja netolygiai.

Remiantis „Lietuvos korupcijos žemėlapio“ 2018 metų⁴ tyrimo duomenimis, miestų ir rajonų savivaldybės laikomos vienos labiausiai korumpuotų institucijų Lietuvoje. Kaip labiausiai korumpuotas institucijas Lietuvoje savivaldybes nurodė 24 proc. gyventojų (2016 m. – 22 proc.), 22 proc. įmonių vadovų (2016 m. – 20 proc.), 29 proc. valstybės tarnautojų (2016 m. – 27 proc.). Gyventojai ir įmonių vadovai labiausiai korumpuotais laiko savivaldybių viešųjų pirkimų skyrius ir komisijas, statybos skyrius ir savivaldybių įmones. Tarp valstybės tarnautojų labiausiai korumpuotais laikomos savivaldybių įmonės, tarybos, statybos skyriai ir merai. Vertinant gyventojų korupcinę patirtį savivaldybėse, reikšmingų pokyčių neįvyko: iš gyventojų, kurie tvarkė reikalus miesto ir rajonų savivaldybėse, 16 proc. teigė, kad iš jų buvo tikimasi kyšio ar kitos naudos (LR STT 2018 m. veiklos ataskaita, 2018: 8). 37 proc. visų 2018 m. STT pradėtų tirti ikiteisminių tyrimų yra susiję su vietos savivaldos srityje galimai padarytų nusikalstamų veikų tyrimu: 2018 m. keturiolikoje savivaldybių pradėti 23 ikiteisminiai tyrimai, kuriuose nustatytos 128 nusikalstamos veikos (LR STT 2018 m. veiklos ataskaita, 2018: 15).

Savivaldybėse egzistuojančią problemą dėl korupcijos paplitimo patvirtina ne tik „Lietuvos korupcijos žemėlapyje“ skelbti duomenys, bet ir 2018 metais atlikti sociologiniai bei LR STT tyrimai ir vertinimai, kuriais remiantis, korupciją savivaldos srityje lemia šie veiksniai: nepotizmas, politizacija ir interesų konfliktai (LR STT 2018 m. veiklos ataskaita, 2018: 16). Lietuvos laisvosios rinkos instituto kasmetiniame tyrimo „Lietuvos savivaldybių indeksas, 2018“ nurodyta, kad savivaldybėms ne visada pavyksta veiksmingai valdyti finansinius ir žmogiškuosius išteklius (LR STT 2018 m. veiklos ataskaita, 2018: 14). Remiantis „Transparency International“ Lietuvos skyriaus atlikto tyrimo „Interesai valstybės ir savivaldybių valdomose įmonėse – kaip juos suvaldyti?“ (2018) duomenimis, politizacija (tikslų keitimas ar jų nenuoseklumas; vadovų ir valdybos narių skyrimas; paramos skirstymas) įvardyta kaip viena opiausių valstybės ir savivaldybių valdomų įmonių problemų. Taigi antikorporcinės aplinkos kūrimas ir įtvirtinimas savivaldybėse yra

⁴ Prieiga internete: <https://www.stt.lt/lt/menu/tyrimai-ir-analizes/>, p. 12.

svarbus ir neatidėliotinas darbas. Tikslinga detaliau stebėti korupcinę situaciją konkrečioje savivaldybėje. Todėl šiame straipsnyje pristatomas Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybėje atliktas tęstinis gyventojų korupcijos suvokimo ir patirties tyrimas.

Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybės administracija, vadovaudamasi Lietuvos Respublikos korupcijos prevencijos įstatymu, Lietuvos Respublikos nacionaline kovos su korupcija 2015–2025 metų programa, rengia Korupcijos prevencijos programą ir tiria gyventojų požiūrį į korupciją bei korupcinę patirtį. 2016 m. ir 2018 m. Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybėje atliktas kartotinis tyrimas, leidžiantis įvertinti gyventojų korupcijos suvokimo ir patirties kaitą, požiūrį į savivaldybėje taikomas korupcijos prevencijos priemones. Toks tyrimas aktualus keturioms suinteresuotųjų grupėms: Klaipėdos savivaldybės administracijos specialistai galės priimti tikslingus korupcijos prevencijos sprendimus; kitų savivaldybių už korupcijos prevenciją atsakingi specialistai žinos, kokia šios savivaldybės patirtis korupcijos prevencijos srityje; viešinamas tyrimas ir jo rezultatai didins rajono gyventojų išitraukimą ir mažins galimą toleranciją korupcijos apraiškoms; tyrimo rezultatai aktualūs mokslininkams, analizuojantiems korupcijos prevencijos praktiką.

Tyrimo objektas – Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų korupcijos suvokimo ir patirties kaita.

Tyrimo tikslas: įvertinti Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų požiūrį į korupciją ir korupcinės patirties kaitą 2016–2018 m. laikotarpiu. Tyrime keliami šie probleminiai klausimai: kaip keičiasi gyventojų korupcijos ir galimų jos priežasčių suvokimas? Kaip keičiasi Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų korupcinė patirtis trumpuoju laikotarpiu? Kokias korupcijos prevencijos priemones gyventojai pastebi gyvenamojoje aplinkoje ir kaip kinta jų veiksmingumo vertinimas?

Tyrimo metodai: mokslinės literatūros ir teisės aktų analizė, Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų anketinė apklausa, duomenų apdorojimas SPSS programa, anketinių apklausų duomenų lyginamoji analizė.

1. Tyrimo metodika

Tyrimo populiaciją sudaro 18 m. ir vyresni Klaipėdos rajono gyventojai (t. y. asmenys, kurių gyvenamoji vieta deklaruota Klaipėdos rajone) – 44 308 asmenys⁵. Tiriamųjų imties dydis – 147 Klaipėdos rajono gyventojai (kai tikimybė – 95 proc., paklaida – 8,5 proc.). Minimalus galimas respondentų skaičius apskaičiuotas pagal V. Panioto imties tūrio formulę ir atsižvelgiant į tyrimo tikslą, tyrimo populiacijos savybes (t. y. dydį ir vienalytiškumo tiriamojo požymio atžvilgiu kriterijų), siekiamų gauti duomenų tikslumą bei klausimyno charakteristikas (Valackienė, Mikėnė, 2008; Kardelis, 2009; Bryman, 2016; Pallant, 2016 ir kt.).

Apklausos metodas: Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų anketinė apklausa, naudojant iš anksto parengtą standartizuotą klausimyną, kuris sudarytas atsižvelgiant į Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybės rekomendacijas.

Tiriamųjų atranka: respondentams atrinkti taikyta netikimybinė kriterinė atranka (Valackienė, Mikėnė, 2008; Kardelis, 2009; Bryman, 2016). Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų pasirinkimą tyrimui lėmė amžius, lytis, išsilavinimas.

Tyrimo laikas ir vieta – 2018 m. spalio, lapkričio mėn. Klaipėdos rajone.

Tyrimo etika. Atliekant tyrimą laikytasi tyrimo etikos principų: apsaugos, slaptumo (anonimiškumo ir konfidencialumo), geranoriškumo, universalumo, reikšmingumo, pagarbos asmens orumui, teisingumo, teisės gauti tikslią informaciją (Bitinas, Rupšienė, Žydžiūnaitė, 2008; Kardelis, 2009; May, 2011 ir kt.). Tyrimo etika numato šio tyrimo bendrai priimtinius dalykus (imties dydis, imties atranka, duomenų rinkimas, apibendrinimas ir kt.), kurie paskatino apsvarstyti visos tyrimo eigos alternatyvas, numatant jų stipriąsias bei silpnąsias puses ir pasirinkti tinkamiausią tyrimo eigą.

Tyrimo eiga. Vykdamas Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų apklausą sukurtas elektroninis tyrimo klausimynas ir išsiųstas kvietimas-prašymas dalyvauti tyrime 350 organizacijų elektroninių paštų adresais, skelbiamais įmonių internetinėse svetainėse. Klaipėdos rajono įmonės atrinktos naudojantis informacine platforma⁶. Kvietimas dalyvauti tyrime su elektronine anketos nuoroda patalpintas ir Klaipėdos rajono bendruomenių

⁵ Informacijos šaltinis: <https://osp.stat.gov.lt/gyventojai1>.

⁶ Prieiga internete: <http://rekvizitai.vz.lt/imone>

feisbuko paskyroje, Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybės internetiniame puslapyje ir savivaldybės feisbuko paskyroje. 112 Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų atsakė į internetinę anketos versiją, 35 – į popierinę.

Tyrimo duomenų analizė atlikta taikant socialiniams tyrimams skirtą statistikos programą *SPSS 25.0*. Skaičiuoti procentiniai dažniai, statistiškai patikimų skirtumų nustatymas – chi kvadrato testas, neparametris Kruskal-Wallis kriterijus, aprašomosios statistikos charakteristikos. Atlikta matematinės statistikos analizė padėjo išskirti reikšmingus skirtumus tarp nepriklausomųjų imčių. Skirtumai statistiškai reikšmingi, kai tikimybė $p < 0,05$. Grafinė analizė atlikta *Ms Excel* skaičiuokle.

Tyrimo respondentų demografinės charakteristikos. Tyrime dalyvavo 147 respondentai. Moterys sudarė 80 proc. apklaustųjų. Vyrai – tik 20 proc. tyrimo respondentų. Siekiant atskleisti statistiškai reikšmingus nuomonių skirtumus tarp skirtingų amžiaus grupių asmenų, respondentai sugrupuoti į keturias grupes: 18–29 m. – 12,9 proc.; 30–40 m. – 25,2 proc.; 41–51 m. – 32,9 proc.; 52 m. ir vyresni – 29,0 proc.

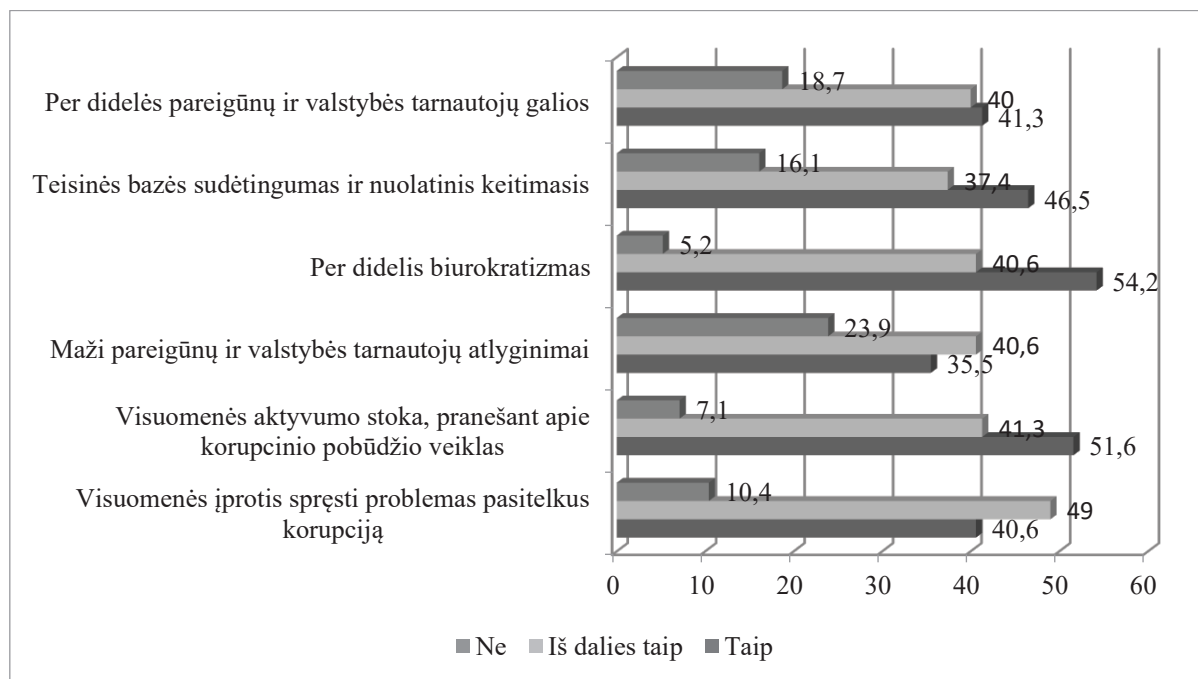
2. Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų korupcijos suvokimo kaitos analizė

Vienas pagrindinių tyrimo uždavinių yra ištirti Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų požiūrį į korupciją. Respondentams pateikti penki korupciją apibūdinantys teiginiai ir prašoma su jais sutikti arba nesutikti (1 lentelė). Analizuojant 2018 metų tyrimo rezultatus nustatyta, kad apklaustieji labiausiai pritaria teiginiams „korupcija pažeidžia žmogaus teises, iškreipia socialinį teisingumą, žaloja visuomenės moralę“ (83,9 proc.); „korupcija kelia grėsmę demokratijai ir teisinei valstybei, valstybės valdymui, valstybės ar savivaldybių įstaigų stabilumui“ (83,2); „korupcija iškreipia sąžiningą konkurenciją, verslo sąlygas, mažina ekonomikos augimą“ (80,6 proc.). Kardinaliai priešingai apklaustieji pritaria teiginiui, kad „korupcija yra pateisinama, nes žmogui sunku surasti kitus problemų sprendimo būdus“ (sutinka tik 7,1 proc., nesutinka – 74,2 proc.). Remiantis gautais rezultatais, galima teigti, kad Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų požiūris į korupciją yra neigiamas, jie suvokia jos daromą žalą. Tikslinga pastebėti, kad, nepaisant didelio pritarimo teiginiams, apibūdinantiems korupcijos blogį ir žalą, apklaustieji mažiau pritaria teiginiui, kad už korupcinio pobūdžio veiklas „visada reikia bausti realiomis bausmėmis“ (sutinka – 71,0 proc., iš dalies sutinka – 23,9 proc.). Analizuojant gyventojų požiūrio kaitą 2016–2018 m., nustatyta, kad gyventojai labiau neigiamai suvokia korupciją: su teiginiu, kad „korupcija yra pateisinama, nes žmogui sunku surasti kitus problemų sprendimo būdus“ nesutinkančiųjų dalis padidėjo net 20 procentinių punktų. Apskritai galima teigti, kad Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybės gyventojų požiūris į korupciją yra neigiamas; gyventojai suvokia korupcijos daromą žalą ir vis mažiau pateisina ją kaip problemų sprendimo priemonę.

1 lentelė. Respondentų požiūrio į korupcijos reiškinį pasiskirstymas 2016 ir 2018 m., proc.

Korupcijos apibūdinimas	2016			2018		
	Sutinku	Iš dalies sutinku	Nesutinku	Sutinku	Iš dalies sutinku	Nesutinku
Korupcinio pobūdžio veiklos yra nusikaltimai, už kuriuos visada reikia bausti realiomis bausmėmis	65,7	31,4	2,9	71,0	23,9	5,2
Korupcija pažeidžia žmogaus teises, iškreipia socialinį teisingumą, žaloja visuomenės moralę	81,8	17,5	0,7	83,9	14,2	1,9
Korupcija iškreipia sąžiningą konkurenciją, verslo sąlygas, mažina ekonomikos augimą	83,2	14,6	2,2	80,6	14,4	1,9
Korupcija kelia grėsmę demokratijai ir teisinei valstybei, valstybės valdymui	81	16,8	2,2	83,2	16,1	0,6
Korupcija yra pateisinama, nes žmogui sunku surasti kitus problemų sprendimo būdus	16,8	28,5	54,7	7,1	18,7	74,2

Be to, tyrimu siekta atskleisti Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų nuomonę apie veiksnius, lemiančius korupcijos paplitimą (žr. 1 pav.). Respondentai turėjo įvertinti šešis veiksnius ir / arba įrašyti kitą svarbų veiksnį, lemiantį korupcijos paplitimą. Remiantis tyrimo duomenimis, galima teigti, kad respondentai daugelį veiksnių įvardijo kaip korupcijos paplitimo priežastis. Mažiausiai pritarimo sulaukė teiginys, kad korupciją skatina maži pareigūnų ir valstybės tarnautojų atlyginimai. Atsakymo variante „Kitas“ respondentai nurodė: „giminytės ryšiai“, „gyventojų sąmoningumo stoka“, „visur savų protegavimas“.



1 pav. Respondentų atsakymų į klausimą, kokie veiksniai yra korupcijos paplitimo Klaipėdos rajone priežastys, pasiskirstymas, procentais

Analizuojant atsakymus į klausimus, kokie veiksniai yra korupcijos paplitimo Klaipėdos rajone priežastys, pagal amžiaus grupes nustatyti statistiškai reikšmingi skirtumai vertinant visus teiginius. Jaunesni gyventojai (18–29 m.) labiau nei kitos respondentų grupės pritarė teiginiui, kad „svarbūs yra visuomenės įpročiai spręsti problemas pasitelkus korupciją“ ir „per didelės pareigūnų ir valstybės tarnautojų galios“. „Visuomenės aktyvumo“ labiausiai pasigenda 30–40 m. respondentai. Jie taip pat labiausiai pritaria, kad korupcijos paplitimui įtakos turi „maži pareigūnų ir valstybės tarnautojų atlyginimai“ bei „per didelis biurokratizmas“ (skirtumai statistiškai reikšmingi, $p < 0,05$).

Tyrimu siekta atskleisti gyventojų nuomonę, kokiose Klaipėdos rajono institucijose korupcija yra paplitusi. 2 lentelėje palygintos 2016 m. ir 2018 m. respondentų išsakytos nuomonės. Respondentai galėjo įvertinti 11-os institucijų sąrašą ir / arba įrašyti savo variantą. Apklaustųjų nuomone, korupcija labiausiai paplitusi medicinos įstaigose (53,5 proc.), savivaldybės administracijoje ir jos padaliniuose (45,8 proc.), žemėtvarkoje (36,8 proc.). Pastebėtina, kad 2016 m. įvardytos šios įstaigos, kaip labiausiai pažeistos korupcijos. Lyginant 2016 m. ir 2018 m. duomenis respondentų pritarimas, kad šiose įstaigose paplitusi korupcija, yra mažesnis. Atsakymo variante „Kitas“ respondentai nurodė: „negaliu atsakyti, kadangi pati neieškau privilegijų, neduodu kyšių, bet ir iš manęs niekas niekada nereikalavo“; „ypač paplitusi Europos Sąjungos finansuojamuose projektuose, pirkimai-pardavimai (viešieji pirkimai)“; „kai konkursus laimi neaiškios firmos“.

2 lentelė. Respondentų atsakymų į klausimą, kuriose Klaipėdos rajono institucijose korupcija paplitusi, pasiskirstymas, proc.

Atsakymo variantas	2016			2018		
	Taip	Iš dalies	Ne	Taip	Iš dalies	Ne
Aplinkos apsaugoje	11,9	45,6	42,5	22,6	39,3	38,1
Medicinos įstaigose	61,3	32,8	5,8	53,5	31,6	14,9
Mokesčių inspekcijoje	20	34,1	45,9	20,6	27,7	51,7
Policijoje	27,4	45,2	27,4	15,5	39,4	45,1
Savivaldybės administracijoje ir jos padaliniuose	34,3	48,9	16,8	45,8	31,6	22,6
„Sodroje“	8,1	32,6	59,3	9,7	23,2	67,1
Spaudoje	20,0	40,0	40,0	16,1	33,5	50,4
Švietimo įstaigose	13,3	47,4	39,3	14,2	38,1	47,7
Teisme	30,1	42,6	27,2	19,4	40,6	40
Verslo įmonėse	22,8	56,6	20,6	29,7	44,5	25,8
Žemėtvarkoje	40,4	39,7	19,9	36,8	34,8	28,4

Analizuojant atsakymus į klausimą, „kuriose Klaipėdos rajono institucijose korupcija yra paplitusi“, pagal amžiaus grupes statistiškai reikšmingų skirtumų nenustatyta vertinant beveik visas institucijas ($p > 0,05$). Išsiskyrė nuomonės vertinant korupcijos paplitimą spaudoje: kad korupcija spaudoje nepaplitusi labiau pritaria jaunesni respondentai (18–29 m. – 65 proc.; 30–40 m. – 46,2 proc., 41–51 m. – 47,1 proc., 52 m. ir vyresni – 51,1 proc.; skirtumai statistiškai reikšmingi, $p < 0,05$).

3. Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų korupcinės patirties kaitos ir prevencijos priemonių vertinimo analizė

Tyrimo dalyvių prašyta nurodyti, kaip dažnai jiems tenka susidurti su korupcinės veiklos formomis gyvenant ir / ar dirbant Klaipėdos rajone (vertinant 2017–2018 m. patirtį) (matavimo skalė: 1 – niekada; 2 – retai; 3 – kartais; 4 – dažnai; 5 – labai dažnai) (žr. 3 lentelę). 2018 m. respondentai įvardijo, kad su įvairiomis korupcinės veiklos formomis susiduria retai arba kartais. Palyginus 2016 m. ir 2018 m. rezultatus galima teigti, kad 2018 m. respondentai šiek tiek mažiau susidūrė su įvairiomis korupcinės veiklos formomis, išskyrus dokumentų ar matavimo priemonių klastojimą (+0,18) bei savo artimųjų protegavimą (+0,14).

3 lentelė. Respondentų atsakymų į klausimą, kaip dažnai tenka susidurti su korupcinės veiklos formomis gyvenant ir / ar dirbant Klaipėdos rajone, vidurkiai

Korupcinės veiklos formos	2016	2018	Skirtumas
	Vidurkis	Vidurkis	
Kyšininkavimas ir papirkimas	2,36	2,32	-0,04
Prekyba poveikiu	1,82	1,81	-0,01
Piktnaudžiavimas tarnybine padėtimi arba įgaliojimų viršijimas	2,69	2,6	-0,09
Dokumentų ar matavimo priemonių klastojimas	1,67	1,85	+0,18
Turto pasisavinimas ar iššvaistymas	1,80	1,77	-0,03
Tarnybos (komercinės) paslapties atskleidimas	1,55	1,57	+0,02
Neteisingų duomenų apie pajamas, pelną ar turta pateikimas	1,95	1,90	-0,05
Nusikalstamu būdu įgytų pinigų ar turto legalizavimas	1,69	1,57	-0,12
Artimųjų protegavimas	2,23	2,37	+0,14

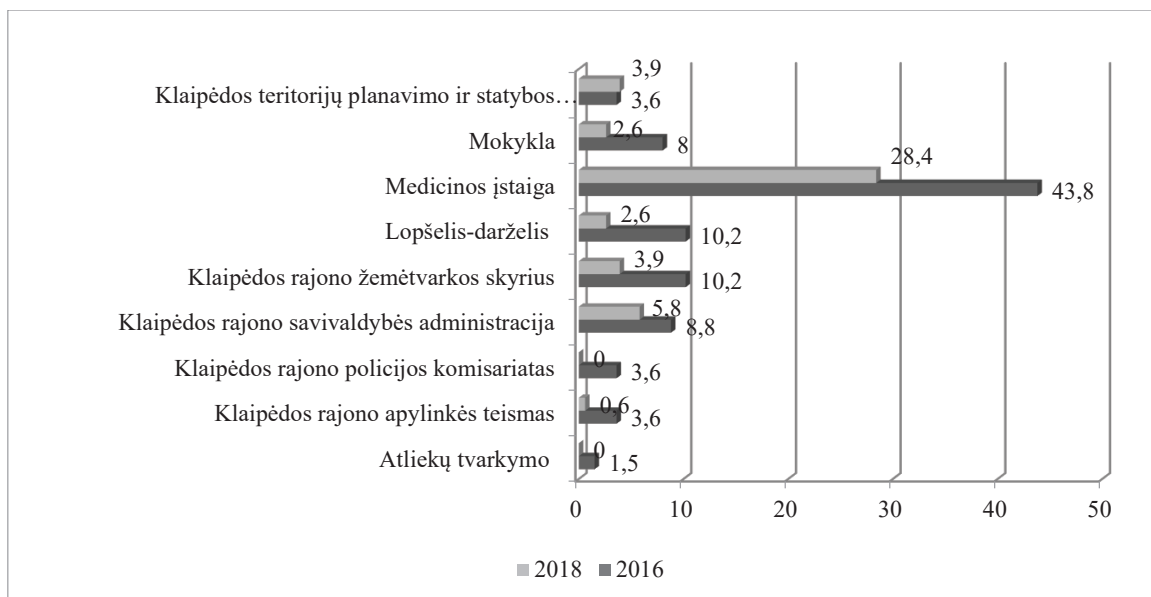
Ryšys tarp apklaustųjų amžiaus ir jų susidūrimo su korupcine veikla pateiktas 4 lentelėje. Norint nustatyti skirtumus tarp atsakymų į klausimą, kaip dažnai tenka susidurti su korupcinės veiklos formomis, ir amžiaus grupių, taikytas Kruskal-Wallis neparametrinis kriterijus. Nustatyti statistiškai reikšmingi skirtumai

vertinant artimųjų protegavimą: labiausiai šiam teiginiui pritaria 30–40 m. amžiaus respondentai, mažiau – 18–29 m.

4 lentelė. Respondentų atsakymų į klausimą, kaip dažnai tenka susidurti su korupcinės veiklos formomis gyvenant ir / ar dirbant Klaipėdos rajone, palyginimas pagal amžių (proc.)

Korupcinės veiklos formos	Amžiaus grupės			
	18–29 m.	30–40 m.	41–51 m.	52 m. ir vyresni
Kyšininkavimas ir papirkimas	62,33	77,14	83,33	79,67
Prekyba poveikiu	61,68	87,09	78,43	76,89
Piktnaudžiavimas tarnybine padėtimi / įgaliojimų viršijimas	60,13	82,82	86,42	72,22
Dokumentų ar matavimo priemonių klastojimas	61,15	78,87	77,15	85,70
Turto pasisavinimas ar iššvaistymas	72,93	79,14	77,07	80,32
Tarnybos (komercinės) paslapties atskleidimas	60,73	82,19	76,59	83,64
Neteisingų duomenų apie pajamas, pelną ar turtą pateikimas	64,10	79,41	79,92	80,78
Nusikalstamu būdu įgytų pinigų ar turto legalizavimas	68,90	77,01	82,41	77,90
Artimųjų protegavimas	48,13	88,67	83,29	76,03

Atliekant tyrimą siekta nustatyti, ar respondentai yra davę kyšį tam tikriems Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybės padalinių, įstaigų ar institucijų darbuotojams. Respondentams pateiktas 9 subjektų sąrašas ir sudaryta galimybė įrašyti savo atsakymo variantą. 2016 m. ir 2018 m. tyrimų duomenų palyginimas pateiktas 2 paveiksle.



2 pav. Respondentų atsakymų į klausimą, ar esate davęs kyšį šių Klaipėdos r. savivaldybės padalinių, įstaigų darbuotojams, pasiskirstymo palyginimas 2016 m. ir 2018 m. (proc.)

Palyginus 2016 m. ir 2018 m. duomenis matyti, kad beveik visuose atsakymų variantuose stebimas mažėjimas: mokykla – 2,6 proc. (sumažėjimas – 5,4 proc.); medicinos įstaiga – 28,4 proc. (sumažėjimas – 15,4 proc.); lopšelis-darželis – 2,6 proc. (sumažėjimas – 7,6 proc.); ...žemėtvarkos skyrius – 3,9 proc. (sumažėjimas – 6,3 proc.); ...savivaldybės administracija – 5,8 proc. (sumažėjimas – 3 proc.); ...policijos

komisariatas – 0 proc. (sumažėjimas – 3,6 proc.); apylinkės teismas – 0,6 proc. (sumažėjimas – 3 proc.); atliekų tvarkymas – 0 proc. (sumažėjimas – 1,5 proc.). Atsakymų variante „Kita“ respondentai įvardijo: „darbo biržoje esu davus“; „tiek, kiek mokėjo, tiek dalį atiduodavau“. Tai dar kartą patvirtina korupcijos mažėjimo tendencijas.

Respondentų prašyta nurodyti kyšio, kurį jie davė, formą (6 lentelė). Dažniausia apklaustieji įvardydavo pinigus (21,3 proc.) arba maisto produktus (9 proc.), kiti būdai nurodyti rečiau. Atsakymo variante „Kita“ respondentai nurodė: „tik pinigais, saldinių nevalgo“; „be pinigų negydo“. 2016 m. ir 2018 m. tyrimo rezultatų palyginimas (žr. 10 lentelė) atskleidžia, kad respondentai gerokai rečiau davė kyšius įvairiomis formomis: pinigais – 21,3 proc. (sumažėjimas – 24 proc.); maisto produktais – 9 proc. (sumažėjimas – 19,5 proc.). Respondentai įvardijo šias sumas: 10 eurų (2 respondentai); 50 eurų (6 respondentai); 100 eurų (6 respondentai); 170 eurų (1 respondentas); 200 eurų (3 respondentai); 300 eurų (1 respondentas); 500 eurų (1 respondentas); vienas respondentas nurodė 50–300 eurų sumą. Komentaruose papildomai nurodė, kad „davė greičiau ne kyšį, o kaip padėką – dovaną“; „gydytojui“; „kai neduodi, skiriasi aptarnavimo kokybė“. Šie tyrimų duomenys ir komentarai leidžia teigti, kad kyšius duodantys asmenys tai suvokia kaip „dovanas“ ir „padėkas“, o ne kaip nusikalstamą veiklą.

6 lentelė. Respondentų nurodytų kyšio davimo formų palyginimas 2016 m. ir 2018 m. (proc.)

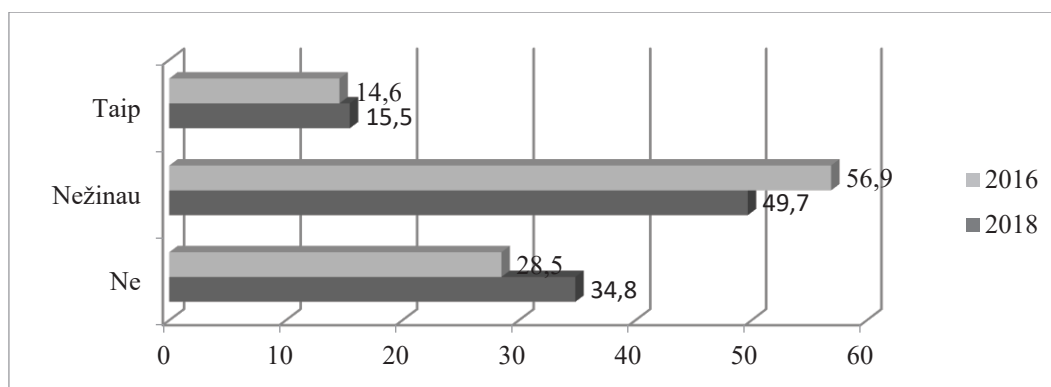
Atsakymo variantas	2016	2018	Skirtumas
Pinigais	45,3	21,3	-24
Maisto produktais	28,5	9	-19,5
Daiktais	8,8	4,5	-4,3
Paslaugomis	8	6,5	-1,5
Atsilyginta kitaip	3,6	2,6	-1

Respondentų prašyta nurodyti aplinkybes, kuriomis jie apsisprendė duoti kyšį. Jie galėjo rinktis kelis iš nurodytų penkių atsakymo variantų ir / arba įvardyti savo aplinkybes, todėl bendra atsakymų suma yra didesnė nei 100 proc. Atsakymo variante „Kita“ nurodė: „Nenoras daryti, bet kai duodi ar pažadi atsilyginti, tik tuo atveju su tavimi pradėdama elgtis geriau“. 2016 m. ir 2018 m. tyrimo rezultatų palyginimas (žr. 7 lentelę) atskleidė, kad pasireiškia vis mažiau aplinkybių, kuriomis respondentai priima sprendimą duoti kyšį: kyšio nedaviau – 65,2 proc. (padidėjimas – 35,3 proc.); buvo tiesiogiai paprašyta – 5,2 proc. (sumažėjimas – 3,6 proc.); girdėjau iš kitų – 19,4 proc. (sumažėjimas – 12 proc.); man buvo užsiminta – 12,3 proc. (sumažėjimas – 8,1 proc.); nusprendžiau pats – 16,8 proc. (sumažėjimas – 4,3 proc.). Rezultatai leidžia manyti, kad respondentų aplinkoje stebimi teigiami pokyčiai: piliečiai mažiau daro įtaką kitų sprendimams duoti kyšį, patys rečiau apsisprendžia ir mažiau duoda kyšių.

7 lentelė. Respondentų nurodytų kyšio davimo aplinkybių palyginimas 2016 m. ir 2018 m. (proc.)

Atsakymo variantas	2016	2018
Kyšio nedaviau	29,9	65,2
Tiesiogiai paprašyta	8,8	5,2
Girdėjau iš kitų, kad reikia duoti	31,4	19,4
Man buvo užsiminta	20,4	12,3
Nusprendžiau pats	21,1	16,8

Atliekant tyrimą siekta atskleisti, ar respondentai ateityje duotų kyšį sprenddami savo problemas (žr. 3 pav.). Palyginus 2016 m. ir 2018 m. duomenis, galima teigti, kad ateityje apsisprendusiųjų duoti kyšius yra 15,5 proc. (padidėjimas – 0,9 proc.), abejojančiųjų – 49,7 (sumažėjimas – 6,2 proc.), nusprendusiųjų kyšio neduoti – 34,8 proc. (padidėjimas – 6,3 proc.). Tokia rezultatų dinamika leidžia manyti, kad apskritai matomi teigiami pokyčiai mažinant korupciją.



3 pav. Respondentų atsakymų į klausimą, ar ateityje duotų kyši, sprendami problemą, pasiskirstymas 2016 m. ir 2018 m. (proc.)

4. Klaipėdos rajono gyventojų korupcijos prevencijos priemonių vertinimo analizė

Atliekant tyrimą siekta nustatyti, respondentų nuomone, veiksmingas kovos su korupcija priemonės ir būdus. Respondentų nuomonių apie veiksmingus kovos su korupcija būdus pasiskirstymas ir palyginimas su 2016 m. rezultatais pateiktas 8 lentelėje. Apklaustieji mano, kad veiksmingiausia kovos su korupcija priemonė yra baudmės korupcinę veiklą vykdžiusiems asmenims neišvengiamumas (65,3 proc.), korupcijos atvejų viešinimas spaudoje, TV ir kitomis priemonėmis (55,1 proc.). Pastebėtina, kad mažiausiai veiksminga priemonė respondentai laiko elektroninės valdžios priemones (veiksminga – 29,9 proc.; neveiksminga – 19,7 proc.). Tai leidžia manyti, kad gyventojai nesuvokia viešųjų įstaigų perkėlimo į elektroninę erdvę naudos arba tikisi neteisėto savo klausimų / problemų sprendimo. Atsakymo variante „Kita“ respondentai nurodė: „sisteminiai sprendimai“; „aiškus paslaugos turinio reglamentavimas ir procesų terminų nurodymas“; „paslaugų eilių valdymas ir savalaikis teikimas, ypač sveikatos sistemoje, pvz., kad jei paskiria druskų kambarį, kaip vieną iš gydymo priemonių, o paslaugos negali gauti tris savaites“; „pirmiausia – neduok kyšio pats, neieškok neteisėtų kelių, pažinčių, „blato“ ir pan.“; „elkis sąžiningai ir joks „valdininkas“ iš tavęs pinigų, daiktų, paslaugų tikrai per jėgą neatims“; „nebus duodančių, neliks ir imančių“; „nušalinimas nuo pareigų“; „konkrečiai Gargžduose – naikinti Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybę“; „Gargždus jungti prie Klaipėdos“; „griežtas bausmės už Europos, valstybės pinigų švaistymą, pasisavinimą“. Palyginus atsakymus į klausimus, kokie kovos su korupcija būdai yra veiksmingi, pagal amžiaus grupes statistiškai reikšmingų skirtumų nenustatyta. 2016 m. ir 2018 m. tyrimų duomenų palyginimas atskleidė: 2016 m. respondentai manė, kad daugelis priemonių yra veiksmingesnės. Taigi trumpuoju laikotarpiu respondentų optimizmas dėl korupcijos prevencijos priemonių veiksmingumo sumažėjo.

2018 m. tyrimu siekta įvertinti, kokias savivaldybės įgyvendinamas korupcijos prevencijos iniciatyvas rajono gyventojai yra pastebėję 2017–2018 m. (žr. 9 lentelę). Daugiausia respondentų pasinaudojo: didinamu sveikatos priežiūros paslaugų prieinamumu (informacija internetinėje svetainėje, el. registracija ir pan.) (15,0 proc.); viešai skelbiama informacija apie nemokamai teikiamas sveikatos priežiūros paslaugas (10,9 proc.); veikiančia centralizuota priėjimo į Klaipėdos rajono darželius prieiga savivaldybės internetiniame tinklalapyje (10,2 proc.); savivaldybės administracijos skelbiama informacija apie galimybes užsisakyti viešąsias paslaugas elektroninėmis priemonėmis, naudotis e.demokratijos galimybėmis, išreikšti nuomonę ir poziciją (8,2 proc.). Daugiausia respondentų pastebėjo skelbiamus pranešimus, skatinančius gyventojus pranešti apie korupcinio pobūdžio pažeidimus, informuojant apie galimus pranešimo būdus (51 proc.) bei viešai skelbiamą informaciją apie nemokamai teikiamas sveikatos priežiūros paslaugas (43,5 proc.).

8 lentelė. Respondentų atsakymų į klausimą, kokie kovos su korupcija būdai yra veiksmingi, pasiskirstymo palyginimas 2016 m. ir 2018 m. (proc.)

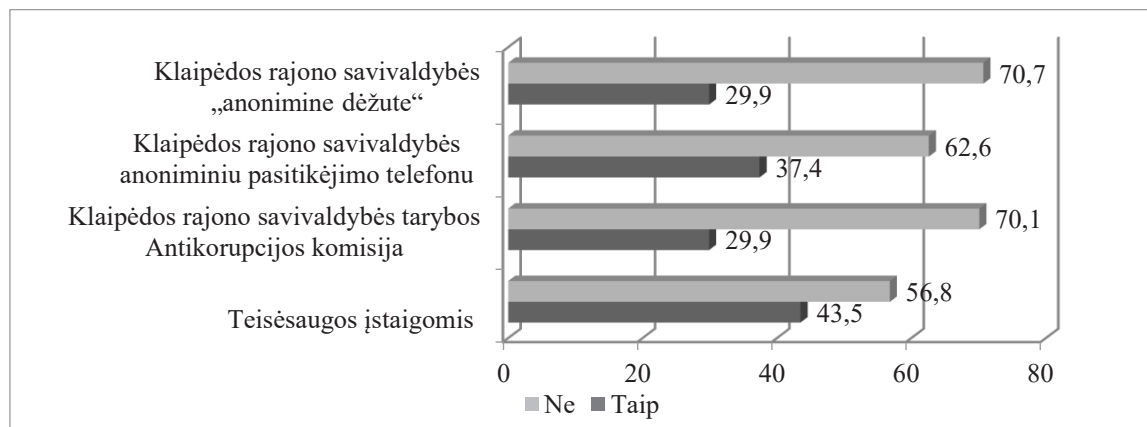
Kovos su korupcija būdai	2016			2018		
	Neveiksmingi	Iš dalies veiksmingi	Veiksmingi	Neveiksmingi	Iš dalies veiksmingi	Veiksmingi
Griežtesnis tam tikrų veiklos sričių teisinis reglamentavimas	13,9	46,7	39,4	10,9	55,1	34,0
Griežtesnė viešajame sektoriuje dirbančių asmenų atranka ir kontrolė	10,2	48,2	41,6	15	45,6	39,4
Korupcijos atvejų viešinimas spaudoje, TV ir kitomis priemonėmis	5,8	36,5	57,7	10,2	34,7	55,1
Bausmės korupcinę veiklą vykdydžiusiems asmenims neišvengiamumas	2,9	29,9	67,2	6,1	28,6	65,3
Visuomenės antikorupcinis švietimas ir informavimas	9,5	41,6	48,9	11,6	49,7	38,7
Elektroninės valdžios priemonės	17,5	46,7	35,8	19,7	50,4	29,9

9 lentelė. Respondentų atsakymų į klausimą, kokias Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybės administracijos įgyvendinamas korupcijos prevencijos iniciatyvas yra pastebėję / dalyvavę, pasiskirstymas (proc.)

Korupcijos prevencijos iniciatyvos	Nepastebėjau / nepasinaudojau	Pastebėjau	Pasinaudojau
Viešai skelbiama informacija apie politikų ir tarnautojų susitikimus su interesų grupėms atstovaujanciais asmenimis	70,8	27,2	2,0
Viešai skelbiama informacija apie nemokamai teikiamas sveikatos priežiūros paslaugas	45,6	43,5	10,9
Didinamas sveikatos priežiūros paslaugų prieinamumas (informacija internetinėje svetainėje, el. registracija ir pan.)	47,6	37,4	15,0
Savivaldybės internetiniame tinklalapyje skelbiama informacija apie savivaldybės įmones, įstaigas, turtą ir kt.	64,6	32,0	3,4
Savivaldybės administracijos skelbiama informacija apie galimybę užsisakyti viešąsias paslaugas elektroninėmis priemonėmis, naudotis e-demokratijos galimybėmis ir išreikšti nuomonę	61,9	29,9	8,2
Veikianti centralizuota priėmimo į Klaipėdos rajono darželius prieiga savivaldybės internetiniame tinklalapyje	57,8	32,0	10,2
Įvairūs kovai su korupcija skirti renginiai / konkursai / veiklos / mokymai	60,6	35,4	4,1
Skelbiami pranešimai, skatinantys gyventojus pranešti apie korupcinio pobūdžio pažeidimus, informuojant apie galimus pranešimo būdus	43,5	51,0	5,4

Tyrimu siekta išsiaiškinti, kokiomis priemonėmis respondentai pasinaudotų, susidūrę su korupcija (žr. 4 pav.). Remiantis tyrimo duomenimis, galima teigti, kad daugiau atsakymų „taip“ surinko teisėsaugos įstaigos (56,5 proc.) ir anoniminis pasitikėjimo telefonas (37,4 proc.). Daugiausia atsakymų „ne“ surinko Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybės anoniminė dėžutė (70,7 proc.). Tačiau apskritai daugiau nei pusė apklaustųjų, susidūrę su korupcijos atveju, niekur ir nieko nepraneštų. Tai rodo, kad gyventojai korupcijos atveju užimtų

pasyvią poziciją ir nesiimtų aktyvių veiksmų, nors patys mano, kad bausmės neišvengiamumas ir korupcijos atvejų viešinimas yra efektyviausios kovos su korupcija priemonės. Atsakymo variante „Kitas“ respondentai nurodė: „visi vienodi, visi kyši ima“; „nėra kam pranešti, ranka ranką plauna“; „kaip anoniminio ir nebus, pas mus viskas vieša ir dėl to pats nukentėsi ir bėdos prisidarysi tik sau“; „gal dar STT, kitomis ne“.



4 pav. Respondentų atsakymų į klausimą, kokiomis korupcijos prevencijos priemonėmis pasinaudotų, susidūrę su korupcija, pasiskirstymas, procentais

Išvados

Analizuojant gyventojų požiūrio kaitą 2016–2018 m. pastebima, kad gyventojai korupciją vis labiau suvokia neigiamai: su teiginiu, kad „korupcija yra pateisinama, nes žmogui sunku surasti kitus problemų sprendimo būdus“ nesutinkančiųjų dalis padidėjo net 20 procentinių punktų. Gyventojai suvokia korupcijos daromą žalą ir vis mažiau pateisina ją kaip problemų sprendimo priemonę. Per didelį biurokratizmą ir visuomenės aktyvumo stoką gyventojai įvardijo kaip pagrindines korupcijos paplitimo priežastis. Apklaustųjų nuomone, korupcija labiausiai paplitusi medicinos įstaigose, savivaldybės administracijoje ir jos padaliniuose bei žemėtvarkoje.

Lyginant 2016 m. ir 2018 m. tyrimo rezultatus galima teigti, kad 2018 m. respondentai šiek tiek mažiau susidūrė su įvairiomis korupcinės veiklos formomis, bet respondentai dažniau pastebėjo dokumentų ar matavimo priemonių klastojimą, savo artimųjų protegavimą. Analizuojant pokyčius labiausiai korupcijos pažeistose srityse, 2018 m. buvo daug mažiau teigusiujų, kad davė kyšius medicinos darbuotojams, pareigūnams ir valstybės tarnautojams. Lyginant 2016 m. ir 2018 m. duomenis apie Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybės padalinius, įstaigas ar institucijas, kuriems respondantai nurodė davę, beveik visuose atsakymų variantuose stebimas mažėjimas. Tai leidžia teigti, kad matomos ryškios skirtingų korupcijos formų įvairiose srityse mažėjimo tendencijos. Tačiau respondentų komentarai leidžia manyti, kad dalis kyšius duodančių asmenų vis dar suvokia tai kaip „dovanas“ ir „padėkas“, o ne kaip nusikalstamą veiklą. 2016 m. ir 2018 m. tyrimo rezultatų palyginimas atskleidė, kad vis mažiau pasireiškia aplinkybių, kurioms esant respondantai apsisprendžia duoti kyši. Tiriamoje aplinkoje stebimi teigiami pokyčiai: viešųjų paslaugų teikėjai ir kiti gyventojai mažiau daro įtakos kitų apsisprendimui duoti kyši, patys rečiau apsisprendžia tai daryti ir mažiau duoda kyšių. Daugėja asmenų, ateityje apsisprendusiųjų kyšio neduoti.

Apklaustieji mano, kad veiksmingiausia kovos su korupcija priemonė yra bausmės korupcinę veiklą vykdydžiusiems asmenims neišvengiamumas, korupcijos atvejų viešinimas spaudoje, TV ir kitomis priemonėmis. Pastebėtina, kad mažiausiai veiksminga priemone respondantai laiko elektroninės valdžios priemones. Tai leidžia manyti, kad gyventojai nesuvokia viešųjų įstaigų perkėlimo į elektroninę erdvę naudos arba tikisi neteisėto savo klausimų / problemų sprendimo. Daugiausia respondentų pasinaudojo: didinamu sveikatos priežiūros paslaugų prieinamumu (informacija internetinėje svetainėje, el. registracija ir pan.); viešai skelbiama informacija apie nemokamai teikiamas sveikatos priežiūros paslaugas ir kt. Daugiausia respondentų

pastebėjo skelbiamus pranešimus, skatinančius gyventojus pranešti apie korupcinio pobūdžio pažeidimus, informuojant apie galimus pranešimo būdus, taip pat viešai skelbiamą informaciją apie nemokamai teikiamas sveikatos priežiūros paslaugas. Daugiausia respondentų tiksliai ar daugmaž žino apie specialias įstaigas, į kurias galima kreiptis susidūrus su korupcijos atveju. Tačiau apskritai daugiau nei pusė apklaustųjų, susidūrę su korupcijos atveju, niekur ir nieko nepraneštų. Tai rodo, kad gyventojai korupcijos atveju užimtų pasyvią poziciją ir nesiimtų aktyvių veiksmų, nors patys mano, kad baismės neišvengiamumas ir korupcijos atvejų viešinimas yra veiksmingiausios kovos su korupcija priemonės.

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THE CHANGE OF KLAIPĖDA DISTRICT RESIDENTS ATTITUDE AND EXPERIENCE OF FACING CORUPTION IN SHORT TIME PERIOD

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Summary

Corruption is generally defined as the abuse of public power for private gain. National statistical surveys reveal that municipalities of towns and districts are assumed to be some of the mostly corrupted institutions in Lithuania. According to studies data, the corruption in municipalities is affected by nepotism, politicization and conflicts of interest. However, it is appropriate to monitor the corruption situation more precisely in a particular municipality. Therefore, this article presents a continuous research of resident's attitude towards corruption and experience of corruption while living and working in Klaipėda district municipality. The continuous research, which allowed to evaluate the change of residents' perception and experience of corruption, attitude towards applied corruption prevention measures was carried out in Klaipėda District Municipality in 2016 and 2018 years. Klaipėda district residents' questionnaire, using a pre-prepared standardized questionnaire, which was composed referring scientific literature and legal regulation documents analysis and recommendations of Klaipėda District Municipality. 137 respondents participated in 2016 year survey and 147 residents filled in questionnaires in 2018. While analyzing the change in residents' attitude it was noticed that people are percept corruption more negatively: the share of residents who disagree with the statement that "corruption is justified, because it is hard to find other solutions", increased as in 20 percentage points. The population is aware of the harm caused by corruption and less justify corruption as a problem-solving tool. Exaggerated bureaucracy and lack of civil activity are identified as the main causes of prevalence of corruption. According to the opinion of residents the corruption is most prevalent in medical institutions, municipal administration and its departments and land management.

It can be indicated that slightly fewer respondents faced with various forms of corrupt practices in 2018 year if comparing the results of 2016 year and 2018 year surveys. However, respondents more frequently noticed falsification of documents or measuring instruments and protectionism of civil servants relatives (nepotism). The analysis of changes areas where corruption is most prevalent in year 2018 there were much less respondents who said that they have given bribes to medical personnel, officials and civil servants. The decrease of cases of bribe giving in different institutions of Klaipėda district municipality can be indicated while comparing data of surveys implemented in 2016 and 2018. These data suggest that there is significant downward trend of corruption in different forms in different areas. However, respondents' comments suggest that part of the person offering the bribe still perceive it as a "gift" and "gratefulness" and not as a criminal activity. The comparison of the results of surveys implemented in 2016 and 2018 reveals that less evidence the circumstances in which respondents decides to give a bribe. Positive developments can be identified while monitoring municipalities environment: public service providers and other residents less influence others solutions to give bribes, less give bribes. The number of persons, who have the decision not to give bribes in the future is increasing.

The respondents believe that the most effective anti-corruption means is the inevitable punishment of persons for pursued corruption, publicity of corruption acts in the press, on TV and other media. It should be noted that according the respondents opinion the least effective means are tools of electronic government. This suggests that people do not realize the benefit of transfer of public institutions services in the electronic area or expect their illegal dealing with their issues / problems. However, most share of respondents have used such advantages e. government tools: increased access to health care (information on the website, electronic registration and so on); publicly available information about free healthcare and so on. Also, a lot of respon-

dents noticed published reports, which are encouraging residents to report corruption-related offenses as well as information on the possible ways of communication and public information about free healthcare services. According to the survey data, Klaipėda district municipalities' residents exactly know different institutions where they can report the corruption incidents. However, in general, more than half of the respondents in the face of corruption would report nothing and nowhere. Such results identify that residents would be passive and not take any active remedies, although themselves they believe that the most effective anti-corruption means are the inevitability of punishment and publicity of corruption.

KEYWORDS: *corruption, local governance, prevention of corruption, residents' attitude.*

JEL CODIES: D73, H79, K40.

Gauta: 2019-08-25

Priimta: 2019-09-15

Pasirašyta spaudai: 2019-10-01

ONLINE TRANSPORTATION PRICE WAR: INDONESIAN STYLE

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ABSTRACT

Thanks to the brilliant innovation of the expanding online transportation companies, the Indonesian people are able to obtain an affordable means of transportation. This three major ride-sharing companies (*Go-Jek*, *Grab*, and *Uber*) provide services which not only limited to transportation service but also providing services for food delivery, courier service, and even shopping assistance by utilizing gigantic armada of motorbikes and cars which owned by their 'driver partners'. These companies are competing to gain market share by implementing the same strategy which is offering the lowest price. This paper would discuss the Indonesian online transportation price war by using price comparison analysis between three companies. The analysis revealed that *Uber* was the winner of the price war, however, their 'lowest price strategy' would lead to their downfall not only in Indonesia but in all of South East Asia. KEYWORDS: *online transportation companies, price war, Indonesia.*

JEL CODES: D40, O18, O33

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.2000>

Introduction

The idea of ride-hailing was unfamiliar to Indonesian people. Before the inception (and followed by the large adoption) of smartphone applications in Indonesia, the market of transportation service was totally different. The majority of middle to high income Indonesian urban dwellers at that time was using the conventional taxi as their second option of transportation after their personal car or motorbike. Public transportation such as bus or train is, unfortunately not favorable to them due to various reason; thus, public transportation is the main means of transportation for the majority of low income Indonesian urban dwellers. The taxi service in the urban area was monopolized by *Blue Bird* group since they were the safest and the most reliable taxi company at that time (Setiawan, Rahayu, 2017). Due to the previously mentioned reasons, the fare of their service was the highest in Indonesia; nevertheless, the consumer is willing to pay this expensive fare since the image of other taxi companies at that time was strongly negative (rude drivers, numerous robbery, taximeter cheating, etc.). On the other hand, the traffic congestion in the Indonesian large cities has opened up a new niche of transportation service which offers the ability to 'beat' the traffic jam by utilizing motorbike. This transportation service is called *ojek* in the Indonesian language or motorbike taxi in English. *Ojek* is very helpful for people who want to reach a destination in a timely manner especially during the rush hour. *Ojek* operates freely in Indonesia and they do not require particular transportation license or company. Every people could become an *ojek* driver as long as they owned a motorbike; nevertheless, there are no fixed rates for fares due to the fare is subjectively decided by the driver (Marati, 2016).

The unique characteristics of Indonesian urban transportation market have lasted in a very long period of time but, the situation would dramatically change in early 2014 in conjunction with the large adoption of the smartphone by Indonesian people. The once doubted e-hailing service companies have successfully

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gained the trust of Indonesian consumer. Their success is quite surprising since the majority of Indonesian people were slow to adapt with new technological innovation (Pratama, Wibawa, and Kunaifi, 2017) and their presence also significantly change the habit of Indonesian urban dwellers in using transportation service (Anindhita, Arisanty, and Rahmawati, 2016). The transportation market in Indonesia has changed forever a result of this ‘disruptive innovation’. *Blue bird* has lost their monopoly in Indonesia and they must succumb to collaborate with online transportation company to get passengers. They have lost almost half of their market share due to online transportation offers far cheaper price than the taxi. The ‘freelance’ *ojek* driver is now joining online transportation companies due to they offer more stable income and attractive bonus.

Go-Jek is the first e-hailing application which allows the user to order motorbike via their smartphone easily. In the beginning, they started the business by offering *ojek* or motorcycle taxi service and expanding their service to car-hailing as well as other non-transportation services. The initial promotion of *Go-Jek* was very aggressive. They offer numerous trip discount and even free ride. These factors are the main determinant of the initial success of *Go-Jek* (Santoso and Nelloh, 2017; Silalahi, Handayani, and Munajat, 2017). However, *Go-Jek* domination in the online transportation service was momentary. *Grab*, a Malaysian online transportation company was joining ‘the fight’ for the Indonesian market share by providing similar service with the more aggressive discount than *Go-Jek* to attract consumers. *Uber*, the pioneer of online transportation in the world do not want to be left behind by offering even the lower fare; thus, the Indonesian online transportation price war has officially begun. Despite of the fierce competition which exhibited in the field and numerous academic writing which depicted the competition, unfortunately, only few information exists about the pricing strategy they undertake during the ‘price war’ and there is only limited academic research which compare the prices between them due to data limitation.



Figure 1. The Major Indonesian Online Transportation Service Companies

Source: Go-Jek, Grab, and Uber official websites (2018).

Based on the aforementioned premise, this paper would like to address the historical pricing information problem by providing data which could illustrate the severity of the price war. Thus, the purpose of this paper is to understand *Go-Jek*, *Grab*, and *Uber* pricing strategy during the price war and to determine who is the victor of the price war. Even though the e-hailing companies provide various service which not limited to transportation, such as food delivery, shopping assistance, cleaning service, massage service, truck rental, and many more, the paper only discuss the transportation service price war for motorcycle and car-hailing as the object this research due to the impact of online transportation service in Indonesia has revolutionized the behavior of Indonesian people. The main task of this research is conducting price comparison analysis between *Go-Jek*, *Grab*, and *Uber* by using descriptive statistics method based on data which collected both from numerous blogs and websites and interview with the online transportation company.

1. The Inception of Online Transportation Service

As one of emerging economies in the South East Asia region, the consumption of Indonesian people could be considered as very high (Razdan, Das, Sohoni, 2013). This consumptive behavior has made Indonesian people (especially the urban population) follows the recent trend of adopting hi-tech gadget, especially smartphone. The mobile phone has become a compulsory gadget which must be owned by an Indonesian. The mobile phone has long become a symbol of prestige hence, it is common for a person owned the latest model of mobile phone and even owned more than one mobile phone (Heriyati, Siek, 2011). The Indonesian consumer is very sensitive toward the latest trend of mobile phone model which reflected by the high demand of Nokia phone in 2005, Blackberry in the 2010s, as well as Samsung and iPhone in 2014. Due to the latest mobile phone model has used modern Operating System (OS) which transform the traditional function of the mobile phone (to call and to text) into a smartphone, the Indonesian phone users are forced to adapt with the new technology especially in using its application. Eventually, the Indonesian people become 'smarter' and 'tech-savvy' as a result of this diffusion of innovations.

This phenomenon has inspired a local startup to develop an e-hailing application to order a taxi from their mobile phone and *Go-Jek*, the first online transportation startup in Indonesia was born. The initial business model of *Go-Jek* was simple. *Go-Jek* is cooperating with motorbike owners (followed by car owners in the latter years) as a partner to provide transportation service for their user (Soleh, Harini, and Djamaludin, 2018). The company would set the fares and the vehicle owner would obtain a share of money from every payment which made by the customer. They launched the application in a perfect timing when Indonesian people already familiar with smartphone application especially the Android and iOS platform, however, what made the company achieve successful result was the aggressive initial promotion by offering low fare for every destination (Septiani, Handayani, Azzahro, 2017). Besides that, in order to attract new drivers, the company was willing to give high incentive for drivers based on the number of passengers who use their service and the service rating (one star to five stars) which provided by the passenger.

Although they have made a good initial start, only five months after the launching of *Go-Jek* application in Android and iOS in January 2015, the domination of *Go-Jek* in Indonesia was challenged by a new online transportation company from Malaysia named *Grab*. The competition becomes more personal since the owner of *Grab*, Anthony Tan, was the classmate of Nadiem Makarim, the founder of *Go-Jek* in Harvard Business School. Initially, *Grab* only provided taxi-hailing service in Indonesia, nonetheless, they decided to expand their business by providing motorbike hailing service (Suseno, Salim, and Setiadi, 2017). Due to the presence of *Go-Jek* has already strong in Indonesia, the only way to attract the consumer was by offering the lower fare than *Go-Jek* (Elvina, 2016). The competition to dominate the Indonesian motorbike-hailing market has become more intense when *Uber* decided to enter the market in 2016. Once again they utilize the same strategy to attract Indonesian consumer which is giving the lower fare than *Go-Jek* and *Grab*.

In the context of car-hailing service, *Uber* has gained the first mover advantage by offering common and luxury car-hailing service via mobile phone application in 2014, nevertheless they were struggling in gaining recognition from the government due to the government deemed their service was illegal. Despite all the challenges the *Uber* did survive for a while until *Grab* in 2015 decided to challenge them by launching their own car-hailing service called *Grab Car*. In 2016, *Go-Jek* followed their move by launching *Go-Car*, the car-hailing service of *Go-Jek*. *Uber* was the market leader of car-hailing in Indonesia since their fare is already low since the beginning of their operation. *Uber* also has employed a more advanced algorithm to calculate the fare by considering demand, traffic situation, and even weather; hence, *Grab* and *Go-Jek* are struggling to challenge *Uber* based on the fare.

Based on the previous explanation, it can be concluded that the price war did exist since the main strategy of those companies were attracting consumer by offering the lowest price. By offering the lowest price, it means that the companies will spend a large amount of money to cover the operational cost and they could not rely on the operational revenue as primary income since the income from the consumer would be relatively low. Nevertheless, these companies are ready to wage war due to they have their own investors who are wil-

ling to provide financial support. *Go-Jek* has successfully collecting € 977 million fresh funds from Google, Temasek, KKR & Co, Warburg Pincus LLC, as well as Meituan-Dianping and on the other hand, *Grab* is backed by € 2.1 billion investment from Didi Chuxing, SoftBank, Toyota, and Hyundai (Agung, 2017). *Uber* as the largest car-hailing operator in the world is also willing to financially support the operation in Indonesia by using their budget from the U.S.

2. Indonesian Online Transportation Price War

Rekettey and Liu (2018) posit that in the first and second decade of 21st century has brought new global and technological changes and one of the trends in this decade is the ability of customers to compare prices and the ability of sellers to implement more sophisticated pricing techniques. Setting prices is not an easy task due to selecting final price requires an accurate information of demand, pricing objective, probability of quantities which will be sold at each possible price, as well as competitor's prices, offers, and cost in order to estimate how the costs vary at different levels of output, production experience, and marketing offers (Stefko, Gburová, Jurková, 2011). Pricing approaches across industries, countries, and companies usually use one of the three main price setting approaches namely cost-based pricing, competition-based pricing, or consumer value-based pricing (Hinterhuber, Liozu, 2012). Cost-based pricing is a pricing approach on which the pricing decision is influenced by the incurred cost, with the main objective of obtaining the return on investment or markup on cost. On the other hand, competition-based pricing approach relies on the price levels of competitors as a primary source to determine appropriate price level. Lastly, customer-value based pricing uses data on how the consumer perceives the value of the product to determine the final price. In the context of online transportation service in Indonesia, the pricing approach which is used by all of the companies are competition-based pricing by setting the fare at the lowest possible price compare to their competitors (Panjaitan, 2016; Setiawan, Rahayu, 2017) as a result of the competition-based pricing, the online transportation price war is inevitable.

Heil and Helsen (2001) have defined price war as a unique phenomenon of market competition which could be identified from five conditions which are; the actions and reactions are involving competitor rather than customer, pricing interaction is undesirable for competitors, no competitors deliberately begin the war, the pricing behavior has disrupted industry norms, the pricing interaction occurs faster, and the pricing direction is downward (although it is not sustainable). The definition has perfectly captured the phenomenon of Indonesian online transportation price war. The initial intention of *Go-Jek*, as the first ride-hailing in Indonesia to attract customers by promoting low fares, was challenged by *Grab* by offering lower fare than *Go-Jek* and the situation was getting worst when *Uber* joining the war. Table 1 and Table 2 depict the fares comparison of the three companies to illustrate their pricing strategy both for motorbike and car-hailing service which is based on author extensive analysis of numerous blogs and websites which discuss online transportation service fares as well as interviews with *Go-Jek*, *Grab*, and *Uber* employees.

As depicted in Table 1, each company are using different 'pricing ingredients' to set the final fare which needs to be paid by the customer and it can be seen that their price structures are evolving from time to time. The first 'battle' occur on April 1st, 2016. *Grab* and *Uber* launched their attack on *Go-Jek* by setting minimum fare lower than *Go-Jek* while setting the flat price for the trip. Nevertheless, both *Grab* and *Uber* has their own unique approach to gain 'extra revenue' even though their basic fare were lower than *Go-Jek* and their trip fare was flat. *Grab* becomes the first company who introduces rush hour fare. The rush hour fare will be higher than the 'normal hour' fare but only applicable in certain time range when the traffic congestion tends to occur. On the other hand, *Uber* had made a bold move by setting the lowest price compares to *Grab* and *Go-Jek*, however, they had included a hidden fare which called fare per minute. This fare will be added at the end of the trip by multiplying the trip duration with the basic fare. Based on the aforementioned explanations, it can be concluded that *Go-Jek* had lost in the initial 'price battle'.

The situation had changed by January 1st, 2017. *Go-Jek* strikes back by setting the minimum fare to zero while changing the distance fare structure and lowering it down as well. Besides that, they have openly adopted *Grab*'s rush hour fares strategy to gain additional income but they arrange the fare structure differently by imposing diffe-

Table 1. Fares Comparison Between Three major Indonesian Online Transportation Companies for Motorbike Hailing Service

No.	Date	Go-Ride by Gojek	Grab-Bike by Grab	Uber-Motor by Uber
1.	1 April 2016	Minimum Fare: € 0.73	Minimum Fare: € 0.61	Minimum Fare: € 0.061
		Fare 0 to 10 km: € 0.73/km	Fare / km (flat): € 0.092	Fare / km (flat): € 0.061
		Fare 10 to 15 km: € 0.91/km		Fare / minute: € 0.0061
		Fare > 15 km: € 0.12/km	Rush Hours Fares: None	Rush Hours Fares: None
		Rush Hours Fares: Morning: 06.00–09.00 Evening: 16.00–19.00 Additional fare of € 0.31 would be added for each trip		
2.	1 January 2017	Minimum Fare: € 0	Minimum Fare: € 0.30	Minimum Fare: € 0.30
		Fare 0 to 2.7 km: € 0.24/km	Fare 0 to 12 km: € 0.091/km	Fare 0 to 12 km: € 0.076/km
		Fare > 2.7 km: € 0.091/km	Fare > 12 km: € 0.15/km	Fare > 12 km: € 0.12/km
		Rush Hours Fares Morning: 06.00–09.00 Evening: 16.00–19.00 Fare 0 to 4 km: € 0.49/km Fare > 4 km: € 0.15/km	Rush Hours Fares Morning: 05.00–09.00 Evening: 16.00–20.00 Additional fare of € 0.15 would be added for each trip	Rush Hours Fares <i>Uber</i> has their own calculation algorithm to measure the availability of motorbikes in the area and its demand
3.	1 September 2017	Minimum Fare: € 0.37	Minimum Fare: € 0	Minimum Fare: € 0.061
		Fare 0 to 12 km: € 0.15/km	Fare 0 to 12 km: € 0.11/km	Fare 0 to 12 km: € 0.076/km
		Fare > 12 km: € 0.18/km	Fare > 12 km: € 0.18/km	Fare > 12 km: € 0.12/km
		Rush Hours Fares Morning: 06.00–09.00 Evening: 16.00–19.00 Additional fare of € 0.61 would be added	Rush Hours Fares Morning: 06.00–09.00 Evening: 16.00–19.00 Additional fare of € 0.15 would be added for each trip	Rush Hours Fares <i>Uber</i> has their own calculation algorithm to measure the availability of motorbikes in the area and its demand
		Cancellation fee: None	Cancellation fee: None	Cancellation fee: € 0.30

Source: Author observation from numerous blogs and websites and interview with the company's employees (2018).

rent fares for a trip from 0 to 4 km and more than 4 km with relatively higher fare compares to *Grab*. On the other hand, *Grab* and *Uber* had exhausted and decided not to impose flat rate anymore. They changed the flat rate mechanism into distance based fares (0 to 12 km and more than 12 km), however, *Uber* made a bold move again by setting their price as the lowest and erased the fare per minute from their price structure. Nevertheless, they developed a 'rush hour algorithm' to measure the availability of motorbikes in the area and its demand then transformed it into multiplier number which would be multiplied by the original fare at the end of the trip.

On September 1st, 2017, *Grab* decided to lower down their fares significantly by setting their minimum fare to zero, however, they increased the distance based fares both for 0 to 12 km and more than 12 km. On the other hand *Go-Jek* decided to 'play safe' by increasing their minimum fare but restructured their distance fare to 0 to 12 km and more than 12 km as well. Surprisingly, *Uber* once again decided to lower their minimum fare while maintaining the already very cheap trip fare, nevertheless, they introduced innovative additional cost which inspired from their car-hailing service which is the cancellation fee. The cancellation fee would be imposed to the consumer which cancel their order and would be added to the total fare in the next trip. The fare structure of the three companies would last until 2018 and no major changes take place for motorbike hailing service fare.

Based on the previously mentioned data, it can be concluded that *Uber* is the victor for motorbike-hailing service price war by charging the least fare to their customer. Even though they were the last company which

enters the motorbike-hailing segment, they are willing to cut their fare significantly to obtain larger market share and attract more customer.

The pricing strategy of car-hailing service is quite different to their motorbike counterpart since *Uber* car had gained the first mover advantage in Indonesia. The illustration of the price war is depicted in Table 2.

Table 2. Fares Comparison Between Three major Indonesian Online Transportation Companies for Car Hailing Service

No.	Date	<i>Go-Car by Go-jek</i>	<i>Grab-Car by Grab</i>	<i>Uber-X by Uber</i>
1	1 April 2016	Minimum Fare: € 0.60	Minimum Fare: € 0.60	Minimum Fare: € 0.18
		Fare / km (flat): € 0.21	Fare / km (flat): € 0.24	Fare / km (flat): € 0.12
		Cancellation fee: None	Cancellation fee: None	Cancellation fee: € 1.81
		Waiting fee: None	Waiting fee: None	Waiting fee: € 0.018 / minute
		Rush Hours Fares Calculation method is confidential	Rush Hours Fares Morning: 06.00–09.00 Evening: 16.00–19.00 <i>Grab</i> will use algorithm to calculate price based on traffic condition in the rush hours	Rush Hours Fares <i>Uber</i> will use algorithm to calculate price based on traffic condition in the rush hours
2	1 July 2017	Minimum Fare: € 0.60	Minimum Fare: € 0.60	Minimum Fare: € 0.60
		Fare 0–2.85 km: € 0.61 Fare > 2.85 km: € 0.21	Fare / km (flat): € 0.24	Fare / km (flat): € 0.12
		Cancellation fee: None	Cancellation fee: None	Cancellation fee: € 1.81
		Waiting fee: None	Waiting fee: None	Waiting fee: € 0.018 / minute
		Rush Hours Fares Morning: 06.00–09.00 Evening: 16.00–19.00 Minimum Fare: € 0.61 Fare 0–2.35 km: € 0.61 Fare > 2.35 km: € 0.26	Rush Hours Fares Morning: 06.00–09.00 Evening: 16.00–19.00 <i>Grab</i> will use algorithm to calculate price based on traffic condition in the rush hours	Rush Hours Fares <i>Uber</i> will use algorithm to calculate price based on traffic condition in the rush hours

Source: Author observation from numerous blogs and websites and interview with the company's employees (2018).

As can be seen from Table 2, the price war in the car-hailing service was not as intense as their motorbike counterpart due to it is almost impossible to cut the fare lower than *Uber*. Both *Go-Jek* and *Grab* are focusing their business on motorbike hailing and they were late in entering the car-hailing segment. *Uber* has entered the segment earlier and they had set the price very low since the beginning of their operation in Indonesia which made the Indonesian customers were preferring *Uber* as their main car-hailing service (Natyari, Pradana, 2016). *Go-Jek* and *Grab* were not able to challenge *Uber* fare, but they required to enter the car-hailing segment as an effort to tackle *Uber* effort in monopolizing car-hailing service in Indonesia. Hence, it can be concluded *Go-Jek* and *Grab* have lost the war since the beginning and *Uber* once again dominate the car-hailing service by providing the lowest fare to the consumer.

3. The Irony of Uber In Indonesia: The Dying Victor

The price war, in turn, has a detrimental effect toward the company since it drained the company's resources and at the end of the day the government needs to be intervened to set the minimum fare for ride-sharing companies. The price war also has drained the resources of *Uber* Indonesia, a branch of the most powerful ride-sharing companies in the world. Even though the orders for *Uber-Motor* and *Uber X* has significantly increased (Fajrina, 2016), on April 9th, 2018 *Uber* Indonesia released a shocking news in which they decided to cease their operation in South East Asia. *Uber* South East Asia business has officially acquired by *Grab*. The decision was taken as a follow up of the request from their major investor Softbank Group Japan to focus on the U.S, Europe, Latin America, and Australia

market while leaving other markets which deemed unprofitable including South East Asia (Meyer, 2018). South East Asia market is actually lucrative and *Uber* had become the market leader for car-hailing service. Nevertheless, their willingness to cut the fare aggressively as well as providing rich subsidies to drivers has drained their fund significantly. They may win the price war but they are not getting anything in return and eventually, all of their business in South East Asia is sold to their competitor which is *Grab*.

Uber was the pioneer of ride-hailing online service in the region which offer the most innovative features in their application. *Uber* was the first company who develop ‘rush hour algorithm’, chat feature with the driver, and route tracking. Currently, both *Go-Jek* and *Grab* are copying all the innovative features which pioneered by *Uber* in their own applications. *Go-Jek* and *Grab* user now are able to chat with the driver, track their trip, and both companies now are using their own ‘rush hour algorithm’.

Uber has, ironically, become the victor and also the victim of the price war. The aggressive fare cutting policy has successfully captured larger market share and attract the consumer to use their service frequently, however, their revenue was very low. Hence, there are three important lessons which could be learned from *Uber* case;

1. There is no true victor in a price war, in fact, the price war is causing a detrimental effect on the belligerent parties. In the short-run, the war may lead to profit erosion but in the long run, it could cause the firm bankruptcy as a result of a long-term accumulation of profit erosion (Heil, Helsen, 2001).
2. Becoming the market leader by sacrificing the revenue is a ridiculous move. It is generally believed that becoming market leader is one of the essential goals of a firm, nevertheless, they must expect a reasonable return or even larger return when they become the market leader. It is essential to juxtaposing market leading strategy, price setting strategy, and revenue projection in order to obtain an optimum return for the firm.
3. Price cutting strategy is effective in attracting Indonesian consumer, however, a careful price setting planning needs to be conducted to avoid underpricing since price transparency is very obvious in the context of online transportation service.

4. The Future of Online Transportation in Indonesia: the End of the War

Since *Grab* has acquired *Uber* operation in Indonesia, there are only two online transportation companies which left in Indonesia which are *Go-Jek* and *Grab*. Both *Grab* and *Go-Jek* has not changed their fare since September 1st, 2017 and it seems they are now are ‘taking a break’ and consolidating their next strategy after the exhaustive price war. *Grab* now is in the better position than *Go-Jek* since they inherit the operation of *Uber* in Indonesia. The *Grab* fleet is becoming larger than before and they have a larger amount of fund to be spent on their business expansion. Nevertheless, both *Go-Jek* and *Grab* are not considering cutting fares as their main strategy in expanding their business.

The previous price war has made the Indonesian government intervene as a result of violent protests from taxi operators in Indonesia which demand equal fares between conventional and online taxi as well as the protest from the drivers of the online transportation companies which significantly lost their revenue due to the fare cutting policy. The Indonesian Ministry of Transportation has published new regulations which regulate the basic fare for every online transportation service in Indonesia. The minimum fare for car-hailing service would be € 0.60 and the companies must obey a series of administrative requirements from the Ministry of Transportation. Besides that, in the near future, there will be a new regulation which regulates the motorbike-hailing services in Indonesia.

The government intervention is essential to end the price war; thus, waging other price war would not be possible since it would openly challenge the government who has the capability to shut down their operation entirely. It may seem that the price war has already ended in Indonesia, nevertheless, the competition between *Go-Jek* and *Grab* has just begun. The future competition between *Go-Jek* and *Grab* would be focused on expanding their services to other cities in Indonesia as well as providing customer-focused services such as increasing the usage of the company’s e-money for paying their services to make customer pay easily, providing reward point to customer as token of appreciation for their loyalty, encourage the driver to be more friendly toward customer, etc. Hence, it can be concluded that the competition between *Go-Jek* and *Grab* still exist, however, the recent competition is focusing on enlarging service coverage and providing value driven

service to the customer. In order to survive, *Go-Jek* must consider an effective strategy to counter *Grab* moves since they are now facing a larger enemy with larger financial support.

Conclusion

The price war is an option which needs to be avoided when competing in the market. The effect of a price war is very costly for the competing parties. Even though price cutting may increasing orders and attracts new customers, the long-term effect of this strategy is detrimental due to their profit would significantly be eroded in the long run. The victor of the Indonesian online transportation service price war, *Uber*, had lost a significant amount of money to fund the war. They were the pioneer of innovative ride-hailing application feature and their low fares had attracted customers to use their services. However, the revenue they had gained from customers are lower than the money they had invested to cover the operational costs, therefore, a proper calculation to set price is essential before deciding the final price of a product or service. The acquisition of *Uber* by *Grab* in South East Asia has forced *Go-Jek* to arrange a new strategy to counter *Grab* strategic moves. Finally, future competition between *Go-Jek* and *Grab* would be focused on enlarging service coverage and providing value driven service to the customer as a result of government intervention to end the price war between online transportation companies.

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INTERNETINIŲ TRANSPORTO ĮMONIŲ KAINŲ „KARAS“ – INDONEZIJOS ATVEJIS

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Santrauka

Pasaulinio lygio paslaugų srities naujovės neaplenkė ir Indonezijos. Šios šalies gyventojai gali naudotis internetinėmis paslaugomis užsisakydami transporto priemones. Ttrys pagrindinės transportavimo organizavimo bendrovės („Go-Jek“, „Grab“ ir „Uber“) ne tik teikia gabenimo, bet ir maisto pristatymo paslaugas, turi kurjerių tarnybas, padeda parduotuvėms, naudodamosi motociklais ir automobiliais, kurie priklauso organizacijoms ar jų „partneriams“, t. y. eiliniams žmonėms, kurie „nuomoja“ savo transporto priemones arba teikia vežimo paslaugas. Šios bendrovės konkuruoja tarpusavyje, siekdamos užimti rinkos dalį, įgyvendindamos mažiausios kainos strategiją.

Straipsnyje aptariamas Indonezijos transporto kainų „karas“ internete, taikant trijų bendrovių kainų palyginamąją analizę. „Uber“ – žinomiausias internetinių paslaugų pradininkas regione. Ši įmonė pirmoji sukūrė „piko valandos algoritmą“, pasiūlė pokalbio su vairuotoju ir maršruto stebėjimo funkcijas. Šiuo metu tiek „Go-Jek“, tiek „Grab“ kopijuoja visas novatoriškas idėjas, kurias pradėjo diegti „Uber“. „Go-Jek“ ir „Grab“ vartotojai dabar gali kalbėtis su vairuotoju, stebėti užsakytų prekių kelionę internete, abi bendrovės šiuo metu taiko „piko valandos algoritmą“. Mažiausių kainų strategija, siekiant pritraukti klientus, konkurencingoje rinkoje dažniausia taikoma. Kainų „karas“ konkuruojančioms šalims labai brangiai kainuoja. Nors sumažinus kainas galima pritraukti naujų klientų, ilgalaikis strateginis poveikis yra neigiamas, nes pelnas ilgai gerokai mažėja. Šiame kainų „kare“ laimėjusi „Uber“ įmonė džiaugiasi, bet reikia pripažinti, kad ji prarado nemažai pinigų tą kainų „karą“ finansuodama.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *internetinių vežimų bendrovės, kainų „karas“, Indonezija.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: D40, O18, O33.

Received: 2019-09-02

Revised: 2019-09-20

Accepted: 2019-10-01

DEMOGRAPHIC AND SOCIAL CHANGES IN SUBURBS OF KLAIPĖDA IN 2010–2017

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ABSTRACT

Klaipėda is the third largest city in Lithuania, but its population is decreasing, while its suburbs are expanding and growing. This study reveals population migration to Klaipėda suburbs at the level of the smallest administrative unit – elderships. This helps with sufficient precision to identify not only the most attractive suburban residential areas, but also to determine the social-demographic problems faced by the local population. Due to uneven population change and structure, there is already a shortage of educational institutions and educators in some elderships. In the remote elderships from Klaipėda city, the population is rapidly aging, the unemployment rate is relatively higher than in other elderships, and the connection with the Klaipėda city by public transport is insufficient. Proposals for administrations of elderships and district municipalities are formulated taking into account the trends of population change. Comparative analysis, cartographic analysis, document analysis, expert interview method and others were applied in this study.

KEYWORDS: *suburbs, eldership, Klaipėda, demographic and social changes.*

JEL CODES: R12, R23, R28.

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.2001>

Introduction

According to the data of Statistics Lithuania, during the period of 2010–2018 the population of Lithuania decreased by 883 thousand or even by 24%. Demographic situation in Lithuania is getting worse: the birth rate is declining, the aging process is accelerating, and some young people of working age are emigrating. Population changes are noticeable in all municipalities of Lithuania, but the rate of decrease is greater in urban than in rural areas. Only Vilnius city population is growing intensively. Part of the population is “discovering” areas outside cities that are in many ways more attractive to life. The inhabitants of these territories work in the city and use the city infrastructure.

Klaipėda plays an increasingly important role of the metropolitan centre in the western part of Lithuania, but the area of noticeable influence is not large. It is likely that the influence is limited to commuting area (Shor, 2017: 51). Klaipėda is the third largest city in Lithuania, but its population is decreasing, while its suburbs are expanding and growing. Rising economic levels give people financial stability. Residents have the opportunity to choose their desired place of residence that meets their expectations and financial opportunities. For suburban

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residents, the city remains one of the main sources of attraction, with workplaces, social, medical and other service centres. Daily travel between suburban and city generates traffic flows, congestion and air pollution. As suburbs expand, the level of automation naturally increases. Own car remains the most popular mode of transport as public transport is not yet able to meet the daily mobility of the population. Thus, the inhabitants of the expanding suburban area live in a quiet, clean environment and enjoy the city infrastructure every day.

The object of the research – Klaipėda suburbs.

The purpose of the research is to investigate demographic and social changes in Klaipėda suburbs and their territorial specificity in 2010–2017.

In order to achieve this aim the following tasks were formulated:

1. To investigate the population change of Klaipėda suburbs in 2010–2017 and its causes.
2. To analyse territorial manifestation of social problems in Klaipėda suburbs 2010–2017.
3. To make proposals to the district municipal administration to reduce demographic and social problems in the suburbs of Klaipėda.

This study reveals population migration to suburbs at the level of the smallest administrative units (elderships). This helps with sufficient precision to identify not only the most attractive suburban residential areas, but also to determine the social-demographic problems faced by the local population.

Methods. Various *statistics* reflecting population change and individual factors of this change are used. Lack of data is the biggest and most critical issue in this study. The collection of internal migration data by elderships or individual settlements is particularly difficult. At this stage, statistical data have been processed, aggregated, grouped and calculated changes in 2010–2017. Using the method of *comparative analysis*, the elderships were compared with each other, as well as the indicators of Klaipėda city and Lithuania. The *documents* of the selected elderships and municipalities were analysed: their activity regulations, strategic plans and annual reports of municipalities, social service plans of districts, the Integrated Territorial Development Program of the city, etc. *Cartographic analysis* is also required - maps were created using the ArcGIS (Geographic Information System) database. In this case the subdivision layer (*seniunijos.shp*) was used. This method is chosen as a way to visualize the size of the territory and analysed phenomena. Using the *expert interview method*, the administrative leaders of 13 elderships were interviewed. There was also communication and gathering of information from other specialists (experts): the staff of the civil registration and archives departments, the directors of the health bureau, the vice-mayor of Klaipėda district, specialists of the Employment Service and so on.

The elderships, located 25 km from Klaipėda city centre, were selected for the study. This is the distance where commuting is most intense. However, several more remote (more than 25 kilometres from the city of Klaipėda) elderships also are included in order to compare the social demographic differences. The study was carried out in 13 elderships of Klaipėda and Kretinga district municipalities.

1. Theoretical overview

The “moving” between the city and its periphery has always taken place. Rural migration has changed cities, and they have been growing. Thus, as the population of cities increases, the process of urbanization takes place. Urbanization is the growth of cities and their population; the spread of urban lifestyles to nearby and increasingly remote areas; the increasing role of cities in public life; the prevalence of diversity of settlement forms (McGranahan at al., 2014; Juškevičius, 2003). Production and work activities are the principal drivers of urban development and growth (Robinson, 2016: 22).

Population change is driven by two interrelated elements – natural change and net migration (Ubarevičienė, 2016). In many countries, on the one hand, it is a positive social change, the result of early death control. The relationship between young and old populations makes it necessary to revise and adapt existing societal resources to the new needs of the economy (access to the labour market, income level), politics (power in political and public organizations), social security, health development, human ecology (housing needs, environment, settlement infrastructure, communication, etc.) and others (Kaminskienė, 2006). Cities in Central and Eastern

Europe in particular are facing this demographic, as well as urban, problem of aging. One of the major challenges for future development is the consequences of demographic change (Steinfuhrer et al., 2016).

At the beginning of the 21st century, more than half of the world's population lives in cities, while in Europe, more than 70% of the population lives in cities (Kabisch et al., 2009; Nabielek et al., 2016). At the Habitat II Conference in Istanbul in 1996, it was stated that the problems of settlements did not diminish, that they remained the same and that new ones emerged as a result of the development of the urbanization process and the globalization of economic and other activities (Juškevičius, 2003).

Urbanization in Lithuania was most rapid in 1960–1990, when the model of sustainable and controlled urbanization was implemented: five relatively weak regional centres were rapidly developing, which had to close the gap with the five traditional metropolitan areas of the country (Juškevičius, 2013). During this period there was an internal migration of rural population to cities (Aleknavičius, 2007). Despite the general population decline in Lithuania since 1990, the concentration of population has increased around major cities. After Lithuania's accession to the EU in 2004, the population of cities (on average 30,6 thousand) and of rural areas (16,8 thousand) decreased every year (Statistics Lithuania).

In the mid-twentieth century, advances in communication made it possible for residents to move away from the city; this is how the suburbs begin to grow. Their activities are integrated with urban activities (Cirtautas, 2010). Gradually, suburbanization processes begin to take shape. This is the third phase of urbanization that continues to this day. Two processes determine this – population mortality, which exceeds the birth rate, and active population external emigration (Pocius et al., 2016).

The “suburb” term is described in the Cambridge dictionary as “an area on the edge of a large town or city where people work in the town or city often live” (Cambridge dictionary 2018). In other words, it is a residential area near the city. A suburb is even more precisely defined as a suburban area, an area that is close to the city, without strict and formal boundaries, and whose main feature is the close and significant relationship with the central city (Cirtautas, 2010). This zone is intensively developing. In suburban areas, which are located a short distance from cities, the process of rural urbanization is developing, so that the village is urbanized. The main feature of this process is commuting to the city in daily affairs (work, study, shopping, etc.) (Juškevičius, 2013; 2015; Kaminskienė, 2009; Pocius, 2016; Wittwer et al., 2016).

Not only the suburbs of major cities in Lithuania are expanding, similar trends are also occurring in Europe (Nabielek et al., 2016; Fertner et al., 2015; Ubarevičienė, 2016; Cirtautas, 2014; Burdack et al., 2007).

The process of developing suburban areas is viewed more negatively than positively because of expensive infrastructure, streets, roads, bridges, stops, gas stations, etc. Residents move to areas without adequate infrastructure, people's mobility becomes limited, they lose time and money, they are more likely to face stressful situations, and more pollution is generated (Galiniene, 2013; Lazauskaitė et al., 2015; Chakrabarty, 2001).

Thus, suburbs are perceived differently. They can be perceived both as luxury areas (rich areas) and as poor areas. Suburban neighbourhoods populated by certain racial or ethnic groups are emerging in the world. Ethnic or racial groups in public life separate and form residential areas (Lichter et al., 2009). In the process of segregation, people feel much marginalized (Boschman et al., 2014).

The suburbs of major cities in Lithuania are in the limelight of research of geographers, urbanists, sociologists and other researchers (Vaitekūnas, 2004; Burneika et al., 2015; Dijokienė, 2006; Gedutis, 2013; Lazauskaitė et al., 2015; Mačiukėnaitė, 2012; Pocius et al., 2016; Stanaitis et al., 2010; Ubareviciene, 2016). All these metropolitan settlements are administratively part of municipalities. The suburbs feel the economic and functional influence of adjacent cities because they are 5–15 km from them (Cirtautas, 2014). Thus, the geographical location closer to the city determines population growth and thus the multifunctionality of the settlement (Kriaučiūnas et al., 2014). Unfortunately, there is still a great lack of territorial surveys at the level of smaller administrative units – elderships. Therefore, this research reveals the demographic and social problems that characterize the suburbs of Klaipėda.

2. Demographic processes in the suburbs of Klaipėda

According to the Lithuanian Department of Statistics (2018), the population of Klaipėda district is increasing, mainly due to internal migration, when the population of Klaipėda city moves to the suburbs. Thus, the population of Klaipėda city is decreasing and suburban settlements are growing.

Over a period of seventeen years, trends in population growth / decline can be observed. The overall change in population of Klaipėda suburbs (2010/2017) is positive (by 7% growth). The fastest growth (in terms of population) was in Dovyčiai (7%), Dauparai-Kvietiniai (28%) and Sendvaris (46%) elderships (Fig. 1).

Surveyed elderships are grouped into several groups according to population change: fast increase, medium increase, medium decrease and fast decrease. As an example, we can analyse one of the elderships – Dovyčiai, where the population was growing. In the three settlements (Lyveriai, Rimkai and Švėpeliai) the population increased by 61–75%. Thus, when analysing sparsely populated settlements, the emergence of any new quarter leads to rapid population growth. Settlements especially grow if allotments (communities of private landowners) are located in them. However, during the 17-year period, the population of eleven settlements in this eldership decreased, and three of them (Kalviai, Gedminai and Jurgiai) lost one third or more of their population.

The village of Gobergiškė (Dauparai-Kvietiniai eldership) is exceptional. Between 2011 and 2018, this village grew from 232 to 866 inhabitants. However, 618 working immigrants registered in Gobergiškė in 2017, most of whom came from Ukraine, were also Belarussians, Kazakhs, and Romanians, who works in logistics company LLC “Vlantana” (registered place Gobergiškė village). Thus, according to statistics, the population of Gobergiškė village grew by 73%. Many migrant workers live in the motel of company, and the rest – in the other side of the highway in the village Dauparai. As the majority of arrivals in the Dauparai-Kvietiniai eldership are men, their number is statistically higher than that of women. In 2017 the number of men was higher than women even 28%.

Sendvaris eldership is the fastest growing (by population) eldership. The change in population during this period was as much as 46%. In the 7 most populous settlements, the population increased by 50–68%. Private quarters are being formed in growing settlements. The eldership is home to young and middle-aged residents as well as young families. This eldership near Klaipėda city is also distinguished by the fact that there were no diminishing settlements in it for seventeen years. Sendvaris eldership is the most densely populated (114,6 inhabitants / km²), while the national average in 2017 was 43,3 inhabitants/ km². The average population density is higher in four other elderships closest to Klaipėda city. The most remote elderships have the lowest population density.

Although the number of women in the suburbs is higher by 1.36% than that of men, in 2010–2017 the growth of men was faster (11%) than that of women (10%). The actual number of men and women may differ, as some residents have not declared their place of residence in the area. In order to get a place for a child in kindergarten, one parent often registers in the city of Klaipėda and the other – in their real place of residence. Predicting 5 years in advance, the number of men growth is expected to continue.

Suburbs are inhabited by younger people (25–44 years) comparing with Lithuania and Klaipėda city (Fig. 2). The largest share of the population in Lithuania and Klaipėda city is 45–64 year olds, as well as a larger share of the population over 85 years old than in the suburbs. The suburbs of Klaipėda demographically are young compared to the general indicators of the country and Klaipėda city.

Population analysis by age group is important because it allows for an assessment of the current demographic and social situation of the population. Knowing future trends can prepare you for future challenges. For example, some elderships are now facing shortages of educational institutions due to a sudden increase in the number of children (up to 6 years). Rapidly growing elderships (Dovyčiai, Dauparai-Kvietiniai, Sendvaris) can be identified as demographically young. They have the largest share of the population aged 25–44. Sendvaris eldership is particularly young, as the share of children under 16 reaches 19%, while in Klaipėda city – 17.5%. The proportion of residents aged 65 and over is not high, especially in Sendvaris (only 9%).

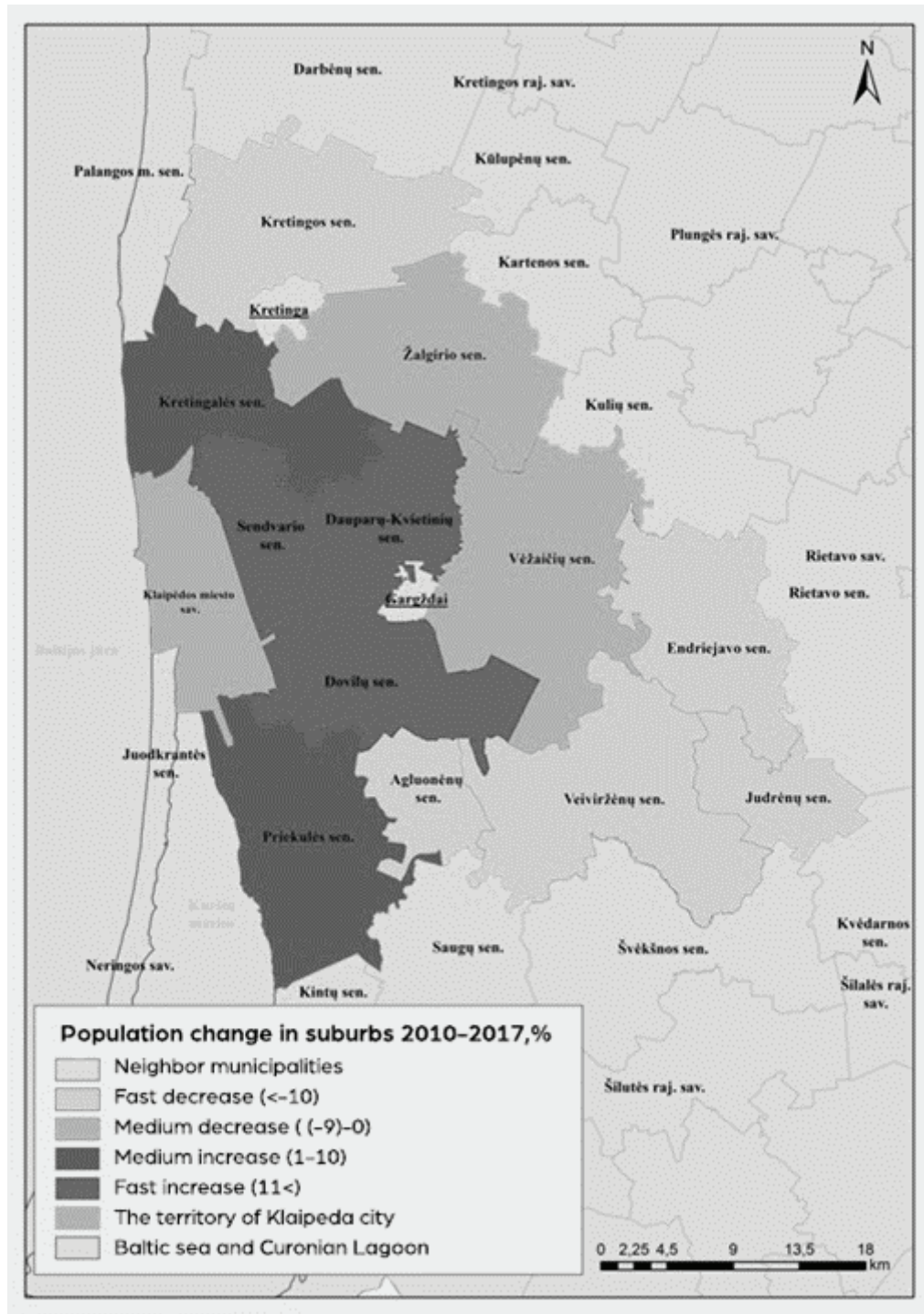


Figure 1. Population change in Klaipėda suburbs in 2010–2017, %

Source: Data of elderships, 2018.

Meanwhile, in many Lithuanian elderships birth rates are balancing at a threshold that does not ensure generational change. 29.6 thousand babies were born in Lithuania in 2017. As the number of people replacing the aging working population is too low, the natural population change in the country is negative.

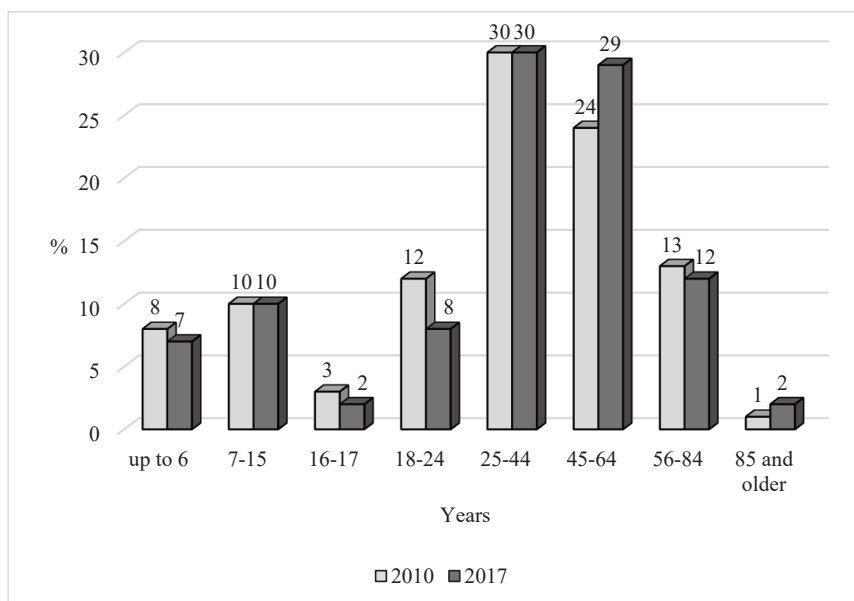


Figure 2. Percentage of population of the elderships surveyed by age groups in 2010 and 2017, %

Source: Eldership information, 2018.

In 2017, 597 children were born and 577 people died in the Klaipėda district, thus the natural population change was positive (22). Meanwhile, the natural population change in Klaipėda city was negative (–323). However, in elderships distant from the Klaipėda city, natural population change is not as favourable. For example, distant elderships (Agluonėnai and Judrėnai), by their standardized mortality rate, are close to the maximum values in EU countries (Fig. 3). In EU countries, the highest standardized mortality rates in 2016 were in Bulgaria (1601), Latvia (1476) and Lithuania – 1454 (Causes of death statistics, 2018).

In the elderships closer to Klaipėda, the average standardized mortality rate is lower than in Lithuania. Major causes of mortality in Klaipėda suburbs are: diseases of circulatory system, malignant neoplasms and external causes of death (Klaipėdos rajono savivaldybės visuomenės..., 2018).

Thus, as the suburbs expand, the number of young families in them is increasing. As a result, the birth rate and the number of children (up to 7 years) is also increasing, and the proportion of the population 65 and older is low, so the natural population change is positive and should remain similar in the future.

Emigration is the main cause of permanent population decline. 699127 people emigrated from Lithuania in 2001–2017 (Demografijos metraštis, 2018). As a result of emigration, the population is aging and the social problems associated with emigration are increasing.

The main reason for emigration is economic motives, i.e. y. relatively low wages, high unemployment, poor economic situation in Lithuania. Many emigrants want to have a better economic and social living conditions. Thus, as the population shrinks, there is a risk of a brain drain. However, it is difficult to accurately estimate the number of people who have emigrated from the elderships, as more than half of all emigrants do not declare their departure. The biggest leap in declared emigration was in 2010, when the Law on Health Insurance of the Republic of Lithuania established obligations for permanent residents to pay compulsory health insurance contributions.

Immigration values per 1000 inhabitants in suburban elderships ranged from 33 to 243.

The most attractive are the elderships located near the Klaipėda city, where the share of arrivals exceeds 200 people per 1000 inhabitants. Relatively few people leave these elderships. Meanwhile, the districts farther from Klaipėda city are less attractive and lose more inhabitants (Fig. 4).

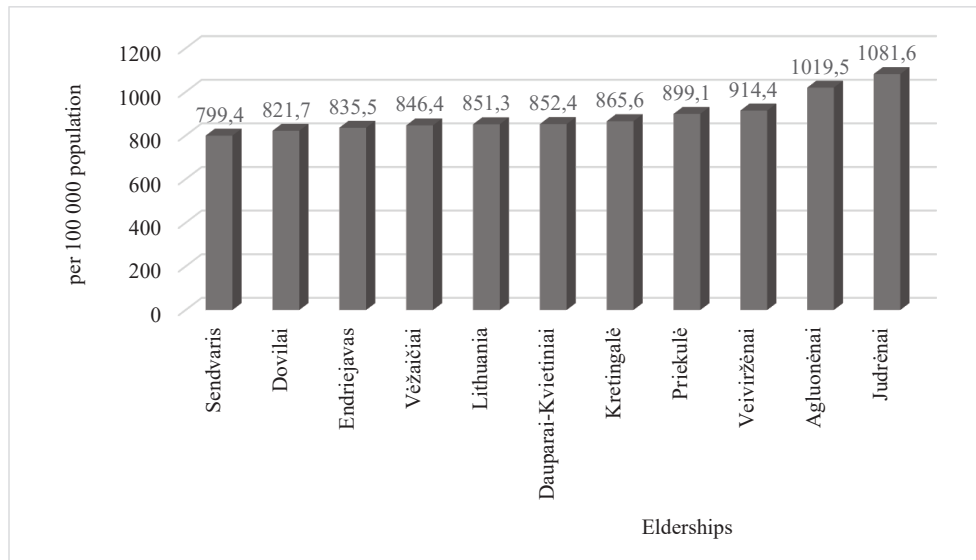


Figure 3. Average standardized mortality rate in elderships in 2010–2014, per 100 000 population

Source: SveNAS – Sveikatos netolygumų atvaizdavimo Sistema, 2017.

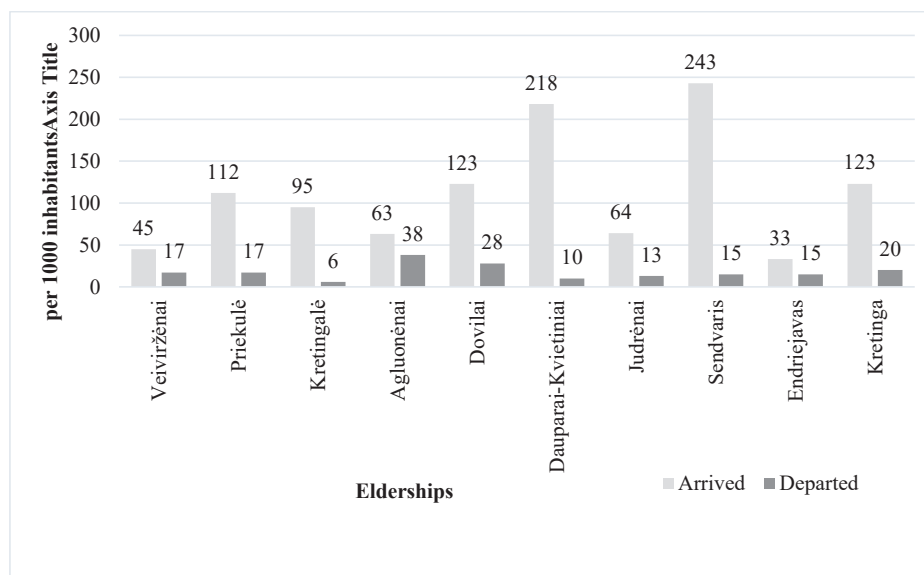


Figure 4. International migration of residents of Klaipėda suburbs by elderships in 2017, per 1000 inhabitants

Source: Eldership statistics, 2018.

Thus, international migration is a very important demographic factor shaping the age structure of the population. Usually young people migrate most intensively, thus accelerating the aging of the population.

3. Social changes in Klaipėda suburbs

Demographic, economic and territorial factors influence a variety of social processes in the suburbs and also shape social problems. The following describes the problems related to employment, crime, engineering and social infrastructure development.

3.1. Situation of employment and unemployment rate in Klaipėda suburbs

The concept of employment and unemployment is closely linked to the social sphere. Employment is not only a source of livelihood, it is also the meaning of human life. The most developed industries in Klaipėda district are: building materials, oil extraction, chemical and food industry.

Residents of Klaipėda suburbs have the opportunity to work in their place of residence or in nearby elderships. However, not all residents are able to find jobs that match their desires and qualifications. Unemployment is associated with low income of a person (family), inability to provide basic necessities, difficulties in paying taxes, and lack of health insurance.

The number of unemployed in the analysed elderships is decreasing (except in Sendvaris eldership, where it has grown). In order to estimate the average annual unemployment rate in 2017, elderships are divided into two categories: low and high unemployment. The highest unemployment rate is in Judrėnai eldership which is furthest from Klaipėda city center (8.54%), as well as in closest elderships of Klaipėda: Sendvaris and Priekulė. Although the population of Kretinga eldership is growing rapidly, the unemployment rate is the lowest in the country. The resort summer season at the seaside has a noticeable impact on unemployment in this eldership. Sendvaris and Priekulė elderships are among the fastest growing in terms of population, but their unemployment rate is high (6.72% and 7.13%, respectively) and exceeded the Lithuanian unemployment rate (6.7%) (Fig. 5).

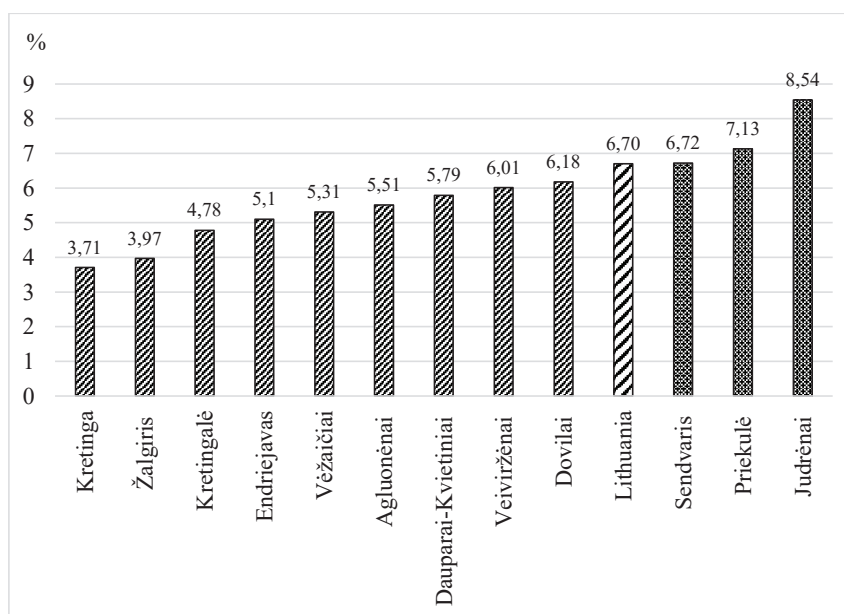


Figure 5. Annual unemployment rate in Klaipėda elderships in 2017, %

Source: Užimtumo tarnyba prie Socialinės apsaugos ir darbo ministerijos, 2018.

There are several reasons for the high unemployment rates in Sendvaris and Priekulė elderships. In Dituva private landowners' community the unemployment rate of the population increases the overall unemployment rate of Priekulė eldership. In many cases, residents with no financial resources to maintain housing in the city move to the Dituva area. Sendvaris eldership is a young, growing eldership. Young families

predominate here and a large part of the population registers their place of residence in Klaipėda. It is not excluded that the dwellings were purchased by returning emigrants who do not yet have official employment in Lithuania. Good geographical location and mobility of jobseekers create the conditions for low registered unemployment in Kretinga eldership. Residents of this eldership also find jobs in the surrounding elderships and Palanga resort (especially during the summer season).

In the general context of decreasing unemployment rate it is recommended that Klaipėda district municipality leaders pay attention to three elderships (Sendvaris, Kretingalė and Judrėnai), to promote employment of the population, reduce unemployment and restore labour market balance.

3.2. Crime tendencies in Klaipėda suburbs

As the suburbs of Klaipėda grow and number of population increase, the problem of crime also arises. At the beginning of 2017, a new model of police came into effect, which eliminated the number of inspectors working in elderships. Residential areas are served by groups of police officers. The number of crimes per year in the suburbs is low. They increase episodically as a result of temporary residents living in social risk families. Higher numbers of thefts are recorded at new construction sites. Domestic violence and fraud are most common.

Following the entry into force of a new police model, cooperation between residents, eldership and police has changed. Residents of elderships lack communication with police officers. Now the communication has become much more formal. When people come to the district administration, they do not find a police officer but do not want to use the services of Emergency Response Center.

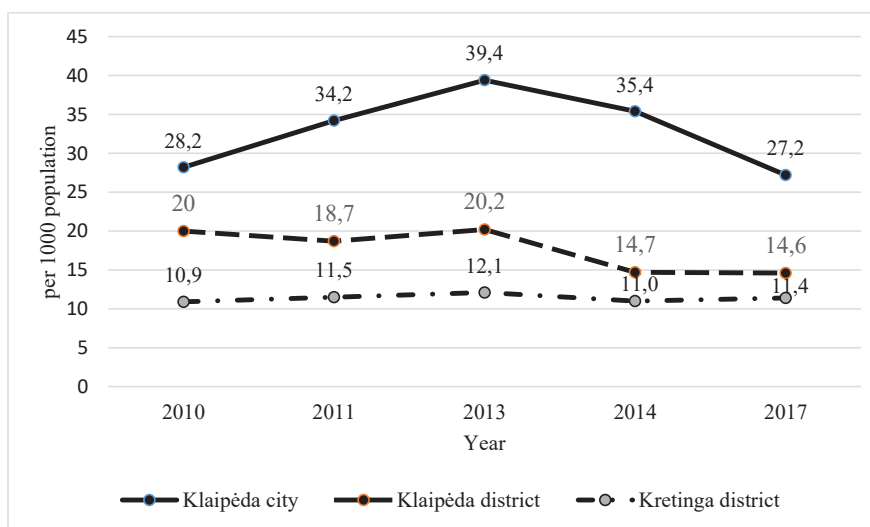


Figure 6. Number of registered criminal offenses in Klaipėda city, Klaipėda district and Kretinga district in 2010–2017, per 1000 population

Source: Informatikos ir ryšių departamentas, 2018.

Since 2010, the number of crimes in Klaipėda district is decreasing, while in Kretinga district it remains constant (Fig. 6). Registered criminal offenses and their investigation rate in Klaipėda city and district are about 40–42%, and in Kretinga district about 50% (Informatikos ir ryšių departamentas..., 2018). Comparing elderships with the rapid population growth, the increase in crime is most noticeable in the Sendvaris eldership. The prevailing crimes are thefts. But as suburbs expand and populations grow, generally the crime rate decreases throughout the area under investigation.

3.3. Development problems of engineering and social infrastructure in Klaipėda suburbs

Public transport services in Klaipėda district are provided by 3 main companies. More problems with public transport are in rural areas. Buses do not arrive to some remote villages at all. Often, public transport runs on weekdays, while suburban residents have a need for transport on weekends as well. Residents of Priekulė, Dovilai, Dauparai-Kvietiniai, Judrėnai, Sendvaris and Endriejovas elderships face a lack of public transport. The bus from Klaipėda only goes to some villages twice a day. During school holidays, buses run every other day. Some residents do not drive a car or do not have their own vehicle. New residents living in the suburbs want the same transport as they do in the city. In a large part of elderships (Kretingalė, Endriejovas, Judrėnai, Vėžaičiai) the roads are not asphalted yet, so there is a great need to improve the condition of the roads. There is an underdeveloped pedestrian path network to connect with larger settlements and existing pedestrian paths are in poor condition.

It should be noted that the improvement of engineering infrastructure in the suburbs of Klaipėda is taking place every year. Thanks to the active involvement of residents in the eldership communities, even better results can be achieved, whereas the development and improvement of transport and engineering infrastructure depends to a large extent on political decisions. Therefore, active participation of leaders and community residents in the activities of the eldership can bring the desired results.

Elderships with a share of the retirement age population (aged 65 and over) of 16% and above face social problems and difficulties in accessing health care. Older people are one of the most vulnerable groups in society. “Young” elderships (Sendvaris, Dovilai), where the share of children (under 18) reaches 21%, are already facing an inadequate social infrastructure, such as the lack of kindergartens and schools.

There are 22 kindergartens in the elderships under investigation, but there is no possibility to satisfy all requests for access to kindergartens. Sendvaris eldership is the fastest growing area with many children under the age of 18, so its residents face a shortage of kindergartens. There is one new kindergarten (74 beds) in the village of Slengiai. A private kindergarten is also planned to be built, which could be a salvation for the families of Sendvaris eldership, as the municipality reimburses a fee of 100–150 EUR for attending private kindergartens.

Some elderships (Endriejovas, Priekulė) lack educators or specialists for extra-curricular activities. Thus, when the number of pupils in Lithuania decreases, the number of pupils in the elderships under study increases. As a result, there is a lack of facilities for the education of children and a lack of specialist teachers.

4. Ways to reduce demographic and social problems in the suburbs of Klaipėda

The demographic and social analysis of the elderships allows us to make suggestions and recommendations at a later stage.

The study found, that demographically disappearing elderships are Endriejovas, Veiviržėnai and Judrėnai. All of these elderships have a small relative share of children under 15 (13–16%) and a relatively larger proportion of the population over 65 (15–17%). These elderships are the furthest from Klaipėda city. If such demographic trends continue in the future, population of elderships will face social problems such as shortages of medical facilities and educators. Possible proposal for municipal administrations is to diversify economic activities and increase the efficiency of economic activities. This can be achieved by encouraging farmers to invest in agriculture. This would accelerate job creation, attract more residents with families who would need more social infrastructure services (education, medical facilities). The population of Kretinga eldership is growing rapidly and the need for care facilities for elderly people will increase in the future.

Sendvaris eldership is the most densely populated, “young” eldership. Looking at the population size by age group, there is a tendency that the number of children in this eldership should increase. They will need educational facilities. The boundaries of this eldership may change in the near future, as 58.4 percent of local residents in the 2018 voted to connect Slengiai village to the city of Klaipėda. Under national law, the final decision will have to be taken by the Parliament.

Thus, the population and density of elderships may change, but the problem of the lack of social infrastructure will still remain in the future. The proposal is formulated for Klaipėda district municipality to improve social infras-

structure: to allocate funds for the construction of new educational institutions and to reach a consensus with Klaipėda city municipality, so that children can attend educational institutions in Klaipėda city on equal basis. Then all the people who actually live in Sendvaris eldership but are registered in Klaipėda would register again where they live.

The problem of Sendvaris and Priekulė elderships is the high unemployment rate of the population. The suggestion for the municipal administration is to look for ways to attract production to these elderships. This would create jobs and reduce unemployment. Kretingalė eldership is characterized by rapid population growth and low unemployment. The area is densely populated. Thus, the proposal to the municipal administration is to monitor the sufficiency of the social and engineering infrastructure in Kretingalė eldership. The population of Dauparai-Kvietiniai and Dovilai elderships is growing rapidly, the unemployment rate is average, the working-age population is predominant and the proportion of men is higher than that of women. Problems in these elderships are the lack of social and engineering infrastructure facilities. These elderships collect most of the personal income tax. Therefore, as settlements grow, we would suggest improving road quality. Also, the age of the population of Dovilai and Dauparai-Kvietiniai indicates that the majority of young families live there, so the number of children is likely to increase in the future, so the need for educational institutions will only grow.

Thus, the overall assessment of demographic and social changes in the elderships is positive. The population is growing (7%), most of them are of working age, unemployment is below the national level and crime is falling. Disadvantages: negative natural population change, lack of transport, engineering and social infrastructure.

Conclusions

The population of Klaipėda suburbs is increasing, and in 2010-2017 the number increased by 7%. Sendvaris, Dauparai-Kvietiniai and Dovilai are fastest growing elderships. There is also a positive population change in Priekulė and Kretingalė elderships. All of them are bordered by the territory of Klaipėda city, they are the most attractive areas for the residents due to the short distance from the city and good communication. The number of inhabitants is decreasing rapidly in the districts more distant from Klaipėda.

Factors determining the need for social services include: population aging, disability, emigration, social risk and unemployment. Unemployment rate is highest in Judrėnai eldership, which is furthest from Klaipėda city (8.54%), and low – in Kretinga (3.71%) and Žalgiris (3.97%) elderships. These elderships have the lowest unemployment rate in the country due to good geographical location. It is especially reduced during the summer season. The unemployment rate is high in the Sendvaris (6.72%) and Priekulė (7.13%) elderships. In Priekulė eldership the unemployment rate is raised by the high unemployment rate in Dituva private landowners' community settlement. A large number of residents of Sendvaris eldership are registered in the city of Klaipėda to provide children with a place in educational institutions. Economic activities in Judrėnai, Endriejovas, Veiviržėnai and Kretinga elderships should be diversified and the efficiency of economic activities increased. This can be achieved by encouraging farmers to invest and develop their agricultural activities. As a result, jobs would be created and, as the number of families grew, more social infrastructure and services (education, medicine) would be needed.

Funds for the construction of new educational institutions should be provided in Sendvaris eldership, and a consensus should be reached with administration of Klaipėda city municipality, so that children of the eldership could attend educational institutions in Klaipėda. As the population of Kretingalė, Dauparai-Kvietiniai and Dovilai elderships is growing, the problems of lack of social and engineering infrastructure objects have to be solved.

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DEMOGRAFINIAI IR SOCIALINIAI POKYČIAI KLAIPĖDOS PRIEMIESČIUOSE 2010–2017 M.

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Santrauka

Tyrimas atskleidžia gyventojų migracijos į Klaipėdos priemiesčius procesą mažiausių administracinių vienetų – seniūnijų – lygiu. Tai padeda gana tiksliai nustatyti ne tik patraukliausias priemiesčių gyvenamąsias vietas, bet ir socialines-demografines problemas, su kuriomis susiduria vietos gyventojai.

Klaipėdos priemiesčių gyventojų skaičius didėja, 2010–2017 m. tiriamose seniūnijose jis išaugo 7 %. Sparčiausiai auga Sendvario, Dauparų-Kvietinių, Dovilų seniūnijos. Teigiamas gyventojų skaičiaus pokytis yra ir Priekulės bei Kretingalės seniūnijose. Visos jos ribojasi su Klaipėdos miesto teritorija, yra gyventojams patraukliausios zonos dėl nedidelio atstumo nuo miesto ir patogaus susisiekimo. Tuo tarpu toliau nuo miesto esančiose seniūnijose gyventojų skaičius sparčiai mažėja.

Socialinių paslaugų poreikį lemiantys veiksniai: visuomenės senėjimas, negalia, emigracija, socialinė rizika ir nedarbas. Viena aštriausių socialinių problemų – nedarbo lygis. Didžiausias nedarbo lygio rodiklis yra labiausiai nutolusioje nuo Klaipėdos miesto Judrėnų seniūnijoje (8,54 %), taip pat Sendvario (6,72 %) ir Priekulės (7,13 %) seniūnijose. Pastarojoje bendrą nedarbo lygį kelia Derceklių gyvenvietės, kurioje įsikūrusi Dituvo sodų bendrija, aukštas nedarbo lygio rodiklis. Be to, nemažai Sendvario gyventojų yra registruoti Klaipėdoje, kad vaikai gautų vietą miesto ugdymo įstaigose. Tuo tarpu dėl palankios Kretingos ir „Žalgirio“ seniūnijų geografinės padėties, nedarbo lygis jose žemiausias (atitinkamai 3,71 % ir 3,97 %). Ypač jis sumažėja vasaros sezono metu.

Vertinant Klaipėdos priemiesčių vystymo perspektyvas, Judrėnų, Endriejavo, Veiviržėnų ir Kretingos seniūnijose reikėtų skatinti ekonominių veiklų įvairovę, didinti jų efektyvumą. Tai galima įgyvendinti skatinant ūkininkus investuoti ir plėtoti žemės ūkio veiklą. Sukūrus naujas darbo vietas, mažėtų nedarbo lygis, atvyktų daugiau jaunų šeimų, augtų socialinės infrastruktūros, paslaugų (švietimo, medicinos) poreikis. Sendvario seniūnijoje didėjant jaunų gyventojų skaičiui, reikėtų skirti lėšų naujoms ugdymo įstaigoms statyti. Kretingalės, Dauparų-Kvietinių ir Dovilų seniūnijose būtina spręsti socialinės ir inžinerinės infrastruktūros objektų trūkumo problemas.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *priemiesčiai, seniūnijos, Klaipėda, demografiniai ir socialiniai pokyčiai.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: R12, R23, R28.

Gauta: 2019–09–08

Priimta: 2019–09–25

Pasirašyta spaudai: 2019–10–01

NUOSTOLIŲ BAIMĖS EFEKTO KOMPLEKSNĖ ANALIZĖ

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ANOTACIJA

Neuroekonomika, neurorinkodara, neuroetika – neuromokslų šakos, kurios yra ne tik aktualios, bet ir suteikia galimybę kitu aspektu pažvelgti į tiriamą reiškinį. Šiame straipsnyje pagrindinis dėmesys skiriamas nuostolių baimės efektui. Straipsnyje atliekama minėto reiškinio kompleksinė analizė, atsižvelgiant į neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos principinius aspektus. Atlikus kompleksinę analizę, išsiaiškinta, kad nuostolių baimės efektas gali būti analizuojamas trijų tarpdisciplininių mokslų kontekste, siekiant paaiškinti iracionalius individo sprendimus (neuroekonomikos tyrimų laukas); pritaikant neurorinkodaros mokslo principus gali būti pasitelkta manipuliacija ir poveikio vartotojams strategijos, nukreiptos į atitinkamą individo elgseną. Kita vertus, pasitelkus neuroetikos mokslą, gali būti nagrinėjamos individo ir visuomenės etinės, teisinės, socialinės problemos. Svarbu tai, kad nuostolių baimės efekto perspektyvas galima sieti su neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos sinergija bei tarpusavio darba.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *nuostolių baimės efektas, neuroekonomika, neurorinkodara, neuromokslai.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: D01; D87; D9; M3.

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.2002>

Įvadas

Šiuolaikiniame mokslo pasaulyje neuromokslai ir jų ypatumai gali būti pritaikyti įvairiuose bendruosiuose, standartiniuose moksluose. Kaip pavyzdys gali būti pateikiami ekonomikos, rinkodaros ir etikos aspektai. Neuromokslų kontekste nurodyti mokslai tampa neuroekonomika, neurorinkodara ir neuroetika. Akivaizdu, kad XXI a. jie yra ypač populiarūs ir svarbūs. Tai galima patvirtinti ir naujų studijų programų, susijusių su neuromokslais, atsiradimu bei plėtra. Pavyzdžiui, Maastrichto universitete (Olandijoje; angl. *Maastricht University*) galima įgyti neuroekonomikos magistro laipsnį (Maastricht University, 2019); Ciuricho universitete (Šveicarijoje; angl. *University of Zurich*) – neuroekonomikos daktaro laipsnį (Ciuricho universitetas, 2019); Barselonos autonominiame universitete (Ispanijoje; angl. *Universitat Autònoma de Barcelona*) – neurorinkodaros magistro laipsnį (Barselonos autonominis universitetas, 2019); Floridos krikščionių universitete (angl. *Florida Christian University*) – neurorinkodaros verslo administravimo magistro ir daktaro laipsnius (Florida Christian University, 2019a, 2019b); OBS verslo mokykloje (angl. *OBS Business School*) – neurorinkodaros ir rinkos tyrimų magistro laipsnį (OBS Business School, 2019); akcentuotina, kad George Masono universitete (JAV; angl. *George Mason University*) galima įgyti neuroetikos magistro laipsnį (George Mason University, 2019). Neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos mokslų svarbą ir jų plėtrą galima pagrįsti ne tik aukštųjų mokyklų studijų programomis, bet ir bendruomenėmis, kurios kuriasi pasaulyje. Pavyzdžiui, 2004 m. Lietuvoje įsteigta Lietuvos neuromokslų asociacija, kuri nuo 2008 m. priklauso ir Europos neuromokslų draugijai (Lietuvos neuromokslų asociacija, 2019). Kita vertus, užsienyje yra specializuotų institucijų, skirtų neuroekonomikai, pavyzdžiui, Kanadoje yra Neuroekonomikos draugija (angl. *Society for Neuroeconomics*). Šios institucijos

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Moksliniai interesai: laimės ekonomika, elgsenos ekonomika, darbo ekonomika, neuroekonomika, darbo santykiai, makroekonomika ir pan.

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tikslas – skatinti ekonominės elgsenos mokslinius tyrimus, remiant ir skatinant ekonomikos, psichologijos bei neuromokslų tyrėjų bendradarbiavimą ir diskusijas. Be to, siekiama užtikrinti nuolatinę pažangą neuroekonomikos srityje, finansiškai remiant jaunuosius mokslininkus (Society for Neuroeconomics, 2019). Užsienyje veikia Neurorinkodaros ir verslo asociacija (angl. *Neuromarketing Science & Business Association*), kurios tikslas – suburti bendraminčius, besidominčius neurorinkodaros sritimi (Neuromarketing science & Business association, 2019, toliau – NSBA). Neuroetikos srityje galima išskirti Tarptautinę neuroetikos draugiją (angl. *International Neuroethics Society*), telkiančią mokslininkus, gydytojus ir kitų sričių profesionalus, kurių interesų sritis – pažangiais socialiniais, teisiniais ir etiniais aspektais pagrįsti neuromokslo (International Neuroethics Society, 2019). Taigi specializuotos neuromokslų sritys, tokios kaip neuroekonomika, neurorinkodara ir neuroetika, yra populiarios tiek akademinėje visuomenėje, tiek socialinėje erdvėje.

Neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos mokslų darnus ryšys gali būti atskleistas, tiriant specifinį nuostolių baimės efekto atvejį. Šiame kontekste galima pabrėžti keturis pagrindinius žodžius: svarba, pritaikomumas, problematika ir perspektyvos. Pavyzdžiui, nuostolių baimės efekto svarbą galima analizuoti pasitelkus neuroekonomikos mokslą. Nuostolių baimės efekto pritaikomumo galimybes pademonstruoti pasitelkus neurorinkodaros discipliną. O nuostolių baimės efekto problematiką nagrinėti neuroetikos mokslo kontekste. Susiejus šiuos santykinai naujus, perspektyvius tarpdisciplininius mokslus galima išreikšti ir apibūdinti nuostolių baimės efekto perspektyvumą. Visa tai atskleidžia ne tik tarpdisciplininių neuromokslų galimybes, bet ir nuostolių baimės efekto specifiškumą bei perspektyvumą.

Šiame straipsnyje atliekama kompleksinė analizė, t. y. tiriamas nuostolių baimės efekto reiškinys trijų tarpdisciplininių neuromokslų kontekste: neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos. Analogiško tyrimo aptikti nepavyko, bet tai tik pabrėžia pristatomo tyrimo išskirtinumą ir naujumą. Nuostolių baimės efekto atvejis pasirinktas neatsitiktinai. Tai lėmė ekonominių, rinkodaros ir etinių aspektų sąveikos samplaika šiuolaikinėje visuomenėje bei poreikis akcentuoti pagrindinius šios srities aspektus. Taigi šiame straipsnyje nagrinėjama mokslinė problema – nuostolių baimės efekto turinys ir principiniai aspektai neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros bei neuroetikos srityse.

Straipsnio objektas – nuostolių baimės efektas.

Straipsnio tikslas: atlikti kompleksinę nuostolių baimės efekto analizę, pasitelkus neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos principinius aspektus.

Tyrimo uždaviniai:

1. Apžvelgti neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros, neuroetikos ir nuostolių baimės efekto teorinius aspektus bei ankstesnius mokslinius tyrimus.
2. Pristatyti ir pagrįsti taikomą empirinio tyrimo metodiką.
3. Atlikti nuostolių baimės efekto kompleksinę analizę.
4. Apibendrinti tyrimo rezultatus, pateikiant pagrindines išvadas ir rekomendacijas.

Nuostolių baimės efekto kompleksinė analizė atlikta, taikant šiuos metodus: mokslinės literatūros sisteminimo, lyginamosios analizės, kokybinės turinio analizės ir atvejo analizės.

1. Neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros, neuroetikos ir nuostolių baimės efekto teoriniai aspektai bei ankstesnių tyrimų apžvalga

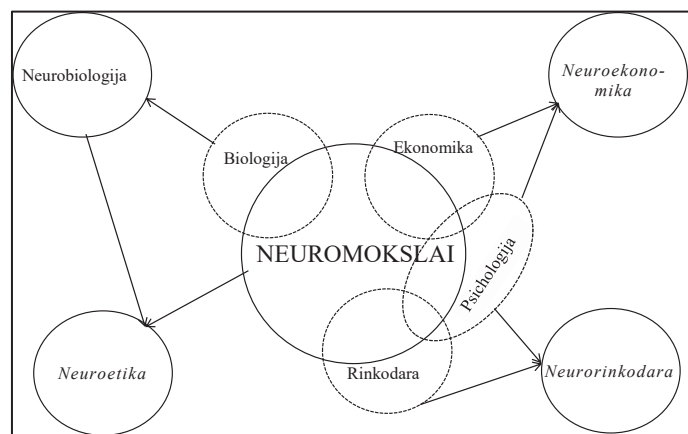
Neuroekonomika yra tarpdisciplininė mokslo šaka, pasak S. Rick'o (2011: 453–463), atsiradusi 1990 m. Remiantis R. Fumagalli (2010: 123; 2011: 26), J. S. Portelli (2013: 3), S. Torkington'u (2016) ir kitais mokslininkais, galima identifikuoti tris neuroekonomikos sudedamąsias dalis: ekonomika, psichologija ir neuromokslo. Neuroekonomikos mokslo tikslas – paaiškinti nervų sistemos pagrindu priimamus individo ekonominius sprendimus (Constantinescu, 2010: 212; Fumagalli, 2011: 26; Bătrâncea, Nichita, 2012: 649–652; Hoyningen-Huene, 2015: 21; Meckl-Sloan, 2015: 133 ir kt.). Šių ekonominių sprendimų pobūdis gali būti įvairus. Pavyzdžiui: investavimo, rizikos priėmimo / atmetimo, lošimo, mokesčių mokėjimo / vengimo sprendimai ir pan. Visi šie ir kiti sprendimai priimami subjekto smegenyse. Taigi mokslininkai neuroeko-

mikos mokslo kontekste dažniausia siekia išsiaiškinti ir paaiškinti individo priimamus ekonominius sprendimus, tirdami smegenis ir jų funkcionavimo galimybes bei logines sąsajas su ekonomika.

Neurorinkodara yra tarpdisciplininė mokslo šaka, kurios koncepcija, pasak C. Morin'o (2011: 131), atsirado 2002 m. Remiantis C. Morin'u (2011: 131–135), neurorinkodaros tyrimų (2019, angl. *Neuromarketing Research*) atstovais, NSBA (2019) tyrėjais, diskusijomis apie neurorinkodaros mokslą, galima skirti tris pagrindines neurorinkodarą apibūdinančias disciplinas: rinkodara, psichologija, neuromokslai. Neuro-rinkodaros mokslo tikslas – rinkodaros stimulų (dirgiklių) poveikio santykinai geresnis (giluminis) suvokimas, atsižvelgiant į vartotojų elgseną, taikant individo emocijų stebėjimo ir interpretavimo metodus (NSBA, 2019). Neurorinkodara gali būti taikoma įvairiose srityse, pavyzdžiui, rinkos tyrimams, parduotuvės lentynų dizainui, produkto kainai, reklamai, prekės ženklo analizei, interpretacijai ir kt. Taigi neurorinkodaros mokslo pažanga suteikia galimybę tirti vartotojų priimamus sprendimus, kurie formuojasi individo smegenyse. Visa tai gali būti panaudota tiek teigiamiems, tiek neigiamiems rinkodaros tikslams.

Neuroetika yra kita tarpdisciplininė mokslo šaka, kurios populiarumas siejamas su XX a. paskutiniaisiais dešimtmečiais (Dranseika ir kt., 2009: 66–73). Remiantis J. Illes'u, S. J. Bird'u (2006: 511–517), galima skirti dvi pagrindines sritis, kurios apibūdina neuroetikos funkcionavimą: neurobiologija ir neuromokslai. Neuroetikos mokslo tikslas susijęs su poreikiu tirti neuromokslų daromą įtaką individo savimonei, etikai ir politikai (International Neuroethics Society, 2019). Neuroetikos srities mokslininkai (pvz., Illes, Bird, 2006: 511–517; Alpert, 2008: 55–68; Dranseika ir kt., 2009: 66–73 ir kt.) dažnai tyrinėja šias problemines sritis: fMRI (angl. *functional magnetic reconance imaging*) tomografo naudojimas; farmakologinės ir nefarmakologinės intervencijos taikymas; moralės pasikeitimas ir neuroetikos disciplinos diskusiniai, etiniai ir kiti klausimai. Taigi neuroetikos mokslo pagrindinė interesų sritis susijusi su pavienių individų ir visos visuomenės etinių, teisinių bei socialinių klausimų kėlimu, analizavimu ir jų sprendimais neuromokslų kontekste.

Bendrajai prasme neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos mokslus galima susieti. Nors kiekvienos tiriamos mokslo šakos sudedamosios dalys nėra tapačios, galima teigti, kad neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos mokslus siejanti centrinė ašis – neuromokslai (žr. 1 pav.).



1 pav. Neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos tarpusavio sąsajos

Šaltinis: paveikslas sudarytas autorės, remiantis J. Illes'u, S. J. Bird'u (2006: 511–517), C. Morin'u (2011: 131–135), R. Fumagalli (2011), J. S. Portelli (2013: 3–14).

Turinio požiūriu tarp neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos galima surasti bendrų sąlyčio taškų. Neuroekonomikoje pagrindinis dėmesys gali būti skiriamas individo iracionalių sprendimų paaiškinimui. Neurorinkodaros mokslas dažnai nukreipiamas į pritaikomumo sritį, kai išsiaiškinus vartotojų priimamus sprendimus gali būti jais atitinkamai manipuluojama arba daromas atitinkamas poveikis vartotojų priimamiems sprendimams. O neuroetikos mokslas siekia tyrinėti ir spręsti pagrindines problemas, kylančias dėl galimai netinkamų neuromokslų pritaikymo visuomenės atžvilgiu būdų. Visų šių sąsajų darba užtikrina perspektyvumą ne tik akademinio, bet ir praktinio lygmenimis.

Kaip konkretus neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos pritaikymo pavyzdys yra nuostolių baimės efektas, kurio kompleksinė analizė atliekama šio straipsnio trečiame skyrelyje. Nuostolių baimės efektas pasireiškia tuo metu, kai individas, bandydamas priimti sprendimą, pirmenybę teikia nuostolių vengimui, o ne pelno gavimui. Tokio pobūdžio situacijos pasireiškimas nulemtas individo emocinės reakcijos į nuostolius: baimė patirti nuostolius dažniausia individui sukelia stipresnius jausmus nei galimybė gauti pelną (Tversky, Kahneman, 1991: 1039–1061). Siekiant paaiškinti tokio pobūdžio individo priimamus iracionalius sprendimus, dažniausia taikomas fMRI (pvz., Tom ir kt., 2007: 515–518; De Martino ir kt., 2010: 3788–3792 ir kt.).

Akivaizdu, kad neuromokslai ir jų tardiiscipliniškumas mokslininkams yra aktualus. Tai pastebima, apžvelgiant ankstesnius mokslinius tyrimus. Neuroekonomikos sritį tyrinėja R. Aoki ir kt. (2014: 6413–6421), kurie sutelkia dėmesį į individo pasirinkimo galimybes ir jų sąsajas su atitinkamomis smegenų sritimis. A. P. Raghuraman'o, C. Padoa-Schioppa (2014: 11583–11603) tyrimo objektas yra ekonominių sprendimų priėmimas, tiriant neuronų elgseną. J. S. Winston'as ir kt. (2014: 14526–14535) nagrinėja skausmo vertinimą bei jo pasireiškimą neurologinėje elgsenoje. R. Abitbol'as ir kt. (2015: 2308–2320) analizuoja subjektyvias vertes, jų pasireiškimą, grindžiamą neuroniniais mechanizmais. J. B. Engelmann'as ir kt. (2015: 3085–3099) tiria rizikingo pasirinkimo aplinkybes ir poveikį individo neurologiniams pojūčiams. S. Hakimi, T. A. Hare (2015: 13103–13109) domisi apdovanojimo atveju neuroekonomikoje, įvertinant laiko diskontavimo procesą. J. Friedrich'as, M. Lengyel'as (2016: 1529–1546) pagrindinį dėmesį skiria sprendimų priėmimo procesui neurologinėje aplinkoje. R. Li ir kt. (2017: 3588–3598) aiškina išlošimo ir pralaimėjimo įreminimo atvejo specifiką neuroekonomikoje. M. V. Wuthrich'as (2019: 1–23) analizuoja bendrosios draudimo kainos ypatumus neuroekonomikos srityje.

Mokslininkai tiria ir neurorinkodaros sritį. Pavyzdžiui, A. Steele ir kt. (2013: 417–430) analizuoja emocijų išnaudojimo galimybes šiuolaikinėje visuomenėje. P. Pynta ir kt. (2014: 71–80) nagrinėja socialinės televizijos poveikį žiūrovams. E. G. Smit'as ir kt. (2015: 216–227) pagrindinį dėmesį skiria konteksto sričiai, naudojant akių sekimo įrangą. D. Varan'as ir kt. (2015: 176–191) diskutuoja apie neurorinkodaros instrumentus ir jų pritaikymo galimybes, tiriant reklamą. A. G. Close ir kt. (2015: 206–215) tiria vizualiojo apdorojimo ir kognityvinio pažinimo procesą. H. Stipp'as (2015: 120–122) nagrinėja neurorinkodarą ir jos ypatybes. H. C. Breiter'is ir kt. (2015: 1–7), T. S. Jesus'us ir kt. (2017: 18–30) analizuoja neurorinkodaros discipliną. V. Grigaliūnaitė, L. Pilelienė (2016: 359–367) tiria reklamos pardavimo padėties atvejį. E. Glaenger'is (2016: 1–53) sutelkia dėmesį į vartotojų sprendimų priėmimą ir neurorinkodaros galimybes. T. Nyoni, W. G. Bonga (2017: 30–38) nagrinėja neurorinkodaros mokslo metodinius aspektus.

Aktuali ir neuroetikos tematika. Pavyzdžiui, K. A. Appiah'o (2010: 233–242) tyrimo objektas yra eksperimentų vaidmuo ir svarba neuroetikos srityje. J. J. Park'as (2013: 237–247) analizuoja teorinius ir taikomosios etikos aspektus. V. Dubljević'as ir kt. (2016: 103–105) tiria neuroetiką ir jos ateities perspektyvas. A. Alimardani, J. Chin'as (2019: 1–16) pagrindinį dėmesį skiria neuroteisės aspektams Australijoje, tiriant kriminalinius įvykius. F. Lara, J. Deckers'is (2019: 1–13) diskutuoja apie dirbtinį intelektą. G. Barn'is (2019: 85–96) nagrinėja medicininių intervencijų atvejį. G. O. Schaefer'is, J. Savulescu (2019: 73–84) dėmesį sutelkia ties procedūrinio moralinio tobulinimo atveju.

Atkreiptinas dėmesys į tai, kad bendras neuromokslų kontekstas neapsiriboja tik neuroekonomika, neurorinkodara ir neuroetika. Skiriami ir kiti tarpdisciplininiai mokslai neuromokslų kontekste: neuropsichologija (psichologijos aspektų suvokimas, pasitelkus kognityvinius procesus); neurofiziologija (nervų sistemos funkcionavimo suvokimas); neuroanatomija (nervinių struktūrų bendroje nervų sistemoje suvokimas; Morin, 2011: 131–135); neuroapskaita (apskaitos ir centrinės nervų sistemos sąsajos); neurovyriausybė (siekiama paaiškinti vyriausybės atstovų pozityvų bei negatyvų elgesį; Ahmad, 2010: 1–3); neurolyderystė (sprendimų priėmimo, problemų sprendimo, emocijų kontroliavimo, bendradarbiavimo, prisitaikymo esant pokyčių sąsajos; Rock, 2010: 6–7); neuroteologijos (religijos, teologijos sąsajos su smegenimis; Newberg, 2010) ir kt. Šie ir kiti neuromokslai ypač populiarūs XXI a. (Squire ir kt., 2008). Manytina, kad ateityje vis daugiau neuromokslų atradimų bus pritaikoma įvairiose gyvenimo srityse.

Apibendrinant neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos teorinius aspektus, galima teigti, kad juos siejanti sudedamoji dalis – neuromokslai. O nuostolių baimės efektas yra vienas iš pavyzdžių, kuris gali būti tiriamas minėtų tarpdisciplininių mokslų kontekste.

2. Tyrimo metodika

Empirinio tyrimo tikslas – atlikti kompleksinę nuostolių baimės efekto analizę, akcentuojant tiriamo reiškinių svarbą, pritaikomumą, problematiką ir perspektyvas.

Metodiniu aspektu atlikus ankstesnių mokslinių tyrimų analizę, kuriuose pagrindinis dėmesys skirtas neuroekonomikos, neurorinkdaros arba neuroetikos reiškiniams, išsiaiškinta, kad dažniausia tyrėjai taiko tris metodus: mokslinės literatūros, lyginamąją, atvejo analizę (žr. 1 lentelę).

1 lentelė. Ankstesniuose tyrimuose taikytų metodų apžvalga

	Mokslinės literatūros analizė	Lyginamoji analizė	Atvejo analizė	
<i>Neuroekonomika</i>	C. Camerer'is ir kt. (2005: 9–64), M. Constantinescu (2010: 209–217), N. Schüll'is, C. Zaloom'as (2011: 515–538), S. Rick (2011: 453–463), L. M. Bătrânceanu, R. A. Nichita (2012: 649–654), G. Ciobanu, I. C. Sechel'as (2012: 86–89), F. Lungu, A. M. Pușcașu (2013: 17–23), J. S. Portelli (2013: 3–14) ir kiti	M. Constantinescu (2010: 209–217), R. Fumagalli (2010: 119–131), G. Harrison'as, D. Ross'as (2010: 185–196), P. Hoynin-gen-Huene (2015: 21), C. Meckl-Sloan'as (2015: 133–136) ir kiti	S. M. Tom'as ir kt. (2007: 515–518), B. De Martino ir kt. (2010: 3788–3792), M. Constantinescu (2010: 209–217), N. Schüll'as, C. Zaloom'as (2011: 515–538), S. Rick'as (2011: 453–463), L. M. Bătrânceanu, R. A. Nichita (2012: 649–654), G. Ciobanu, I. C. Sechel'is (2012: 86–89), J. E. Osorno (2016: 72–81) ir kiti	
<i>Neurorinkodara</i>	Mokslinės literatūros analizė	Lyginamoji analizė	Atvejo analizė	Eksperimentas
	L. Pilelienė (2012: 147–151), P. Ciprian-Marcel'is ir kt. (2009: 804–807), A. A. Burgos-Campero, J. G. Vargas-Hernandez'as (2013: 517–525), H. C. Breiter'is ir kt. (2015: 1–7), J. H. C. De Oliveira, J. D. M. E. de Giraldo (2017: 19–29) ir kiti	C. Morin'as (2011: 131–135), C. Meckl-Sloan'as (2015: 133–136), H. C. Breiter'is ir kt. (2015: 1–7), J. H. C. De Oliveira, J. D. M. E. de Giraldo (2017: 19–29) ir kiti	S. M. Tom'as ir kt. (2007: 515–518), B. Gakhal'as, C. Senior'as (2008: 331–341), B. De Martino ir kt. (2010: 3788–3792), J. S. Portelli (2013: 3–14), L. Pilelienė, V. Grigaliūnaitė (2016: 489–501), R. A. Poldrack'as (2016: 72–73), H. Tang'as ir kt. (2016: 381–391), J. Tichý ir kt. (2017: 180–183), H. Bao, C. Meng'as (2017: 49–75) ir kiti	S. M. Tom'as ir kt. (2007: 515–518), B. De Martino ir kt. (2010: 3788–3792), M. L. Halko ir kt. (2015: 100–115), L. Pilelienė, V. Grigaliūnaitė (2016: 489–501) ir kiti
<i>Neuroetika</i>	Mokslinės literatūros analizė	Lyginamoji analizė	Atvejo analizė	
	B. Gjoneska (2012: 419–424), N. Gorjup'as, R. Gorjup'as (2014: 334–342), N. Al. Pop ir kt. (2014: 26–40), J. A. Wszalek'as (2016), S. J. Stanton'as ir kt. (2017: 799–811), D. C. Robertson'as ir kt. (2017: 679–697), J. Brennkmeijer'as, H. Zwart'as (2017: 337–348), D. Lindebaum'as ir kt. (2018: 96–109) ir kiti	S. Alpert'as (2008: 55–68), J. Giordano, N. Benedikter'is (2011: 110–115), N. S. Fitz'as, R. Nadler'is (2013), D. J. Stein'as, J. Giordano (2015: 1–6), J. Brennkmeijer'as, H. Zwart'as (2017: 337–348), D. C. Robertson'as ir kt. (2017: 679–697) ir kiti	D. Ariely, S. G. Berns'as (2010: 284–292), H. Foreid'as ir kt. (2010: 95–98), B. Maxwell'as, E. Racine (2012: 101–103), A. Javor'as ir kt. (2013: 1–13), V. Sebastian'as (2014: 763–786), N. Al. Pop'as ir kt. (2014: 26–40), S. J. Stanton'as ir kt. (2017: 799–811), N. Gorjup'as, R. Gorjup'as (2014: 334–342), G. O. Schaefer'is ir kt. (2014: 123–136), M. D. B. Olteanu (2015: 191–202), M. Gaillard'as (2018: 67–82), D. Lindebaum'as ir kt. (2018: 96–109) ir kiti	

Šaltinis: sudaryta autorės, remiantis analizuojamų mokslininkų darbų tyrimais.

Kaip matoma 1 lentelėje, neurorinkodaroje dažnai taikomas eksperimento metodas.

Mokslinės literatūros analizė dažniausia taikoma, siekiant išplėsti neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros, neuroetikos koncepciją, teorinius principus ir pan. Pavyzdžiui, F. Lungu, A. M. Puşcaşu (2013: 17–23) nustatė pagrindinius metodus (neurometodus), kurie taikomi atliekant neuroekonomikos tyrimus. Be to, mokslininkai nagrinėja žaidimų teorijos sąsajas su neuroekonomikos mokslo specifika. H. C. De Oliveira, J. D. M. E. De Giraldo (2017: 19–29), atlikdami išsamią mokslinės literatūros analizę, pagrindinį dėmesį skiria neurorinkodaros teoriniams aspektams. O B. Gjonaska (2012: 419–424) mokslinės literatūros analizės metodą taiko tirdama vaizdavimo technikos taikymo etinius aspektus. Taigi neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos teorinių aspektų analizė vis dar yra svarbi, aktuali.

Lyginamoji analizė taikoma atliekant neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros, neuroetikos tyrimus. Taikant šį metodą, gali būti lyginami ir nagrinėjami standartinės ekonomikos panašumai, skirtumai nuo neuroekonomikos mokslo šakos. Tokio pobūdžio tyrimus atlieka M. Constantinescu (2010: 209–217), P. Honyingen-Huene (2015: 21). Lyginamoji analizė gali būti taikoma ir neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros moksluose, lyginant šių disciplinų esminius skirtumus ir panašumus, kaip tai atlieka C. Meckl-Sloan'as (2015: 133–136). Atkreiptinas dėmesys ir į J. Giordano, N. Benedikter'io (2011: 110–115), N. S. Fitz'o, R. Nadler'io (2013) mokslinius darbus, jie taiko lyginamosios analizės metodą atlikdami neuroetikos tyrimus. Taigi lyginamosios analizės metodas įvairiais aspektais dažnai taikomas neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos moksluose.

Atvejo analizė dažnai taikoma neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos tyrimuose. Pavyzdžiui, G. Ciobanu, I. C. Sechel'io (2012: 86–89) tyrimo objektas – investavimo sprendimai neuroekonomikos srityje. L. Pilelienė, V. Grigaliūnaitė (2016: 489–501) nagrinėja publikuotos reklamos atvejį neurorinkodaros aspektu. Neuroetikos srityje atvejo metodą taiko H. Foreid'is ir kt. (2010: 95–98), N. Gorjup'as, R. Gorjup'as (2014: 334–342) ir kiti tyrėjai. Šie mokslininkai pagrindinį dėmesį skiria placebo atvejui ir jo analitiniais tyrimams. Vienas iš atvejo metodo pritaikymo būdų – tirti nuostolių baimės efekto atvejį. Būtent šio atvejo kompleksinė analizė ir pristatoma šiame tyrime. Analizuojant ankstesnius mokslinius tyrimus, išsiaiškinta, kad nuostolių baimės efekto subtilybes neuroekonomikos kontekste teoriniu lygmeniu analizavo S. Rick'as (2011: 453–463), taip pat S. M. Tom'as ir kt. (2007: 515–518), empiriniu lygmeniu – B. De Martino ir kt. (2010: 3788–3792). Apibendrinant galima teigti, kad mokslininkai nuostolių baimės efekto atvejį dažniausia tiria iš neuroekonominės perspektyvos. Kiek žinoma, tai yra pirmasis Lietuvoje atliktas kompleksinis nuostolių baimės efekto vertinimas, kai pagrindinis dėmesys skiriamas ne tik neuroekonomikos, bet ir neurorinkodaros bei neuroetikos aspektams.

Eksperimento metodas dažniausia taikomas neurorinkodaros srities tyrimuose. Pavyzdžiui, tokio pobūdžio tyrimus atlieka L. Pilelienė, V. Grigaliūnaitė (2016: 489–501), M. L. Halko ir kt. (2015: 100–115), B. De Martino ir kt. (2010: 3788–3792), S. M. Tom'as ir kt. (2007: 515–518), kiti mokslininkai.

Apibendrinant galima teigti, kad neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros, neuroetikos tyrimuose dažniausia taikomi mokslinės literatūros, lyginamosios analizės ir atvejo metodai. Todėl ir šiame straipsnyje, atliekant kompleksinę nuostolių baimės efekto analizę, taikomi mokslinės literatūros, lyginamosios analizės ir atvejo (nuostolių baimės efekto) metodai.

3. Nuostolių baimės efekto kompleksinė analizė, įvertinant neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos principus

Kaip minėta, nuostolių baimės efekto svarba gali būti paaiškinama, remiantis principiniais neuroekonomikos aspektais. Šiuo atveju tikslinga detaliau pristatyti S. M. Tom'o ir kt. (2007: 515–518) tyrimą. Šių mokslininkų tyrimo objektas – nuostolių baimės efektas, jo pasireiškimas priimant sprendimus. Empirinis tyrimas atliktas, taikant fMRI tomografą. Eksperimento dalyviai siekė priimti arba atmesti pateiktą pasiūlymą. Pasiūlymus sudarydavo įvairūs galimi laimėjimų ir pralaimėjimų deriniai. Metodškai tyrimas atliktas, taikant logistinės ir parametrinės regresijos metodus. Šie metodai taikyti, siekiant nustatyti smegenų sritis, kurios priimant sprendimą koreliavo su atitinkamu galimu pelnu ar nuostoliu. Atlikus eksperimentą nustaty-

ta, kad egzistuoja sąsajos tarp smegenų sričių, kurios atsakingos už pelno / nuostolio identifikavimą ir atitinkamo sprendimo priėmimą. Galiausiai pripažinta, kad šiame procese sąveikauja nugarinė (šoninė) ir vidurinė dryžuotojo kūno dalis (angl. *dorsal and ventral striatum*) bei apatinė kaktinė skilties dalis (t. y. ventromedialinė prefrontalinė smegenų žievė, angl. *ventromedial prefrontal cortex*). Tikslinga nurodyti, kad dryžuotasis kūnas – individo galvos smegenų, galinių smegenų vidinė dalis, atsakinga už sprendimų priėmimą, susijusį su apdovanojimų įvertinimu (Hikosaka ir kt., 2000: 953–978; Báez-Mendoza, Schultz, 2013: 1–14 ir kt.). Funkciniu požiūriu apatinė kaktinė skilties dalis atsakinga už nereikalingos atminties panaikinimą (pvz., įvairių traumų prisiminimai; Mokslininkai iššifruoja..., 2017). Taigi šio tyrimo rezultatai patvirtina smegenų anatomijos žinias, kuriomis gali būti grindžiama nuostolių baimės efekto raiška. Šis atvejis pasireiškia, kai dryžuotasis kūnas priimant atitinkamą sprendimą sąveikauja su apatine kaktine skiltimi.

Vis dėlto mokslininkai S. M. Tom'as ir kt. (2007: 515–518) nustatė statistiškai nereikšmingą ryšį migdoliniame kūne (limbinei sistemai priskiriama smegenų dalis), kai dominuoja nuostolių baimės efektas. Nuostolių baimės efekto pasireiškimą neurologiniu požiūriu galima paaiškinti, remiantis J. L. Fudge ir kt. (2002: 257–275). Mokslininkų teigimu, individui priimant sprendimą vienu metu funkcionuoja tam tikros dryžuotojo kūno sritys, kaktinė skiltis ir limbinė sistema.

Kiti tyrėjai (Martino ir kt., 2010: 3788–3792) gavo priešingus tyrimo rezultatus nei S. M. Tom'as ir kt. (2007: 515–518). B. De Martino ir kt. (2010: 3788–3792) nurodė, kad migdolinis kūnas neurobiologiniu požiūriu yra svarbiausias, pasireiškiant nuostolių baimės efektui. Dominuojant nuostolių baimės efektui, ne tik sąveikauja atitinkamos smegenų sritys, bet ir išsiskiria serotonino (siejamas su nuotaika) bei dopamino (siejamas su optimizmu) hormonai. Šiuo atveju identifikuojant nuostolių baimės efekto raišką dominuoja serotoninas (Litt ir kt., 2006: 497).

Apibendrinant nuostolių baimės efekto analizę neuroekonomikos kontekste, galima daryti išvadą, kad nuostolių baimės efekto pasireiškimą galima paaiškinti ne tik ekonominiu, iracionaliu poelgiu, kai pagrindinis dėmesys skiriamas nuostolių vengimui, o ne pelno gavimui. Šį atvejį galima nagrinėti ir neurologiniu požiūriu. Tai leidžia geriau suprasti nuostolių baimės efekto raišką. Bet tokio pobūdžio analizei būtina pasitelkti neuroekonomikos principinius aspektus.

Nuostolių baimės efekto pritaikomumą galima pademonstruoti, remiantis neurorinkodaros mokslo principais. Nuostolių baimės efektas neurorinkodaroje suprantamas kaip individo siekis išvengti potencialių nuostolių, lyginant su potencialiu pelnu. Pavyzdžiui, vartotojas, spręsdamas dilemą, tęsti vartojimą ar jį nutraukti, dažniau turėtų rinktis vartojimą tęsti, nes jo emocijos, susijusios su potencialiu nuostoliu, t. y. vartojimo nutraukimu, yra santykinai stipresnės nei potencialus galimas pelnas (vartojimo pratęsimas). Praktiškai stebimos dvi pagrindinės strategijos: išbandymo garantija ir nemokama bandomoji versija.

Išbandymo garantijos tikslas – suteikti vartotojams galimybę išsigyti produktą ir panaudojus atitinkamą nurodytą laikotarpį jį grąžinti, jei minėtas produktas netenkina lūkesčių. Įmonėms ši strategija yra patraukli, nes grąžinimo privilegija vartotojai dažniausia nepasinaudoja. Tai galima paaiškinti nuostolių baimės efekto pasireiškimu, kai vartotojai pagrindinį dėmesį skiria galimiems nuostoliams, kuriuos patirtų, jeigu produktą reikėtų grąžinti. Tokio pobūdžio strategija taikoma parduodant daugybę produktų, pavyzdžiui, „Dormeo“ produkcijai teikiama 60 naktų išbandymo garantija (plačiau žr. Dormeo, 2019); „Fabric“ dviračių, motociklo ir kt. balnų produkcijai – 60 dienų išbandymo garantija (plačiau žr. Fabric, 2019) ir kt.

Nemokamos bandomosios versijos tikslas – suteikti vartotojams galimybę išbandyti produktą nemokamai nustatytą ribotą laiką. Pavyzdžiui, „Microsoft Office“ produkcijai suteikiama vieno mėnesio nemokama bandomoji versija (plačiau žr. Microsoft, 2019). „Kaspersky anti-virus“ produkcijai taip pat suteikiama vieno mėnesio nemokama bandomoji versija (plačiau žr. Kaspersky Lab, 2019).

Apibendrinant nuostolių baimės efekto analizę neurorinkodaros kontekste galima daryti išvadą, kad nuostolių baimės efekto raišką gali paaiškinti rinkodaros ir neuromokslai. Taigi taikant atitinkamas nuostolių baimės efekto strategijas, gali būti siekiama paveikti vartotojus ir jų priimamus sprendimus.

Nuostolių baimės efekto problematiką padeda išsiaiškinti neuroetikos mokslas. Viena pagrindinių etikos problemų susijusi su privatumo mažėjimu ir individo psichologinių aspektų naudojimu manipuliavimo tikslais, pavyzdžiui, išbandymo garantijos strategijos taikymas rinkodaroje. Kitaip sakant, vartotojui suteikiama galimybė

nemokamai bandyti produktą atitinkamą laikotarpį ir, jei prekė netenkins lūkesčių, bus galima ją gražinti. Tačiau dėl nuostolių baimės efekto pasireiškimo, vartotojas dažniausia prekę įsigyja. Taigi atitinkamų rinkodaros, psichologijos ir neuromokslų sąveika paremti sprendimai gali būti nukreipti prieš vartotojus ir jų priimamus sprendimus.

Kita etinė problema yra ta, kad mokslininkai akcentuoja, jog fMRI naudoja būtinos kvalifikacijos ar pakankamų profesinių kompetencijų neturintys mokslininkai medicininiuose tyrimuose. Šį aspektą akcentuoja J. Illes'as ir kt. (2002: 358–365). Akcentuotina ir tai, kad fMRI neuromokslų tikslais naudojamas su sutrikimų turinčiais ir jų neturinčiais asmenimis bei savanoriais. Darytina išvada, kad nedidieji tyrimai, naudojant fMRI tomografą, gali būti atliekami su savanoriais. Kita vertus, ši procedūra gali kenkti sveikatai. Šią problemą pažymi V. Dranseika ir kt. (2009: 66–73).

Be minėtų probleminių aspektų, verta išskirti tyrimų validumą. Pasak A. Eklunda ir kt. (2016: 7900–7905), maždaug 4000 mokslinių tyrimų taikomi statistiniai metodai, naudojant fMRI, gali būti pripažinti kaip nekorektiški metodiniu požiūriu. Taigi ir tyrimų rezultatai būtų pripažinti kaip neatitinkantys realybės. Kita problema susijusi su teisiniu reglamentavimu, kur gausu netikslumų ir trūkumų. Šį aspektą pabrėžia D. Ariely, G. S. Berns'as (2010: 284–292). Visa tai leidžia neetiškais būdais naudoti neuromokslų pažangą.

Apibendrinant nuostolių baimės efekto analizę neuroetikos kontekste, svarbu akcentuoti galimas problemines sritis ir pateikti galimus tų problemų sprendimo būdus.

Nuostolių baimės efekto perspektyvos gali būti siejamos su neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos sinergija bei tarpusavio darna. Todėl rekomenduotina tęsti mokslinius tyrimus, siekiant paaiškinti iracionalių sprendimų priėmimą ir pritaikyti gautas žinias, užtikrinant individų gerovę bei būsimų kartų poreikius, nes pagrindinis neuromokslų duomenų šaltinis – individo smegenys. Taigi ši informacija turėtų būti naudojama ir vertinama atsakingai.

Išvados

Nuostolių baimės efektas gali būti tyrinėjamas neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos aspektais. Nors neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros, neuroetikos mokslų teoriniai principai skiriasi, pagrindinis dėmesys skiriamas individui ir jo priimamiems sprendimams neurobiologijos kontekste. Šis inovatyvus požiūris suteikia galimybę plačiau nagrinėti ekonominių, rinkodaros ir etinių aspektų raišką XXI amžiuje.

Straipsnyje atlikta ankstesnių mokslinių tyrimų analizė metodiniu aspektu. Remiantis ja, šiame tyrime taikomi trys metodai: mokslinės literatūros, lyginamoji ir atvejo analizė.

Atlikus kompleksinę analizę, nustatyta, kad nuostolių baimės efektas gali būti analizuojamas trijų tarpdisciplininių mokslų kontekste, siekiant paaiškinti iracionalius individo sprendimus (neuroekonomikos sritis); laikantis neurorinkodaros mokslo principų gali būti pritaikytos manipuliacijos ir poveikio formavimo vartotojams strategijos, nukreiptos į atitinkamą individo elgseną. Kita vertus, pasitelkus neuroetikos mokslą, gali būti nagrinėjamos neuromokslų individo ir visuomenės etinės, teisinės, socialinės problemos.

Nuostolių baimės efekto perspektyvas galima sieti su neuroekonomikos, neurorinkodaros ir neuroetikos sinergija bei tarpusavio darna. Kad visa tai būtų pasiekta, rekomenduotina tęsti mokslinius tyrimus, siekiant paaiškinti iracionalių sprendimų priėmimą ir pritaikyti gautas žinias, užtikrinant individų gerovę bei ateities kartų poreikius, nes pagrindinis neuromokslų duomenų šaltinis – individo smegenys. Tad ši informacija turėtų būti naudojama ir vertinama atsakingai.

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THE COMPLEX ANALYSIS OF LOSS AVERSION

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Summary

In the modern world, neuroscience and the peculiarities of these sciences can be applied in various general, standard sciences. Examples include economic, marketing and ethical aspects. In this context it is appropriate to specify such neurosciences: neuroeconomics, neuromarketing and neuroethics. It is obvious that the 21st century these sciences are extremely popular and important. A harmonious relationship between neuroeconomics, neuromarketing and neuroethics can be revealed by investigating a specific case of loss aversion. In this context, four key words can be highlighted: relevance, applicability, problematic and perspectives. So, the main attention is focused on loss aversion in this article. The aim of this research is to do a complex analysis of the loss aversion by using the fundamental aspects of neuroeconomics, neuromarketing and neuroethics. The author of this article uses these methods: systematization of scientific literature, comparative analysis and case method. This paper is composed of three main sections.

The first part of this article is for theoretical aspects of neuroeconomics, neuromarketing, neuroethics, loss aversion and for overview of previous studies. So, the conceptions and main fundamentals aspects of neuroeconomics, neuromarketing, neuroethics and loss aversion are described in this section. Neuroeconomics consists of three main elements: economics, psychology and neuroscience. Marketing, psychology and neuroscience are the main components of neuromarketing. Neuroethics consists of two disciplines: neurobiology and neuroscience. All these disciplines can be applied to investigate loss aversion. The main idea of this phenomena is associated with loss and gain. In this case, human firstly investigates potential losses and just after that investigates potential gain. It has been discovered that neuroscience is relevant to scientists. Researchers carry out a variety studies of neuroeconomics, neuromarketing, neuroethics.

In the second section, the methodology of research is provided. The systematization of scientific literature, comparative analysis and case method are described in this section in more details.

The third part of this article is devoted for the complex analysis of loss aversion. It was discovered that the loss aversion can be analyzed in the context of three interdisciplinary sciences in order to explain irrational individual decisions (the content of neuroeconomics); applying the principles of neuromarketing science can be used as a strategy for manipulation of consumers. On the other hand, neuroethics principles can help to solve problems in the field of neuroscience and also the case of loss aversion. It should be emphasized that the prospects of loss aversion can be associated with synergy and coherence between neuroeconomics, neuromarketing and neuroethics.

In conclusion, loss aversion can be studied from the perspective of neuroeconomics, neuromarketing and neuroethics. This kind of complex analysis has been presented these aspects in this article.

KEY WORDS: *loss aversion, neuroeconomics, neuromarketing, neuroethics, neuroscience.*

JEL CODES: D01; D87; D9; M3.

Gauta: 2019–07–15

Priimta: 2019–08–20

Pasirašyta spaudai: 2019–09–10

ORGANIZACIJOS SOCIALINIO VERSLUMO VAIDMUO DARNAUS VYSTYMO KONTEKSTE

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ANOTACIJA

Dinamišką ir kompleksiską aplinkos turinį gali atliepti socialiai versli organizacija. Socialinis verslumas pirmiausia skatina pokyčius pačioje organizacijoje, prisiimant atsakomybę už darnų vystymą ir diegiant inovacijas, o organizacijos socialinė veikla daro poveikį bendruomenėms, regionams ir globaliai. Šioje studijoje pateikiama susisteminta informacija, atskleidžiamas tarpusavyje susijusių organizacijos socialinio verslumo, socialinės atsakomybės, darnaus vystymo, organizacijos pilietiškumo konceptų ryšys. Apibendrinant nagrinėjamus konceptus, suformuotas organizacijos socialinio verslumo ir darnios plėtros proceso modelis, išskirtos trys organizacijos verslo modelio brandos perspektyvos, susiejant kuriama socialinę vertę ir organizacijos taikomas socialinės atsakomybės priemonės, jų poveikio trukmė ir vieta. Į modelį integruota organizacijos pilietiškumo dimensija, pabrėžiant jos svarbą darnaus vystymo darbotvarkėje.

PAGRINDINIAI ŽODŽIAI: *darnus vystymas, socialinis verslumas, socialinė vertė.*

JEL KLASIFIKACIJA: L31, M10, O35, Q01, Q56

DOI: <http://dx.doi.org/10.15181/rfds.v29i3.2003>

Įvadas

Pastaruosius keturis dešimtmečius darnumo klausimais aktyviai diskutuojama tiek teoriniu, tiek praktiniu lygmenimis. Šią diskusiją skatina aplinka, kurioje šiandien gyvename ir kuri yra kompleksiška bei dinamiška. Mokslas, technologijos, socialinės sistemos sparčiai kinta ir lemia tiek galimybes, tiek iššūkius, kurie susiję su globalia ekonomika, klimato kaita, migracija. Vienu metu vieni regionai vystosi sparčiai, kituose vyrauja skurdas ir akivaizdu, kad neretai politika bei organizacijose vyraujantys standartiniai vadybos požiūriai vangiai reaguoja į aplinkos kompleksiskumą, dinamiką bei darnaus vystymosi tikslus (Leach, Scoones, Stirling, 2007: 3). Siekiant darnaus vystymo socialinėje, aplinkosaugos ir ekonomikos dimensijose, įvairūs dalyviai – tiek vyriausybės, tiek organizacijos ir piliečiai – turėtų prisiimti atsakomybę ir bendradarbiauti (Ashrafi, Adams, Walker, Magnan, 2018: 672). Organizacijoms darnaus vystymo procese tenka pagrindinis vaidmuo. Siekiant darnumo tikslų organizacijos įneša svarų indėlį kurdamos darbo vietas, generuodamos pajamas, ugdydamos žmonių kompetencijas, taikydamos inovacijas kurdamos ir pateikdamos rinkai naujus produktus bei paslaugas (Ashrafi, Adams, Walker, Magnan, 2018: 672). Neretai organizacijos įgyvendina tam tikras darnumo priemones organizacijos lygmeniu (Enhert, Rauter, Baumgartner, 2015: 2834), neišnaudodamos savo pačių turimo antreprenierių potencialo inovatyviais būdais telkti reikiamus vidinius ir išorinius išteklius, sprendžiant socialinius ir aplinkosaugos klausimus (Rahdari, Sepasi, Moradi, 2016: 353). Priimant šiuos iššūkius galėtų būti pasitelktas socialinis verslumas, kaip inovatyvus procesas, kurio metu akumuliuojamas socialinis kapitalas ir kuriama vertė suinteresuotoms šalims bei visuomenei.

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Moksliniai interesai: darnus verslumas, socialinis verslumas, strateginis valdymas, lyderystė, kokybės vadyba
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Mokslo studijose aptinkamos prieštaringos nuomonės dėl socialinio verslo darnumo aspekto. D. D. Zhang'o, L. A. Swanson'o (2014: 176) teigimu, socialinis verslas yra darnus, turint omenyje jo tikslą ir misiją, tuo tarpu F. M. Belz'as ir J. K. Binder (2017: 2, 12) atkreipia dėmesį į atliktų tyrimų rezultatus, kurie atskleidžia, kad socialinis verslas dažniausia kelia socialinius ir ekonominius tikslus, ignoruodamas ekologinius klausimus. A. Rahdari, S. Sepasi, M. Moradi (2016: 353) teigimu, socialinės įmonės, siekdamos pokyčių, į savo „DNR“ turi integruoti socialinę atsakomybę ir darnumą, pasitelkdamos atsakingą mąstymą, kultūrą, keisdamos organizacinę struktūrą. E. Lamy (2017: 645) išryškina antreprenierių dilemą, kuri susijusi su vienas kitam prieštaraujančių tikslų suderinimu darnumo kontekste. T. Hahn'as, F. Figge, J. Pinkse, L. Preuss'as (2018: 245) atskleidžia paradokso perspektyvą, organizacijoms priimant darnumo iššūkį, ir nurodo tarpusavyje susijusius bei konkuruojančius ekonominės gerovės, aplinkos kokybės ir socialinės lygybės poreikius.

Problema. Straipsnyje keliamas klausimas, kaip verslo organizacijos, pasitelkdamos socialinį verslumą, gali tapti darnaus vystymo varomąja jėga? Šio klausimo aktualumą ir naujumą pagrindžia socialinio verslumo srities mokslininkų keliami probleminiai klausimai ir išvalgos dėl tolesnių tyrimų naujausiose mokslo studijose. A. Rahdari, S. Sepasi, M. Moradi (2016: 347) nustatė, kad vienas pagrindinių socialinio verslumo mokslininkų iššūkių yra nusistovėjusios epistemologijos trūkumas; F. M. Belz'as ir J. K. Binder (2017: 3) pabrėžė, kad tiek organizacijos socialinio verslumo, tiek darnaus vystymo konceptai yra persidengiantys, tačiau pasigendama studijų, kuriose būtų nagrinėjamas organizacijos socialinio verslumo procesas darnaus vystymo kontekste. Pastarieji autoriai (Belz Binder 2017: 3) nurodo, kad pasigendama darnaus verslumo studijų pelno siekiančių ir socialinę misiją išsikėlusiu bei hibridinių organizacijų kontekste, o socialinio verslumo studijose dominuoja būtent ne pelno organizacijos. E. Lamy (2017: 645) konstatavo, kad darnaus socialinio verslumo studijų, kur būtų pateikta išsami organizacijos socialinės veiklos ir finansinių rezultatų analizė, nėra. T. Hahn'as, F. Figge, J. Pinkse, L. Preuss'as (2018: 236) nurodo, kad empiriniai tyrimai, susiję su darnios organizacijos patiriamomis įtampomis ir paradoksis vienu metu derinant skirtingus ekonominius, aplinkosaugos ir socialinius tikslus organizacijos ir visuomenės lygmenimis, skirtingose laiko ir vietos skalėse, yra labai reti. Apibendrinant galima teigti, kad trūksta mokslo studijų, kuriose būtų susistemintos esamos žinios, atskleidžiamas tarpusavyje susijusių organizacijos socialinio verslumo, socialinės atsakomybės, pilietiškumo, darnaus vystymo konceptų ryšys.

Straipsnio tikslas: atskleisti organizacijos socialinio verslumo vaidmenį darnaus vystymo kontekste.

Objektas: organizacijos socialinio verslumo vaidmuo darnaus vystymo kontekste.

Uždaviniai: išanalizuoti organizacijos socialinio verslumo ir darnaus vystymo konceptus.

Metodai. Atliekant sisteminės mokslinės literatūros analizę, taikant lyginimo ir apibendrinimo metodus, apibendrinti organizacijos socialinio verslumo bei darnaus vystymo konceptai, suformuotas organizacijos socialinio verslumo ir darnaus vystymo proceso modelis.

Mokslinės literatūros atrankos kriterijai. Atliekant literatūros analizę remtasi daugiau nei trisdešimčia mokslinių publikacijų, kuriose analizuojami socialinio verslumo ir darnaus vystymo konceptai, atskleidžiamas socialinio verslumo vaidmuo, siekiant darnaus vystymo tikslų. Atrenkant mokslinę literatūrą vadovautasi trimis atrankos kriterijais:

1. Analizei atlikti atrinkta mokslinė literatūra, prieinama e. bibliotekoje, pateikia visuminį požiūrį į organizacijos socialinį verslumą bei darnų vystymą. Moksliniai straipsniai atrinkti, atsižvelgiant į šiuos organizacijos socialinio verslumo ir darnaus vystymo aspektus: pateikiami, lyginami, apibendrinami konceptai; pateikiami darnumo modeliai; analizuojamas socialinės vertės kūrimo procesas; pateikiama socialinių inovacijų tipologija ir reikšmė.
2. Mokslinėje literatūroje pateikiami tyrimų rezultatai nuo 2000 metų.
3. Mokslo studijose pateikiamas multidisciplininis požiūris į organizacijos socialinį verslumą bei darnų vystymą.

Tyrimo apribojimai. Straipsniai, kuriuose pateikiami empirinių tyrimų rezultatai, turintys konkrečių geografinių vietovių atvejo analizės pobūdį ir nepateikiantys organizacijos socialinio verslumo integravimo į darnų vystymą teorinio pagrindimo, į šią analizę neįtraukti.

1. Organizacijos socialinio verslumo ir darnaus vystymo esmė

Socialinio verslumo studijų, siejamų su darniu vystymu, mokslinėje literatūroje nėra daug. Esamose socialinis ir darnus verslumas nagrinėjamas socialinių inovacijų poveikio regiono darnumui (Castro-Arce, Parra, Vanclay, 2019), organizacijos brandos ir socialinio poveikio (Rahdari, Sepasi, Moradi, 2016), proceso, generuojančio darnaus verslo rezultatus (Zhang, Swanson, 2014), socialinio poveikio (Ebrashi, 2012) aspektais.

1.1. Darnus vystymas

Verslo sektorius, apimantis įvairias gyvenimo sritis, atlieka reikšmingą vaidmenį darnaus vystymo darbotvarkėje, įgyvendinant Jungtinių Tautų priimtus darnaus vystymo tikslus. Dažniausia literatūroje cituojamas G. H. Brundtland (1987: 37) *darnaus vystymo* apibrėžimas, kur vystymas traktuojamas kaip „tenkinantis dabarties poreikius be kompromisų ateities kartoms patenkinti savuosius“. Per pastaruosius dešimtmečius *darnaus vystymo* apibrėžtis evoliucionavo, pasitelkiant trimačio veiklos minimumo (angl. *triple bottom line – TBL*) teoriją, kitaip dar vadinamą *3P* (angl. *Three Ps: People, Planet, Profit [Prosperity]*) – Žmonės, Planeta, Pelnas (Gerovė), pabrėžiant socialinių, aplinkosaugos ir ekonominių dimensijų darnos siekį. Reikėtų pabrėžti, kokį modelį betaikytumėme, būtina įvertinti kontekstą, nes pastangos, siekiant pažangos, integruoti „pasiteisinusias“ priemones, ne tik nerezultatyvios, bet dažnai nuvilia naudos gavėjus [angl. *beneficiaries*] (Leach, Scoones, Stirling, 2007: 3). Darnumo diskurse pateikiama ir alternatyvių darnumo modelių, pavyzdžiui, L. Seghezzo (2009: 540) penkių dimensijų konceptualus darnumo modelis, kuris, kaip atsvarą *3P*, pateikia kitą požiūrį į darnumą, suformuodamas naują trejetą – Vieta (trys dimensijos), Ilgalaikiškumas (viena dimensija), Asmenys (viena dimensija) (angl. *Place, Permanence, Persons*). Vietos sampratą (angl. *place*) L. Seghezzo (2009: 548) apibrėžia plačiaja prasme, ji apima ne tik geografines erdves, kurios gali būti nutolusios viena nuo kitos, bet ir kultūros suformuotą erdvę, kurioje gyvena bei sąveikauja žmonės. Modelyje vieta suprantama kaip faktų, tapatumo ir elgsenos ištakos, kurios apima *kultūros, gyvenimo būdo, žmonių fizinės ir psichologinės sveikatos* sąvokas. Pasak L. Seghezzo (2009: 548), tokia „pasidalinta erdvė tampa sudedamąja socialinės sanglaudos, mobilumo, tinklų, migracijos sudedamąja dalimi“. Ilgalaikiškumas (angl. *permanence*), L. Seghezzo (2009: 549) požiūriu, yra ne tik dabarties sąlygų užtikrinimas, bet ir pokyčių įgyvendinimas. Darnumo diskurse visada buvo pripažįstamas poreikis mąstyti ilgalaikėje perspektyvoje, tačiau planavimui dažniausia priskiriamas tik antraeilis vaidmuo, tuo tarpu ilgalaikiškumo dimensijoje planavimas ir dabarties veiksmų bei neveikos poveikio ateičiai numatymas yra pirmaeilis dalykas. Modelyje pabrėžiama, kad laikas yra ne tik veiksmo ar sąveikos pagrindas, jis glaudžiai sąveikauja su vieta, socialinėmis institucijomis ir konkrečiais asmenimis. Taigi vieta ir laikas yra komplementarūs konceptai, kurie vystymo (angl. *development*) paradigmoje veikia ne tik lokaliai, bet ir globaliai. Ilgalaikiškumo dimensijos aktualumą pabrėžia ir M. Leach, I. Scoones'as, A. Stirling'as (2007: 18), darnumą apibrėžę kaip gebėjimą neribotą laiką puoselėti vertybes, orientuotas į žmogaus gerovę, socialinę lygybę ir aplinkos kokybę. Tačiau kalbėdamas apie lygybę L. Seghezzo (2009: 549) atkreipia dėmesį, kad teisingumo ir lygybės koncepcijos darniame pasaulyje yra būtinos, bet jos neapima į asmenį orientuotų aspektų: „Mes visi galime būti lygūs, turėti vienodą prieinamumą prie teikiamų paslaugų ir prekių, kartu būti vienodai nelaimingi“, todėl į *darnumo* sąvokos apibrėžimą būtina įtraukti asmens dimensiją, kuri atskleistų tokius aspektus kaip tapatumas, vertybės, teisės, laimė ir gerovė. L. Seghezzo (2009: 551) skiria asmens (angl. *Persons*) ir visuomenės tapatumą, nes asmenys ir visuomenė, siekiant darnumo, gali atlikti skirtingus vaidmenis. Mokslininkas pabrėžia, kad „asmuo yra iš esmės reikšmingas“, o šio požiūrio laikymasis sumažina sektoriinių (socialinių, aplinkos, ekonomikos) institucijų ar politinių interesų dominavimo mažumų ir piliečių teisių atžvilgiu riziką. Šis požiūris darnumo diskurse aktualus ir socialinio pokyčio, kaip darnaus vystymo proceso rezultato, aspektu, nes „tik konkretūs asmenys, su savo morale ir vertybėmis, gali pakeisti sąmonę, kas būtina kuriant ekologiškai racionalų pasaulį, laisvą nuo autoritarinio moralinio įtikinėjimo“ (Seghezzo, 2009: 551).

Svarbu pabrėžti, kad darnaus vystymo konceptas nėra nusistovėjęs. Pasak K. Beland Lindahl, S. Baker, L. Rist, A. Zachrisson (2015: 400), darnus vystymas turėtų būti pripažintas kaip plastiškas konceptas, taikomas

įvairiuose kontekstuose. Autorės nurodo, kad darnus vystymas skirtinguose kontekstuose gali turėti skirtingas ateities perspektyvas, todėl ypač svarbu įvertinti su konkrečia vieta susijusių suinteresuotųjų šalių preferencijas.

Organizacijos darnaus vystymo konceptas atskleidžia organizacijos išsipareigojimą įgyvendinti ir tobulinti ekonominę, socialinę, aplinkosaugos veiklą tiek trumpalaikėje, tiek ilgalaikėje perspektyvoje. Tad darnumo siekiančios organizacijos į savo verslo modelį turėtų integruoti strategijas, kurios įgalintų įtraukti suinteresuotas šalis ir prisidėti prie nuolatinio socialinių, aplinkosaugos ir ekonominių sąlygų gerinimo regione ar globaliu mastu (Ashrafi, Adams, Walker, Magnan, 2018: 675). Dažnai darnus vystymas organizaciniu lygmeniu komunikuojamas per *organizacijos socialinės atsakomybės* (angl. *corporate social responsibility*) konceptą, kuris susieja organizacijos vykdomą veiklą su tam tikrais darnaus vystymo aspektais (Rahdari, Sepasi, Moradi, 2016: 347). Bendros nuomonės dėl *organizacijos socialinės atsakomybės* definicijos mokslininkai neturi, bet ryškėja tendencija organizacijos socialinę atsakomybę traktuoti pabrėžiant jos atsakomybę, kuri viršija organizacijų veiklą reglamentuojančių teisės aktų reikalavimus (Ashrafi, Adams, Walker, Magnan, 2018: 674). Taigi iš organizacijų tikimasi, kad nuo selektyvaus požiūrio į socialinę, aplinkosaugos ir ekonominę atsakomybę jos pereis prie trimačio veiklos minimumo elementų integravimo, bendrosios vertės (angl. *shared value*) kūrimo, įgyvendins organizacijos pilietinę atsakomybę (Carroll, 2016: 7).

Organizacijos darnaus vystymo ir socialinės atsakomybės konceptai yra panašūs: abiem atvejais siekiama maksimizuoti visuomenei kuriamą bendrąją vertę, į veiklą integruojami trimačio veiklos minimumo elementai. Tačiau minėti konceptai neturėtų būti vartojami kaip sinonimai, nes organizacijos darnaus vystymo koncepte, skirtingai nei socialinės atsakomybės atveju, pabrėžiami abu kuriamos bendrosios vertės lygmenys – visuomenė bei suinteresuotosios šalys, esančios organizacijos vertės grandinėje, ir organizacijos veiklos trumpalaikis ir ilgalaikis poveikis suinteresuotoms šalims bei aplinkai (Ashrafi, Adams, Walker, Magnan, 2018: 677). Taigi organizacijos, taikančios darnaus vystymo modelį, kartu prisiima ir socialinę atsakomybę, tuo tarpu organizacijos socialinė atsakomybė organizacijos darnumo praktikų neapima. Apibendrinant galima teigti, kad tuo atveju, kai organizacijos socialinė atsakomybė orientuota į trumpalaikę perspektyvą ir apima pavienes veiklas, kurios neintegruotos į organizacijos strategiją, arba veiklos orientuotos tik į pačios organizacijos vertės grandinėje kylančio nepageidaujamo poveikio sumažinimą, socialinė atsakomybė yra tik tarpinis organizacijos darnaus vystymo etapas (Rahdari, Sepasi, Moradi, 2016: 358; Ashrafi, Adams, Walker, Magnan, 2018: 678).

Organizacijos pilietiškumas (angl. *corporate citizenship*) organizacijos darnumo ir socialinės atsakomybės diskurse taip pat yra svarbus konceptas. Jį nagrinėjant politikos mokslų teorijų ir žinių kontekste, organizacijos vaidmuo įgauna kitą prasmę, nei įprasta vadybos literatūroje, kur organizacijos pilietiškumo konceptas neretai integruojamas į socialinės atsakomybės sampratą. D. Matten'as ir A. Crane (2003: 13) organizacijos socialinę atsakomybę apibrėžia kaip organizacijos vaidmenį administruojant pilietines asmens teises (Matten, Crane, 2003: 13) ir skirsto organizacijų pilietiškumą į tris lygius: ribotą (angl. *limited*), taikant pavienes organizacijos pilietiškumo priemones, pavyzdžiui, filantropiją; ekvivalentišką (angl. *equivalent*), taikant organizacijos pilietiškumo priemones, kurios vertinamos kaip organizacijos socialinės atsakomybės priemonių atitinkmuo; išplėstą (angl. *extended*), taikant organizacijos pilietiškumo priemones, papildančias organizacijos socialinės atsakomybės priemones, kitaip sakant, prisiimant atsakomybę už pilietinių asmens teisių administravimą. Autoriai argumentuoja, kad pilietiškumas liberaliajame modelyje apibrėžiamas kaip asmens pilietinės, socialinės ir politinės teisės. Iš esmės valdžios vaidmuo čia yra esminis: suteikti ir gerbti asmens teises, pasitelkus gerovės valstybės institucijas, rūpintis jų įgyvendinimu ir apsauga. Tuo tarpu organizacijos pilietiškumas pasireiškia ne konkrečių teisių turėjimu, bet atsakomybės gerbti šias asmens teises prisiėmimu. Organizacijos pilietiškumas neturėtų apsiriboti vien tik organizacijos socialine politika ir programomis, kurios yra panašios į taikomas organizacijos socialinės atsakomybės priemones. D. Matten'as ir A. Crane (2003: 8) teigia, kad organizacijų pilietiškumas veiksmingai pasireiškia tada, kai organizacija perima valdžios funkcijas, o tokį organizacijos pilietiškumą apibrėžia kaip organizacijos vaidmenį administruojant pilietines asmens teises. Autoriai pripažįsta, kad organizacijos nėra vienintelės administruojančios šias teises, bet pabrėžia, kad joms šiuo atveju tenka išties didelė atsakomybė. Be to, pasak D. Matten'o ir A. Crane (2003: 9), globalizacijos procesai sumažina valstybės, kaip vienintelio teisių užtikrinimo garanto, galimybes, todėl organizacijų vaidmuo administruojant piliečių teises globalizacijos kontekste tampa vis svarbesnis.

1.2. Socialinis verslumas ir darnus vystymas

Socialinio verslumo mokslo kryptis yra besivystanti, todėl trūksta mokslinio pagrindimo, neapibrėžtas teorinis turinys. Atlikus mokslinės literatūros analizę galima teigti, kad studijose nagrinėjami skirtingi socialinio verslumo apibrėžties aspektai bei dimensijos, ne visada sutariama dėl socialinio verslumo koncepto apibrėžties, nėra bendros nuomonės, ką reiškia socialinė dimensija socialinio verslumo koncepte, be to, trūksta studijų, kur būtų pateikti konceptualūs socialinio verslumo fenomeno tyrimo sprendimai.

Verslumo socialinio vaidmens sąsajos su vystymo (angl. *development*) konceptu, kuris savo ruožtu sietinas su darnumo, integracijos tikslais, atsiskleidžia nagrinėjant socialinio verslumo apibrėžties. Pasak J. Macke, J. A. Rubim'o Sarate, J. Domeneghini, K. Aparecida da Silva (2018: 677), mokslo studijose socialinio verslumo konceptas nagrinėjamas jį siejant su komerciniu verslumu (Austin ir kt., 2016; Mace ir kt., 2012), instituciniu kontekstu (Mair, Marti, 2009), viešuoju sektoriumi (King, Roberts, 1987; Dees, 2007), bendruomenės ir socialinio kapitalo plėtra (Montgomery ir kt., 2012; Onyx, Leonard, 2010), švietimo kontekstu (Miller ir kt., 2012), antreprenierių tipologija (Zahra ir kt., 2009). Apibrėžti, kur socialinę dimensiją atskleidžia tokios charakteristikos kaip socialinė vertė, socialinis pokytis, socialiniai poreikiai, pateikia A. Rahdari, S. Sepasi, M. Moradi (2016: 348), jie socialinį verslumą apibrėžia kaip „socialinę vertę kuriantį procesą, kai inicijuojamas socialinių problemų sprendimas, pasitelkus inovatyvias strategijas, kurios apima išteklių telkimą, socialinius pokyčius lemiančių galimybių įgyvendinimą, socialinių poreikių tenkinimą, socialinių paslaugų plėtrą“.

Socialinio verslumo apibrėžtyse vystymo konceptas išryškėja konkurencijos arba bendradarbiavimo ir socialinio solidarumo kontekste. Konkurencijos požiūriu vystymo konceptas yra ekonominio pobūdžio. Tuo tarpu solidarumo požiūriu jis įgauna išsipareigojimo visuomenei bruožų. Bendradarbiavimo požiūriu vystymo konceptas sietinas su gebėjimu kurti ir keisti rinkos, kurioje veikiama, struktūrą, todėl svarbūs tokie aspektai kaip antreprenieriai ir jų įgalinimas, ekonominiai paslaugų teikėjų ir klientų santykiai, informacijos srautų cirkuliacija, išplėta institucinė struktūra, sociokultūrinis tapatumas ir, žinoma, socialinis kapitalas, kuris apibrėžiamas kaip „sutelktų esamų ir potencialių išteklių visuma, prieinama per bendradarbiavimo tinklą, iš kurio šie ištekliai ir kyla“ (Macke, Rubim Sarate, Domeneghini, Aparecida da Silva, 2018: 679).

Įvertinus tai, kad socialinis kapitalas yra socialinės veiklos pagrindas, galima teigti, kad darnaus vystymo tikslus įgyvendina organizacijos, gebančios kurti ir valdyti bendradarbiavimo tinklus, įgalinančios antreprenierius proaktyviai veikti, įvertinusios kontekstą, prisiimančios išsipareigojimus, bendradarbiaudamos pasitelkia socialinį kapitalą ir kuria socialinę vertę suinteresuotoms šalims, kitaip sakant, vykdo socialinę veiklą. Antreprenieriai, pasitelkę naujausius metodus, derindami skirtingus išteklius, taip pat ir socialinį kapitalą, kuria socialinę vertę, atliepdami suinteresuotų šalių poreikius. Svarbu pabrėžti, kad organizacijos socialinio verslumo procesas pirmiausiai skatina pačią organizaciją diegti naujoves ir įgalina prisiimti socialinę atsakomybę. Taigi atliepiant suinteresuotų šalių poreikius, organizacijos prisiima socialinę atsakomybę, o taikydamos įvairius veiklos metodus tampa atviros, lanksčios ir nuolat besimokančios. Organizacijos socialinis verslumas svarbus dar dviem aspektais. Pirmiausia, šiame procese, vykdamas socialinę veiklą, sutelkiami unikalūs ištekliai, taip kuriama įtrauki visuomenė. Antra, inovatyviais būdais, derindama šiuos išteklius ir įgyvendindama socialinę veiklą, organizacija daro poveikį, kuris lemia ilgalaikius ekonominius, socialinius, gamtos saugos pokyčius, taip prisidedama prie darnaus vystymo tikslų įgyvendinimo. Svarbu pabrėžti, kad šiandien iš organizacijų tikimasi būtent socialinės vertės kūrimo ir jos pasidalinimo su suinteresuotomis šalimis, neapsiribojant tik paslaugų ar prekių teikimu. Organizacijos socialinio verslumo ir darnaus vystymo proceso modelis pateiktas 1 lentelėje.

Socialinio verslumo diskurse sutariama, kad socialinė vertė yra būtina socialinio verslumo sąlyga, o pats socialinis verslumas turi būti ne tik rezultatyvus, bet ir veiksmingas. Socialinę vertę R. Lubberink'as, V. Bloc'as, J. Ophem'as, G. Velde ir O. Omta (2018: 54) apibrėžia kaip vertę visuomenei, kuri kuriama sprendžiant socialines problemas ar atliepiant visuomenės poreikius. Be to, socialinis verslumas turi būti orientuotas į ilgalaikius rezultatus – socialinį poveikį ir socialinį pokytį. *Socialinis poveikis* apibrėžiamas kaip procesas, kai numatomi ir įvertinami socialiniai padariniai, nulemti vykdomos politikos ar socialinių antreprenierių veiklos, tuo tarpu socialinis poveikis apima visus socialinius ir kultūrinius padarinius žmonių populiacijai, nulemtus tiek privataus, tiek viešo sektoriaus dalyvių veiksmų, kurie keičia žmonių gyvenimo

1 lentelė. Organizacijos socialinio verslumo ir darnaus vystymo proceso modelis

Šaltinis	Kontekstas: organizacijos išoriniai ir vidiniai veiksniai				
Įvediniai	Organizacijai prieinami ištekliai	Socialiniai antreprenieriai, suinteresuotos šalys, socialinis kapitalas, vidiniai organizacijos ištekliai, socialinės naujovės			
	Organizacijos socialinės atsakomybės priemonės			Organizacijos darnaus vystymo priemonės	Organizacijos pilietiškumo priemonės
Etapai	1	2	3	4	5
Atsakomybė	Antreprenieriai				
Veikla	Verslumas	Socialinis verslumas			
	Pavienių elementų integravimas	Dvimačio veiklos minimumo elementų įtraukimas	Trimačio veiklos minimumo elementų įtraukimas	Darnaus vystymo elementų įtraukimas	Pilietiškumo elementų įtraukimas
Rezultatas organizacijos atžvilgiu	Verslo modelis, orientuotas į kuriamos vertės išsaugojimą	Verslo modelis, orientuotas į socialinės vertės kūrimą		Brandus verslo modelis, orientuotas į socialinės vertės didinimą	
Rezultatas suinteresuotų šalių atžvilgiu		Socialinė vertė			
	Produktai ir paslaugos				
Poveikis laiko perspektyvoje	Trumpalaikis			Ilgalaikis	
Vertės pasidalijimo lygmenys	Organizacija, suinteresuotos šalys, organizacijos vertės grandinė			Visuomenė Makroekonomika	

Šaltinis: sudaryta autorės

būdą, darbą, gebėjimą derinti įvairias gyvenimo sritis bei patenkinti savo pačių poreikius, atlikti aktyvų visuomenės nario vaidmenį (Ebrasi, 2013: 190). M. Hlady-Rispal ir V. Servantie (2018: 63) pateikia keturis socialinės vertės kūrimo etapus: socialinės vertės pasiūlymo formavimas (angl. *value proposition*), gaunama vertė (angl. *value capture*), vertės pasidalijimas (angl. *value sharing*), vertės generavimas (angl. *value generation*). Vertės pasiūlymo formavimas susijęs su verte, kurią antreprenieriai organizacijos vardu siūlo tikslinei rinkai. Bet prieš pateikiant rinkai pasiūlymą, pirmiausia jį reikia sugeneruoti. Vertei generuoti būtini žmonės, turintys reikiamas kompetencijas, ir kiti organizacijos sutelkti ištekliai. Svarbu pabrėžti, kad šiame etape pagrindinis yra antreprenieris – tiek individualiu, tiek organizacijos lygmeniu. Taigi pirmas etapas prasideda nuo socialinio antreprenierio ir suinteresuotųjų šalių sąveikos. Dalyvių vertybės, kompetencijos, ištekliai ir metodai, kaip dalyviai sąveikauja, turi įtakos generuojamai vertei. Gaunama vertė yra susijusi su įmonių verslo modeliu, gebėjimu diversifikuoti finansavimo šaltinius (pajamos iš komercinės, finansinės veiklos, dotacijos, aukos ar kitos filantropijos formos), valdyti išlaidas, išmatuoti vertę organizacijos lygmeniu. Gaunama vertė socialinio verslo kontekste toliau tiesiogiai nukreipiama į socialinės vertės pasiūlymo įgyvendinimą, tačiau dalis gautos vertės turi užtikrinti organizacijos vystymąsi. Vertės pasidalijimas suprantamas kaip pasidalijimas su suinteresuotomis šalimis: naudos gavėjais (angl. *beneficiaries*), klientais, rėmėjais, komerciniais partneriais, institucijomis, vidiniais dalininkais ir ekosistemos dalyviais bei visuomene. Kartu tai gautos pajamos iš produktų ar paslaugų, reputacija, žinomumas. Svarbu pabrėžti, kad *socialinės* ir *ekonominės vertės* sampratos nėra tapačios, todėl, siekiant užtikrinti socialinės vertės kūrimą ilgalaikėje perspektyvoje, būtina gauti ir ekonominę vertę. Vertės paskirstymas sukuria prielaidas vertės tinklui su suinteresuotomis šalimis, pavyzdžiui, tiekėjais, klientais, partneriais, institucijomis, kurti. Sėkmingos, socialiniu

požiūriu verslios organizacijos proaktyviai kuria savo pačių socialinės vertės tinklus, kuriuose dalijasi savo socialine vizija (Zhang, Swanson, 2014: 183).

Spręsdama vietos bendruomenės problemas, organizacija gali rinktis skirtingus socialinės atsakomybės lygius, pavyzdžiui, dvimačio veiklos minimumo (ekonominiai ir socialiniai elementai) arba trimačio veiklos minimumo (ekonominiai, socialiniai, aplinkosaugos elementai) perspektyvą ir integruoti socialinės atsakomybės elementus į esamą verslo modelį (1 lentelė). Tačiau reikėtų atkreipti dėmesį, kad šie elementai orientuoti į trumpalaikį poveikį ir į organizacijos vertės grandinės dalyvius. Jei organizacija siekia ilgalaikio pokyčio visuomenėje, makroekonominėje aplinkoje ir darnumo, ji turi sukurti brandų, darnų ir atsakingai veikiantį verslo modelį, kuris apimtų visą eilę sprendimų, susijusių su įmonės strategija ir vadybos sistema.

Socialinės inovacijos (angl. *social innovation*) literatūroje vertinamos kaip naujesnė kategorija nei įprastos rinkodaros, produkto, proceso, organizacijos, verslo modelio ir tiekimo grandinės inovacijos, ir, nors abejojama, ar socialinės inovacijos iš esmės yra nauja kategorija, išvelgiant sąsajas su esama inovacijų kategorijų visuma, sutariama, kad socialinės inovacijos yra neatskirama socialinio verslo dalis. Pasak A. Rahdari, S. Sepasi, M. Moradi (2016: 350), inovacijų kategorijos, apibrėžiančios suinteresuotųjų šalių ištraukimo (angl. *engagement*) į bendros vertės kūrimo ir veiklos finansavimo struktūrų (angl. *funding structures development*) formavimo sąlygas, yra pačios svarbiausios socialinio verslo kontekste. Socialinių inovacijų diskurse sutariama, kad inovacijos yra „bendrakūros proceso, atviro žinių srautams iš ekonominės, socialinės ir gamtinės aplinkos, rezultatas“ (Le, Dao, Pham, Tran, 2019: 3). Pasak S. Sabato, B. Vanhercke ir G. Verschraegen'o (2017: 158), socialinės inovacijos: „Tai inovacijos, kurios yra socialinės tiek taikomomis priemonėmis, tiek rezultatais. Tai naujos produktų, paslaugų modelių idėjos, kurios kartu veiksmingiau nei alternatyvos patenkina socialinį poreikį ir sukuria naujus socialinius ryšius bei bendradarbiavimą. Kitaip tariant, tai inovacijos, kurios ne tik tenkina visuomenės poreikius, bet ir didina visuomenės gebėjimą veikti.“ Šis apibrėžimas pabrėžia dvi socialinių inovacijų dimensijas – rezultatą ir procesą. Inovacijos yra transformacijos procesas, o ne jos kryptis. Šiame transformacijos procese socialinių antrepnerių vaidmuo yra svarbiausias, nes būtent jie, taikydami inovatyvius sprendimus ir naudodami unikalius išteklių derinius, kuria socialinę vertę bei atliepia nepatenkintus socialinius poreikius (Munshi, 2010: 161; Perez, Hands, McKeever, 2017: 3021).

Taigi socialiniai antrepneriai (angl. *social entrepreneurs*) yra pokyčių visuomenėje varomoji jėga ir svarbūs socialinio verslumo proceso dalyviai, tad jų įgalinimas yra aktualus aspektas organizacijos darnaus vystymo kontekste. Įgalinimo (angl. *empowerment*) sampratą F. Avelino, A. Dumitru, C. Cipolla, I. Kunze ir J. Wittmayer (2019: 23) apibrėžia kaip procesą, kurio dalyviai įgyja gebėjimą mobilizuoti tikslui pasiekti būtinus išteklius, ir įvardija šešias psichologinio įgalinimo dimensijas (angl. *dimensions of psychological empowerment*), kurias būtina įvertinti socialinio antrepnerio įgalinimo procese: susietumas (angl. *relatedness*), autonomija (angl. *autonomy*), kompetencija (angl. *competence*), poveikis (angl. *impact*), prasmė (angl. *meaning*), psichologinis atsparumas (angl. *resilience*). Šiame kontekste organizacijoms kyla rimtas iššūkis, skatinantis peržiūrėti savo valdymo struktūras, žmonių išteklių valdymo strategijas, veiklos metodus, siekiant įgalinti antrepnerius.

Socialinis verslumas nebūtinai turi būti nukreiptas į socialinius segmentus, kurie verslui yra komerciškai nepatrauklūs, jis galimas visur, tik turi būti pritaikytas unikaliai politinei, socialinei, ekonominei ir technologinei aplinkai. Pažymėtina, kad socialiniai atrepneriai turi ne tik pripažinti socialinius klausimus, bet ir juos atliepti, sudarydami atitinkamas socialinio verslo galimybes, įvertinę, kad institucinis kontekstas ne tik sukuria socialinių inovacijų diegimo prielaidas, bet ir apribojimus (Tracey, Stott, 2016: 57). D. D. Zhang'as ir L. A. Swanson'as (2014: 180) skiria išorinius ir vidinius institucinio konteksto veiksnus: išoriniams priskyrė valstybės politiką, socialinę ir ekonominę aplinkas; vidiniams – lyderystę, apsirūpinimą ištekliais, įtinklinimą (angl. *embeddedness*). Jų teigimu, priimant socialinius iššūkius, lyderystei socialiai versliose organizacijose tenka pagrindinis vaidmuo (Zhang, Swanson, 2014: 182). Socialiai verslių įmonių lyderių asmeninis ištraukimas, nustatant ir didinant socialinio verslo galimybes, kritiškai svarbus ir užtikrina socialiai orientuotos organizacijos kultūros puoselėjimą.

Svarbu atkreipti dėmesį į tai, kad socialinio verslumo procesas gali vykti ne tik ne pelno organizacijose, bet ir pelno siekiančiame versle bei hibridinėse organizacijose. Literatūroje apibrėžiant socialinę veiklą vykdančią organizaciją autorių nuomonės išsiskiria. Nors daugelis jų pritaria, kad teisinės organizacijų formos

neturėtų būti kriterijai, pagal kuriuos vertinamas organizacijų socialinis verslo pobūdis, vis dėlto pateikia skirtingą socialinės įmonės sampratą. D. D. Zhang'o, L. A. Swanson'o (2014: 177) nuomone, tol, kol abu socialiniai ir verslo siekiai atsiskleidžia organizacijos misijoje, organizacija gali būti vertinama kaip socialiai versli. A. Rahdari, S. Sepasi, M. Moradi (2016: 351) pabrėžia, kad socialinis verslumas transformuoja organizacijas į socialines įmones. Šis klausimas socialinio verslumo diskurse vis dar lieka neišspręstas ir yra vienas iš aspektų, į kuriuos tyrėjai skatinami atsakyti savo mokslo studijose.

Išvados

Verslumo procesas pirmiausia paskatina pokyčius pačioje organizacijoje. Atliepiančią kompleksinę ir dinamišką organizacijos konteksto turinį, organizacijos ne tik prisiima socialinę atsakomybę, bet ir tampa atvirose įvairiems veiklos metodams. Organizacijos, vykdydamos socialinę veiklą, sutelkia skirtingus, unikalius išteklius – socialinį kapitalą ir taip prisideda prie įtraukios visuomenės kūrimo, daro poveikį suinteresuotoms šalims, kuris lemia ilgalaikius ekonominius, socialinius, gamtosaugos pokyčius ir taip prisideda prie darnaus vystymo tikslų įgyvendinimo. Ilgalaikio socialinio pokyčio ir darnumo visuomenėje siekianti organizacija turi sukurti ir išplėtoti brandų darnų bei atsakingą verslo modelį, kuris apimtų visą eilę sprendimų, susijusių su įmonės strategija ir vadybos sistema.

Organizacijos socialinio verslumo ir darnaus vystymo proceso modelyje išskirtos trys organizacijos verslo modelio brandos perspektyvos, susiejant jas su socialiniu verslumu ir kuriama socialine verte, organizacijos taikomomis socialinės atsakomybės priemonėmis ir socialiniu poveikiu laike bei vertės pasidalijimo lygmenimis:

1. Verslo modelis, orientuotas į ekonominės vertės išsaugojimą. Į jį integruotos pavienės socialinės atsakomybės priemonės, kurios nedaro poveikio ilgalaikėje perspektyvoje ir yra nukreiptos arba į pačios organizacijos veikloje kylančios rizikos mažinimą, arba į suinteresuotąsias šalis, esančias toje pačioje vertės grandinėje.

2. Verslo modelis, orientuotas į socialinės vertės kūrimą. Verslo modelis su integruotais dvi- ar trimatės veiklos minimumo elementais, kurie apsiriboja ribotu poveikiu laiko ir vietos atžvilgiu, tai yra trumpalaikio poveikio priemonės, kurios nukreiptos į suinteresuotąsias šalis organizacijos vertės grandinėje. Jei organizacija socialinės atsakomybės priemones integruoja pamažu, rekomenduojama pradėti nuo socialinės ir ekonominės dimensijų elementų integravimo, nes būtent šios sėkmingos integracijos rezultatas – išplėtotas bendradarbiavimo tinklas ir santykiai, įgalinantys tikslingiau parinkti kitos – gamtosaugos dimensijos elementus.

3. Brandus verslo modelis, orientuotas į socialinės vertės didinimą. Verslo modelis su integruotais trimatės veiklos minimumo – ekonominės, socialinės, gamtosaugos dimensijų elementais, orientuotas į ilgalaikį poveikį ir visuomenę plačiaja prasme.

Šis socialinio verslumo ir organizacijos darnaus vystymo proceso modelis rodo, kad socialinės atsakomybės (kartu ir trimatės veiklos minimumo elementų) integravimas nėra baigtinis procesas. Organizacijos pilietiškumo priemonių integravimas į organizacijos verslo modelį, vadovaujantis išplėstinio organizacijos atsakomybės lygio samprata, organizacijai prisiimant atsakomybę už pilietinių asmens teisių administravimą, yra iššūkis tiek organizacijai, tiek visai ekosistemai. Tačiau šį iššūkį priėmusios organizacijos turi potencialą būti darnaus vystymo varomąja jėga.

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THE ROLE OF CORPORATE SOCIAL ENTREPRENEURSHIP IN THE CONTEXT OF SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

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Summary

The aim of the article is to reveal the role of corporate social entrepreneurship in the context of sustainable development. This study raises the question – how can business organizations, through corporate social entrepreneurship, become a driving force for sustainable development? The research responds to problematic questions raised by researchers in the field and the insights on the development of further research in recent scientific studies such as: the lack of studies that address the process of organizational social entrepreneurship in the context of sustainable development, the lack of study of social entrepreneurship with depth-focused analysis. For research the method of systematic analysis of literature was used.

By answering to the initial question, it is important to emphasize that the social entrepreneurial process of an organization first of all encourages the organization itself to innovate and enables social responsibility. Responding to the complex and dynamic content of the organizations context, organizations becomes more opened to methods and practice that are innovative and flexible. Social entrepreneurship of an organization is important in two other respects. Firstly, this process mobilizes different and unique resources for social activities, and at the same time contributes to an inclusive society. Second, by combining these resources in an innovative way and implementing social activities, the organization exerts an impact that drives long-term changes in economic, social, and environmental perspectives, thus contributing to the sustainability goals.

Summarizing the concepts of corporate social entrepreneurship, social responsibility, corporate citizenship and corporate sustainability, the framework of corporate social entrepreneurship and sustainable development process was formed, linking three perspectives of organization's business model maturity, social value, social responsibility levels and social impact in different time and place scales:

1. A business model focused on value preservation. Incorporating limited CSR which focuses on short-term impact and are either focused on reducing the risks inherent in the organization itself or addressed to an individuals in the same value chain.

2. A business model focused on creating social value. A business model with integrated two bottom line or three bottom line perspective dimensions with focuses on short-term impact and targeted at stakeholders within the organization's value chain. In case the organization integrates the social responsibility dimensions gradually, it is recommended to start from the 2BL perspective (social and economic) dimensions, and through network and relationship to get more clear view on communities expectations regarding 3BL (environmental issues) perspective.

3. A mature business model focused on enhancing social value. Business models with integrated 3BL perspective (economic, social, environmental) dimensions that focus on long-term impact and society at large.

The integrated process model demonstrates that 3BL CSR is not a finite process but a challenging perspective. Integration of extended CSR into the corporate business model, by taking on the responsibility for the administration of civil rights, is not a challenge only for the organization but also the entire ecosystem. However, organizations that face this challenge have the potential to be a driving force for sustainable development.

KEY WORDS: *Sustainable development, Social entrepreneurship, Social value.*

JEL CODES: L31, M10, O35, Q01, Q56

Received: 2019–09–24

Revised: 2019–10–15

Accepted: 2019–10–25

BOOK REVIEW

DR. SUJIT KUMAR¹

**THE ECONOMIC CRISIS AND ITS AFTERMATH IN THE
NORDIC AND BALTIC COUNTRIES
DO AS WE SAY AND NOT AS WE DO**

Written by Professor Hilmar Þór Hilmarsson
(University of Akureyri, Iceland & Visiting Scholar, University of Cambridge, UK)

The book *The Economic Crisis and its Aftermath in the Nordic and Baltic Countries Do As We Say and Not As We Do* written by Professor Dr. Hilmar Þór Hilmarsson is unique in many respects. It provides a broad view about the Nordic-Baltic countries, their response to the crisis of 2008/09 and the post-crisis consequences. Both regional and international aspects have been analyzed, namely regional institutions such as the European Union (EU) and global institutions such as the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in the operational sphere where policy choices of these nations get influenced. The author points out that Barry Eichengreen (Professor of Economics and Political Science at UC Berkeley) suggested that the title of this book should include: ‘Do as we say and not as we do’, reflecting author’s view mainly to a comparison between how Nordic countries may want the Baltic States to respond to crisis as compared to how they would respond themselves in comparable situations. In order to support this statement, the author mentions some instances, for example, comparison of how Finland and Sweden responded to the banking crisis they experienced in the early 1990s with how the Baltic States responded to the 2008/09 global economic and financial crisis, arguably under Nordic (mainly Swedish) influence. All those countries are then influenced by regional and global institutions. Thus, the author framed the title of the book as “The Economic Crisis and its Aftermath in the Nordic and Baltic Countries: *Do as we say and not as we do*”.

The author has used the word “Crisis” in the title mainly to indicate the global economic and financial crisis which was experienced in the latter part of 2008, but other crises are also discussed for comparison, including an earlier crisis that hit Finland and Sweden in the early 1990s. In view of the author, the crisis response was influenced by the ownership of the banking system in Baltic States and the consequences continued post-crisis. The author says that historically, Baltic States are integrated with the Nordic countries and when the Baltic joined the World Bank Group as full member states, they also joined its Nordic Constituency, which is known as Nordic-Baltic Constituency. Same arrangement is used at the International Monetary Fund. The author points out that Iceland, the smallest member of the Nordic group, made the political decision in 1991 to become the first country in the world to recognize the independence of the Baltic States. As small emerging countries, the Baltic States tend to limit their international involvement in their own economic, political and security interest. The Baltics are member of the Nordic Investment Bank, based in Helsinki, Finland.

The author visited the Baltic States and as a Political Advisor to the Icelandic Ministry for Foreign Affairs, he himself involved in integrating them into Nordic-Baltic World Bank Group coordination by chairing the meetings for the constituency and he took initiatives also to invite the Baltic States to those meetings

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which were held in Reykjavik for the first time. Geographically, the scope of the study is subject to mainly Nordic countries and the Baltic States together with the interaction between small states and external forces which include USA, Russia, China, European Union, International Monetary Fund and some major commercial banks etc.

This book has been divided into thirteen chapters. Each chapter presents case study and comparative analysis. The theoretical approach applied by Professor Hilmarsson in this book is multidisciplinary. It draws on theories in economics, international trade and finance, political science, public administration, and public policy. This broad approach also reflects the author's academic training and diverse experience in economic development, international trade and finance, and public administration: working as a staff member of a global financial institution i.e., the World Bank Group in three different continents, as an advisor to the minister for foreign affairs in Iceland, and in academia as a professor. Definitions and theories used in each chapter of the book have been discussed in detail. There are some definitions which are still debated, such as what constitutes a small state. Such discussions are relevant for the study because the author has focused on Nordic countries and the Baltic States which are all classified as small states in European small states literature. Comparative analysis done by the author is based on the notion that what is small is relative to what one is comparing with. What is a small state in the Asian context may not be small in the European context? Theories about the behavior of small states in multilateral institutions are also discussed, together with the critical analysis of how they co-operate with, influence or are influenced by larger states, as well as other small states, when they are participating in the multilateral arrangements including regional and global institutions.

The book also discusses theories of economic integration in the context of the Nordic countries and the Baltic States. These countries have different levels of economic and political integration in Europe and therefore, they have different arrangements with the EU as member or non-member states.

The methodology used in the book is the case study method, i.e., multiple case studies and comparative analysis. Among the sources of evidence used for analysis in the book are secondary data, including reports and scholarly literature such as articles and books. The author has also conducted interviews and exchanged emails with many scholars, mainly in the field of economics, international finance, political science, and public administration. Direct observation also plays a role in this book, as the author draws on his experience and observations prior to and during the 2008/09 economic and financial crisis. Since 2006, he has lectured as a professor at many universities in all three Baltic States. Collected data have been used in tables and graphs constructed by the author to make sure that they can be compared across the countries discussed. The multiple theoretical and methodological approaches used in this book have made a possible ground for analysis. The period covered is 2005 to 2016 together with some historical figures especially related to countries' membership accession to various organizations and institutions. The Nordic countries and the Baltic States are closely connected via their financial sectors, with the exception of Iceland. Trade and investment links play a vital role in making economic integration between these countries. The author points out that these links have affected crisis transmission more than they affected crisis response. Nordic-Baltic region achieve economies of scale in their production through cross-border trade with Europe. Besides this, cross-border capital flows within the EU are also an important aspect for Nordic-Baltic region. Author explains that all the Nordic countries and Baltic States are participants in both European Economic Area (EEA) and the Schengen Area despite maintaining different and separate level of economic integration with Europe. The author highlights the issue of small states' alliance either with larger states or international organizations or both for their prosperity and even for their survival. The Nordic countries and the Baltic States also participate in regional institutions such as the EBRD (European Bank for Reconstruction and Development), which has also been active in reconstruction in the Baltic States and provided assistance to Latvia during the 2008/09 crisis.

Professor Hilmarsson has discussed about issues related to small states such as governance issues which are vulnerable in small states with small institutions and limited human and administrative capacities. Key issues, in this regard, are related to how do small countries work with international organizations and how do they manage their relationships with large multilateral powers and bureaucracies? Baltic States, after getting independence, formulated their economic policies including fiscal and monetary policies, exchange rate regi-

me etc. The author has made a comparative analysis of experience of the Nordic countries in the early 1990s financial crisis with the experience of the Baltic States during 2008/09 financial crisis when the economies of the Baltic States were hit exceptionally hard. After 2008/09 crisis, Sweden, a Nordic country advised the Baltics to adopt the euro but without national referendum whereas national referendum was practiced in Sweden in 1990s resulting in the rejection of the euro. The author looks at this as a case of “Do As We Say And Not As We Do”.

It is very interesting to see issues prevailing in the euro area. Professor Hilmarsson mentions that all three Baltic State governments adopted euro as a common currency after becoming members of European Union (EU) and he discusses how a common currency makes a ground for ties between member states and also unpredictable consequences when some member states are inside the currency union (e.g. Baltics) and others out of it (e.g. Sweden).

Professor Hilmarsson highlights some fundamental problems such as lack of solidarity within the diverse group of nations, absence of full banking union within the euro area and how economic spheres get affected or pressurized due to different growth rates within the currency union, since countries within the euro area do not have independent monetary and exchange rate tools to help them readjust. He points out an important issue in this regard that Baltic banking system is the part of currency union and the Nordic owners of the Baltic banking system exist outside the currency union. He critically analyses how awkward situation prevails within Nordic-Baltic region in this regard. He indicates the danger of risks in one country spreads to others in chain in the matter of growing interlinkages between financial systems in the Nordic-Baltic region. Issues related to rising debt levels in the Baltics and the foreign bank bailout during the 2008/09 crisis have been analyzed. The problem of lack of democratic accountability in case of ECB is also highlighted because ECB is considered as one of the strongest institutions within the EU. Issues related to Nordic welfare model and its adoption in the Baltic States have been analyzed. The author mentions that adopting the Nordic welfare model in its entirety would be out of reach and unsustainable at their current income level. Nor is there any reason for them to copy the Nordics on every account. He points out that currently the Baltics are closer to the free-market neoliberal Anglo-Saxon model and in his analytical view, the Baltic could gradually adopt the Nordic welfare model with more equal income distribution and more inclusive societies. Issues related to democratic aspect have been discussed and how is it in EU?

One-way outward migration out of Baltics and its negative aspects on the long-term economic growth have been highlighted and critically analyzed. Even in case of geographical boundary, the author points out that historically the Baltic States have been attacked or occupied on all sides, from the north by the Scandinavian countries, from the east by Russia, and from the south by Germany. Historically, these are fragile states, which have constantly struggled for survival.

In the comparative analysis of two small countries in the Nordic-Baltic region, Iceland and Latvia, he highlights many important facts. In terms of fiscal adjustment, the government of both countries implemented painful budget cuts, although the front-loaded fiscal austerity programme in Latvia was much more radical. As a welfare state Iceland ran larger fiscal deficits and for a longer time than a neoliberal Latvia did. Iceland and Latvia both were badly affected by the economic crisis of 2008/09, each has its own distinct history and culture and they are at different stages of development, both economically and socially. The author has analyzed the challenges faced and action taken by the governments of Iceland and Latvia during the 2008 crisis.

In this book, the author has highlighted the successes and failures of the Nordic countries and the Baltic States, the lessons learned from their experience of the 2008/09 economic crisis, and future challenges. The internal strengths and weakness of these countries are assessed as well as external opportunities and threats. Existing potential ground for Nordic-Baltic co-operation is discussed as these countries are linked via trade, investment and mobility of labor, in addition to a shared common history.

Lack of economic and political autonomy is considered among the main reasons behind poor post crisis performance in all three Baltic States and slow post crisis converging with either the richer Nordics or the EU15 member states. The author puts likely economic explanations of this poor performance chapter by chapter.

When economic development in Baltic States and Iceland is compared and analyzed, author highlights the striking differences in this regard. Besides this, the author has made an effort to answer the research questions and also raised many questions that make a basis for further research. Overall, this book provides carefully researched details of Nordic-Baltic region. The chapters written by Professor Hilmarsson in this book offer insightful and theoretical views on the economic crisis, policy approach, welfare model, global system in case of cross-border investment and trade links, economic aspects of migration, inter-linkages of financial systems, socio-economic development and fragile democracy etc. Professor Hilmarsson with his broad academic background and experience discusses several issues on Nordic-Baltic region that are of global importance. The book is a welcome and a valuable addition to the existing literature and very useful for academician, policy-makers and general readers. This book for sale at the publisher's website Routledge and is also available online at amazon website.

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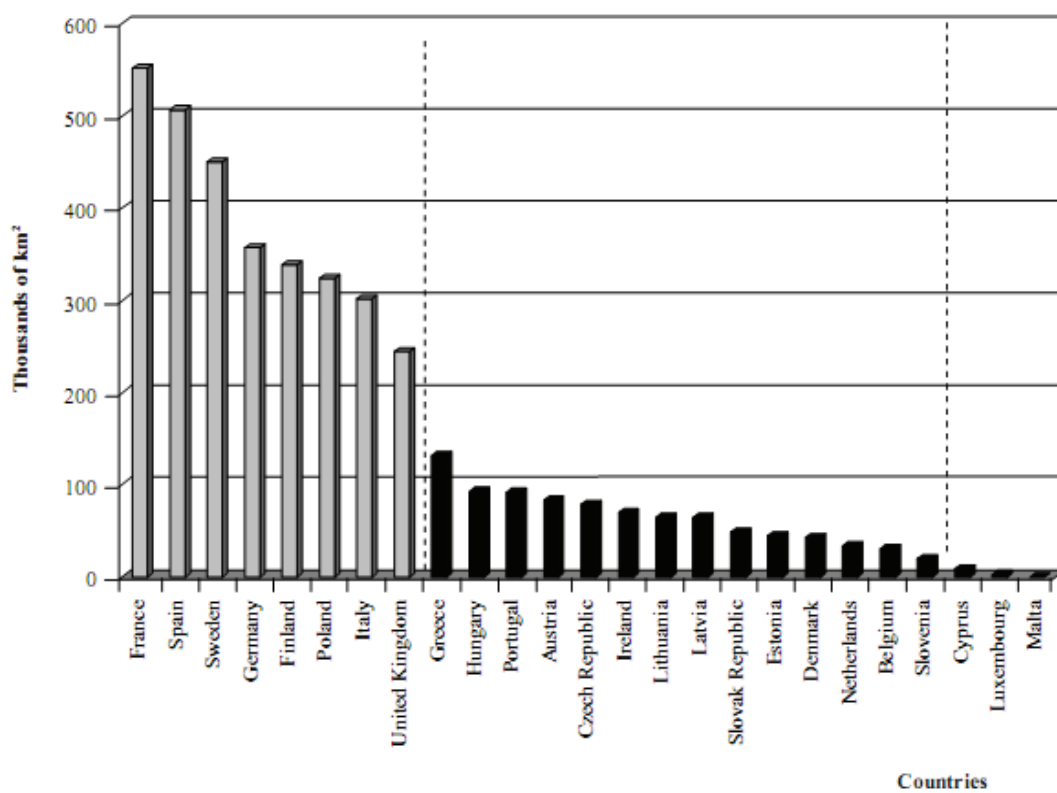


Figure 1. The biggest EU countries in area (in thousands of square metres)
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EU Enlargement – 20 Myths and Facts about Enlargement. (2006). European Commission. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

Nugent, N. (2006). Introduction: Does Size Matter in the European Union? *European Integration*, Vol. 28, No. 1, p. 14–20.

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Klaipėdos universiteto leidykla

REGIONAL FORMATION AND DEVELOPMENT STUDIES
Journal of Social Sciences
No. 3 (29)

Klaipėda, 2019

SL 1335. 2019 11 13. Apimtis 22 sąl. sp. l. Tiražas 90 egz.
Išleido ir spausdino Klaipėdos universiteto leidykla, Herkaus Manto g. 84, 92294 Klaipėda
Tel. (8 46) 398 891, el. paštas: leidykla@ku.lt; interneto adresas: <http://www.ku.lt/leidykla/>

