

Opportunities for Youth and Human Development

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The popularity of the concept of human development is growing with every year. It is now well known to scholars and politicians, and also to society at large. The growing interest in human development in society proves that the ultimate goal of Lithuania's policy of development should be to improve the quality of people's lives.

The Lithuanian Human Development Report 2001 is the seventh publication financially and conceptually supported by the United Nations Development Programme in Lithuania. This year, it focuses on prospects and opportunities in life for young people. The younger years are a complex period in life, young people's personalities are being formed, and they are beginning to have an impact on society. During this period a young person encounters a lot of problems that cannot always be dealt with individually. Do favourable pre-conditions exist in Lithuania that encourage young people to form socially active, moral personalities? Do they enjoy enough opportunities to feel fully integrated into society? Do they feel secure? All these problems are our concern. The participation of the younger generation in society is particularly important in a period of transition in which societal values, norms of behaviour and lifestyles are changing rapidly.

I believe that this publication will attract the attention of scholars, politicians and society in general to the complex problems that are facing young people, and will help to find ways of dealing with them as well as encourage further discussion on sustainable human development.

As in the past, this year's report offers views of independent experts that do not necessarily coincide with the official position of the government.



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The report is an independent publication. The analysis and recommendations presented in the report do not necessarily coincide with the views of the UNDP or the government of Lithuania.

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Executive summary

From the Editors

This is the seventh national annual report financially supported by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in Lithuania since 1995. As in previous years, the report robustly adheres to the sustainable human development concept formulated by the UNDP in 1990 and is prepared by a team of independent, locally based scholars.

This year's report is devoted to young people, to the problems they face and to their opportunities, and to their position in society as a social group. Both problems and opportunities are understood from a human development standpoint, beyond tangible material opportunities or opportunities related to livelihood. Apart from education, employment and security, these include societal and spiritual issues for young people and opportunities to share important societal values with other generations, to feel themselves a part of society so that they can govern principles of solidarity and respect not only the material but also the spiritual needs of all generations.

The message of the report conveys the idea that opportunities for young people today are opportunities for all members of society tomorrow. All around the world young people face enormous challenges regardless of their age and status in society. The chances young people as social group have for success depend both on the attitudes of society and on youth-orientated state policy in education, employment and human rights. In Lithuania, young people have so far not been enjoying the same opportunities as their contemporaries in developed countries. Young people do not feel themselves a respected and cared-for social group. If an integrated and targeted effort by the whole of society is not made to improve the situation, Lithuania will continue to let its young people slip away through emigration, crime and drug addiction.

I

Youth and society

To socially define the concept of 'young people' is complicated. It depends on many factors, which include the level of

the development of society. Young people differ as a social group from other age groups, however. The differences become evident when comparing social and political behaviour, attitudes and employment opportunities between age groups. Young people are more liberal, socially mobile and receptive to change. Among people under 30, 60% support the market economy. However, the economic and social polarisation of society determines the increasing differentiation in young people and conflict between the generations. In 1999, the most important spheres of life for young people were family, employment and education. The importance of education is increasing among young people.

The most important issues for Lithuanian society, according to young people, are related to economic, physical and psychological security. Young Lithuanians feel poorly integrated into society. They often feel ignored or unprepared to compete on the labour market. However, they do not show a great deal of interest in overcoming this social alienation. In 2000, more than half of young people said that they did not know about any organisations established specifically for them. Participation in NGOs, meanwhile, is on the wane.

The main concern for young people is unemployment and job security. Among the main obstacles to starting a private business, young people cited a lack of money (65%) and an insufficient legal basis (31%). Young people are expressing an intense and increasing desire to work or study in foreign countries.

In seeking to better integrate young people into society, political and economic measures are necessary, targeted towards different groups of young people. More attention should be paid to young people who neither study nor work. They are the group most vulnerable to social exclusion and so are the most difficult to reach. Young people who study are the most active, both from a political point of view and as a part of the labour market. They should therefore be encouraged to take part in decision-making processes involving issues related to themselves, and even more so in addressing global social problems.

Young Lithuanians do not differ greatly from their contemporaries in Latvia and Estonia in terms of social characteristics and orientation. They associate Europe with the future and with cultural development.

II Economy

In 2000, having laid the foundation for a market economy, Lithuania started a new stage in its development – integration into the European Union (EU). GDP grew by 3.9%. The major driving force behind the economic growth was a 20.5% increase in the export of goods and services. Exports to the EU in 2000 grew by 21.2%, making up 47.9% of the total exports.

However, a relatively low standard of living (GDP per capita barely reached 35% of the EU average), increasing structural unemployment and high unemployment among the young remain acute problems. Generally speaking, youth problems are determined by such factors as the macroeconomic environment, the structure of the economy, state investment in social capital and agreement between the interests of different generations and population groups within state policy.

One of the barriers that prevented young people from making use of their abilities was the fact that the majority of newly created jobs was in the services sector, which is relatively badly paid (surveys show that 52.2% of young people are employed in services), or in traditional branches of industry (22.6%), where highly skilled labour is not in demand. Skill-intensive industry produces only 3.5% of total value added, while the same indicator in the EU member states was 15-18%. The demand for highly skilled labour is restricted by a very small number of high-tech industries in the total industrial output, at only 4.4%, and the large share of low-technology industries, at 73%. Bearing in mind that the numbers of scientists, R&D personnel and students in Lithuania are similar to EU and candidate countries, the conclusion may be made that labour skills, particularly the skills of young people who have acquired an education during the years of independence, were not being used to the full.

A large number of jobs was created in small enterprises. Young people could have created jobs for themselves by setting up, for example, small new technology-based enterprises. Such efforts, however, were hindered by an inadequately small supply of venture capital on the market. An analysis of start-up capital showed that in 89% of cases the personal savings of owners were used for starting a personal enterprise. Seeking fiscal balance by cutting state expenditure reduced domestic demand and, consequently, the in-

come of the small- and medium-sized enterprises that prevail on the domestic market. The number of registered small- and medium-sized enterprises that are not operating grew by 14% in 2000 compared to 1999.

The negative impact of socio-economic reforms on different population groups, including young people, could have been mitigated by state investment in the social sector. Instead the government halved public investment. State investment was therefore smaller in Lithuania, at 1.5% of GDP, than in Latvia and Estonia, at 3.5% and 3.8% of GDP, respectively. In 2000, funds allocated for health care stood at 4.4% of GDP, which is half the EU average. Expenditure for education was 6.64% of GDP, lagging behind Poland and Latvia (above 7% of GDP). Human capital is being driven out of Lithuania. Young people were the most significant of those population groups who went abroad to seek employment in 2000.

The fundamental problems detrimental to the appropriate financing of social programmes were related to an unfavourable pattern of taxation, and the rapid ageing of the population. The number of people aged 60 and over per 100 children under the age of 15 reached 92 by the end of 2000, growing by 1.6 times over the previous 10 years. The State Social Insurance Fund's (SODRA's) difficult financial situation negatively influenced social welfare opportunities for young people. Its revenue constraints resulted in a shortage of funds that had to be remitted to the state's health and employment funds, which hampered the implementation of employment programmes. The supply of jobs to young people has fallen also because the pension age was increased.

As macroeconomic stability was achieved at the expense of economic growth, it was not capable of ensuring an increase in the income of the population and the reduction of structural unemployment. In this rapidly changing world, a country's or an individual's success depends on how quickly innovations are introduced, how well young people are educated, how many skills they have and how much knowledge is gained.

III Education

Reforms in education between 1999 and 2001 have been marked by activities and achievements focused on the following priorities: the modernisation of learning; raising the quality of education; the improvement of conditions in the education and learning of social pedagogues; and the harmonisation of the general education system. An important step in laying the foundations for sustainable improvement in the quality of education has been setting up a framework for early and pre-school education. The number of

children attending pre-school institutions fell by nearly three times between 1991 and 2000. In 2000, 41.1% of children of pre-school age attended kindergarten, of whom 11.8% were in rural areas and 58.0% were in urban areas. Children from rural and urban areas have unequal opportunities to prepare for primary school.

Between 1999 and 2000, basic education was prolonged from nine to ten years. The specialisation of basic education was finalised between 2000 and 2001. In the academic year 2000/2001, in the final grades of secondary school, pupils could choose between an exact, humanitarian or technical education. Legislation on higher education was adopted that legitimised colleges as non-university tertiary schools.

The state monopoly in education continues to further diminish under the pressure of the increasing number of private educational institutions that are emerging. Since 1999, the range of private educational institutions has changed qualitatively.

Accessibility to education remains an acute problem for all educational levels. The disproportion in primary, basic and secondary schools between rural and urban areas along with a lack of mobility deprive pupils from rural areas of the opportunity to enrol in different types of education past basic school. For students of specialised secondary and higher education who move to study from rural areas or small towns, settlement grants and targeted loans and stipends should be provided on a means-tested basis.

Remaining in the same grade for the second or third time is a prerequisite to dropping out of school. The total number of pupils who repeated courses between 1995/1996 and 2000/2001 was approximately 34,800. This demanded approximately 10 million LTL in additional funding annually. 'Repeat' pupils from the sixth and ninth grades usually drop out of basic school altogether. A record of drop-outs is kept by the Ministry of Education and Science and the Department of Statistics. However, the different methodology used for these calculations does not allow for accurate assessments of the situation and targeted policy measures. According to the Department of Statistics, approximately 4-5% of children aged 7-15 drop out of school annually. The Ministry of Education and Science has indicated that in 2000, 689 children dropped out of basic school (of whom 255 were disabled). The problem of dropping out should be related not only to compulsory education, but also to the necessity to provide opportunities to re-enter the education system and be involved in life-long education.

According to the Ministry of Education and Science, 9% of the total number of pupils in 2000/2001 had special needs. Only 1.1% of all these pupils were enrolled in special educational institutions.

Pupils should have access to quality basic education and have equal 'starting' opportunities, accessibility to secondary education and vocational training, and the chance to return to education at any time in their lives.

IV

Youth and the labour market

On the one hand young people determine the prospects for the labour market. Yet on the other they are the most vulnerable social group to labour market fluctuations. Generally speaking, the greatest chance of employment for young people comes from services and industry. However, 17.3% of young people are employed in agriculture. The reduction of employment in agriculture is an important prerequisite for EU membership and special programmes aimed at labour mobility should be implemented. A relatively high proportion (11%) of young people aged 20-29 years belongs to the category of specialists (engineers, teachers and doctors, for example) compared to those who are older than 30, of whom 15% are specialists. Qualifications among young people living in Lithuania's cities are significantly higher than those of young people in rural areas, and their work is better paid. The work young people do is paid nearly 40% less than the national average.

According to the labour exchange, the number of unemployed young people increases every year. On 1 November 2001, the level of unemployment among young people was 18.9% (total 12.0%). On average, every fourth person registered with the labour exchange is under 29. According to the labour force survey, however, the actual unemployment level among young people is twice as high as the registered one.

The level of unemployment is increasing among young men. The insufficient level of education and vocational training or their disparity with labour market demand often becomes the reason for unemployment among young people. Lithuanian Labour Exchange statistics indicate that at the beginning of 2001 the proportion of unemployed young people with a higher education was only 2.8% and with specialised secondary 8.3%. The proportion of young unemployed people without vocational training was 41.7%. Young people with a low level of education are exposed to a high risk of long-term unemployment. According to the labour force survey, the long-term unemployed in the second quarter of 2001 accounted for 58% of the total number of unemployed. Young people account for approximately a third of all the long-term unemployed. There are twice as many men as there are women among the young long-term unemployed.

The problem of youth employment is much wider than any labour market policy or approaches to the allocation of the Employment Fund. A system of measures aimed at improving employment opportunities among young people should include the advancement of basic education emphasising the importance of knowledge about labour market development, and strengthening the motivation to acquire competitive qualifications.

V

Standard of living: children, youth and poverty

Economic growth had no noticeable positive effect on the average standard of living of the population in 2000. Monthly disposable income per household member fell below the level of 1998 and reached 415 LTL. The real wage fell by 1.9%. The decrease in income led to a worsening of the consumption pattern. The proportion of the total consumer expenditure on food in 2000 was 44.4%. The poorest households allocated 64% of their total expenditure on food, and the wealthiest 31%. In 2000, consumer expenditure per capita of the wealthiest decile was 7.9 times higher than that of the poorest. (8.1 in 1999).

The standard of living in households with children is on average lower than that of households without children. In 2000 disposable income per capita in households with one child was slightly higher than the national average, and in households with three or more children it was 60% lower. Among the factors determining the standard of living of young people are the demographic composition of a household, the source of income, the occupation of household members and place of residence.

The proportion of young people's income from business and freelance activities in 2000 almost halved. The proportion of social benefits, on the contrary, grew significantly. Young people are becoming more and more dependent on social and private support.

The average income of the 18-24 age bracket exceeds 500 LTL per household member per month and is higher than the national average. If per capita income in the 18-19 age group is 561 LTL, it falls to 425 LTL in the 25-29 age group. It further decreases to 368 LTL in the 30-34 age bracket. The main reason for such a change in income is the number of dependants.

According to the relative poverty line, the poverty level in Lithuania in 2000 was 16%. The highest poverty level was in rural areas (27.6%) and lowest in the cities (12%). Approximately 560,000 people lived below the poverty line. While the poverty line in 2000 was 260 LTL, the poor spent on average 201 LTL. Poverty was much higher than the national average among households that live on benefits

and stipends (41%); have three or more children (37.6%); and where the breadwinner is a farmer (35%). In 2000, 31% of children under 18 were below the poverty line. More than 20% of children of pre-school age are living in poverty. Young people and children (particularly of a pre-school age) are more vulnerable to poverty than other age groups.

In 2000, 64% of respondents of the household budget survey attributed themselves to the middle-class and slightly more than one-third to the poor.

VI

Family

Under the influence of the continuing rapid transformation of society significant changes are occurring in family relationships and family models. During the last decade many stereotypes of contemporary family models were developed. Changes in family behaviour and family attitudes were particularly evident among young families (couples younger than 30).

The traditional family model recognises only marriages that have been officially confirmed in one way or another. At the present time the incidence of unregistered cohabitation is increasing, which indirectly gives evidence of the growing number of extra-marital children registered by both parents. The registration of cohabiting couples came into effect in July 2001.

The roles of men and women as fully worthy members of society used to be inseparable from living in a family as a married couple. Today approximately 40% of women aged 30 and older do not have a husband and are single, widowed or divorced. In the traditional family model marriages cannot be dissolved or broken off. The divorce level in Lithuania is relatively high and exceeds the highest divorce levels of countries in the European Union. Young families, as in the families of other age groups, are divorcing more often (65-70%) on the initiative of the woman. Nearly one-fifth of young couples that divorce do not have children, 60% of couples are raising one child, and the remaining couples have two or more children. Overall, every eighth family in Lithuania consists of only one parent, usually the mother.

The traditional family model recognises sexual relations only within marriage. If in 1990, 7% of all children were born out of wedlock, in 2000 the proportion increased to 22.6%. In rural areas, mothers aged up to 30 give birth to 23.8% of children out of wedlock, and in urban areas 19.5%.

In a traditional family model, children are perceived as an essential part of the family. Between 1990 and 2000, the birth rate decreased markedly from 2.02 to 1.35.

The traditional family identifies the role of the man as heading the family and as having more responsibility for its well-being. Today the absolute majority of families are 'two-career' families, where both husband and wife are professionally active. The role of the husband as head of the family is confirmed by approximately 6-8% of families.

Obviously, during such abrupt and deep societal transformation families lack an active and supportive state policy. Today the preparation for family life from an educational perspective is contradictory. A teaching programme called Family Ethics and Psychology, which encompassed a systematic way of teaching important general information and skills about family life, was abolished. Psychologists provided consultations for separating couples in all civil metrication departments for free. The services were dissembled when Vilnius municipality stopped financing the last psychologist at the Civic Metrication Department in 2001.

VII

Social assistance to families

The family is the main 'cell' of society, on which the future of a nation relies. State social assistance to families should be targeted at strengthening family stability and sustainability. So far the theoretical foundation for policy making in the field of social assistance to families as a societal activity has not been formulated. Social assistance for families raising children continues to be oriented mostly toward the payment of cash benefits, rather than to the provision of social services or addressing employment and housing needs. Social assistance benefits have a very significant impact on the standard of living of families receiving them; 56% of their income comes from social assistance benefits provided in various forms. However, in narrowing family assistance to cash benefits, it becomes more and more concentrated on the most socially disadvantaged families and does not contribute to the sustainability of a family.

Since 1995 the number of socially disadvantaged families has increased by 1.9 times and the number of children being raised in these families grew by 57%. Indirectly this provides evidence that state family assistance policy insufficiently contributes to the preconditions for family sustainability. There is a high risk that the children from these families will be neglected and not properly cared for during their developmental period crucial for socialisation and the formation of personality.

Approximately 70% of children in foster care are being cared for by close family relatives. Research shows that in implementing local government reform the decentralisation of children's homes and special educational institutions was carried out without setting a mechanism for the co-ordina-

tion of activities between the different types of care institutions. The establishment of alternative care within families was objectively slowed down by the municipalities, which, in attempting to provide assistance to children growing in problematic families, preferred an expansion of services offered in institutions instead of developing outside services for families.

At the start of 2001 there were approximately 20,000 children with disabilities, 44% of them receiving social benefits. However, services provided for children with disabilities are not only organised through social assistance and social services, but also through the education and training system. Care services provided at institutions dominated the social services pattern for children with disabilities. They constituted 65%, and out-of-institution services accounted for 35%. Out of every 100 children, approximately 15 children receive the latter services. However, this proportion differs for each municipality.

The narrow view of family assistance from the state as being the provision of monetary benefits should be changed, because this approach is not conducive to family sustainability. Family policy should be inseparable from employment policy and housing. Young people value employment and the family most. This attitude should be supported by a long-term strategy on family development as well as by family policies backed up by funding and investment.

VIII

Health

From 1990 to 2000, the annual number of births decreased from 56,900 to 34,100. The mortality rate continued its downward slide to 10.5 per 1,000 people. The positive changes in mortality conditioned an increase in average life expectancy at birth to 72.87 years of age (67.62 for men and 77.93 for women). Diseases of the cardiovascular system caused 53.8% of the overall number of deaths, oncological diseases were responsible for 19.8% and non-medical causes for 13% of the total deaths. Non-medical causes are the most common cause of death among children and young people. Deaths by non-medical causes were higher among boys than girls (165.8 and 29.0, respectively, per 100,000 population), suicide among boys was 55.2, and among girls 9.8, per 100,000 population. Infant mortality continued to fall, reaching 8.5 per 1,000 live births in 2000. Although Lithuania has the lowest infant mortality of all the countries of the former Soviet Union, it lags behind developed countries where infant mortality rarely exceeds 5 per 1,000 live births. In some regions and towns (Radviliškis, Kėdainiai, Alytus, Švenčioniai, Molėtai, Zarasai districts and the towns

of Palanga and Visaginas) infant mortality has considerably exceeded the national average for several years (over 18 per 1,000 live births). No targeted research has been made in this area. Women's mortality during childbirth was 11.8 per 100,000 live births. The number of birth pathologies constitutes 70.6% of all births. Every fourth woman who gave birth was diagnosed as being anaemic. The number of abortions was 69.6 per 100 births in 2000.

There is still no unified database allowing for a thorough and qualitative assessment of morbidity. Compared with 1999, there were 20.1% less infectious diseases, 14.3% less respiratory tract diseases and 4.5% less digestive tract diseases among children. The number of adults and children suffering from tuberculosis is falling. In 2000, the number of children suffering from active tuberculosis was 16.8 per 100,000 children aged 0-14 (21.9 in 1999).

Since 1997 the budget has no longer financed medical units at school and children go to polyclinics for prophylactic examinations and vaccinations. Schoolchildren will be less likely to receive regular medical examinations as well as receive emergency medical assistance at school.

In every district there should be guaranteed quality and an essential minimum of services. For the majority of health care facilities, funding is not assigned for the procurement of new technology and the repair and maintenance of old equipment. Health care reforms do not encourage hospitals to accept more patients and earn more money. The balancing of the health insurance budget should be a top priority for the government.

IX

Juvenile crime

In 2000, compared to 1999, total registered crime grew by 6.8%, drug-related crimes increased by 33%, and registered serious crime decreased by 12.9%. Property-related crime accounts for 80% of the total number of crimes. The number of solved crimes committed by repeat offenders grew by 27% and made up 46% of the total number of solved crimes. One of the key factors behind the growth in crime is an increase in juvenile crime.

Every year juveniles commit 14-16% of the total number of crimes. Among juvenile criminal offenders, 5% were female and 95% male. Schoolchildren made up 60% of juvenile offences and those who were neither studying nor working made up 38.1%. Almost two-thirds of juvenile offenders acted in groups. However, violent crime, which causes a particularly negative reaction in society, accounted for 1.2% of total juvenile crime.

In 2000, people aged 18-29 constituted 47% of all people accused of crimes committed in Lithuania, although

this group made up only 17% of the population. If crimes committed by people who do not work or attend school continue to grow, crimes committed by those who do fell dramatically from 6,964 (56% of total crime) to 1,304 (5%) in 1990 and 2000. Children and young people constituted the biggest proportion not only of the perpetrators of crime but also its victims.

In 2000, 47% of all convicted people were imprisoned. A large proportion of the convicts were young people, mainly young men who on average spend four or five years in confinement. In 2000, almost 1,000 juveniles (35%) received prison sentences in Lithuania. The excessive application of imprisonment violates the provisions of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, as well as the principles of criminal policy for children and young people in European Union member states. In Lithuania the excessive application of prison sentences to juveniles is mostly preconditioned by legal and administrative factors rather than by any increase in juvenile crime or its patterns. There is no system of effective correctional measures alternative to imprisonment.

Moreover, a minor who has committed an offence can be sent to a special correctional or care establishment on the grounds of an executive authority decision but not the court's. This clearly violates the rights of the child declared in the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania and the European Convention of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. The new Criminal Code opens up greater possibilities for the administration of alternative correctional measures. However, organisational decisions and means are insufficient to apply them in practice.

Lithuania has been in the process of implementing reform in the juvenile criminal justice system since 1998. The common goal of juvenile criminal justice reform was to cut back on repeat crime among juveniles by setting up a humane and efficient juvenile criminal justice system. The programme also aimed at improving the legal framework for regulating juvenile justice. According to the programme, juvenile (family) courts and a network of special departments within the criminal police and the Prosecutor's Office will be established.

X

Rights of children and youth

The rights of the child are an indispensable part of the overall system of human rights. Children and young people are one of the most vulnerable groups in society. They are the only age group in society whose rights, in their content and actual implementation, completely depend on another social group - adults.

Lithuania acceded to the 1989 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child on 5 January 1992. The principles of the Convention stipulate that the government should be the central institution responsible for the implementation of the rights of the child. However, in Lithuania the responsibility for the implementation of the rights of children is distributed among various institutions. At the governmental level there are no institutions left that are directly responsible for the formation of children's rights policy. The newly established institution of the Controller for Protection of the Rights of the Child plays a very important role in the field of the protection of children's rights, but it does not formulate state policy in this field. A Council for Children's Affairs at the President's Office was established, whose job it is to inform and advise the president about various institutions concerned with the rights of children and their activities. Both at the national and local levels there is a lack of comprehensive statistical data on children that could allow for the evaluation and monitoring of the implementation of children's rights and mechanisms that can coordinate policy. State budget funds allocated to policy in the field of children's rights are not based on clear principles or procedures. The adoption of new legislation that is more focused on the problems that face children and young people is an important achievement in the field of ensuring their rights. In July 2000, the Civil Code was adapted with a separate book on families and children. However, there is a lack of legislation that clearly defines the specific tools, measures and forms of support from the state in implementing policy on young people.

The transition to a market economy is negatively affecting families raising children. This was one of the main reasons hampering the implementation of the principles of the Convention, in the opinion of the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child. The physical punishment of children in both families and institutions is widespread and society tolerates this. Large numbers of foster children live in children's homes and institutions, and relatively few of them are cared for in families. Morbidity among children is high, and the incidence of tuberculosis is causing particular concern. A large number of children die as a result of traumas or accidents, in particular road accidents. The large number of suicides among children and young people in Lithuania is also reason for concern. Children, particularly those with disabilities living in rural areas, do not have access to the same level of health care services and medication as children living in other locations do. In the past few years the number of children and young people using drugs has increased.

The right to education is an important factor that impacts the human development of young people and their social

integration. According to the Lithuanian Constitution, education is compulsory for people up to the age of 16. Often children who drop out of school before the age of 16 are no more subject to compulsory education when they become older than 16 despite the fact that they have no education. This duty should rather be linked to the actual acquisition of some level of education (for example, basic education) rather than to a certain age. The education system should bring up not only educated, but also free and democratic individuals.

Conclusions

"Young people are the future of society and the state." A state that does not provide young people with essential human development choices or support them on their way to adulthood will inevitably face socio-economic problems in the future. Most youth-related problems are deeply rooted in intergenerational relations and in the transition between education, training and the labour market.

If Lithuania has succeeded in building a market economy, it still lags behind EU countries in the transition to a 'knowledge economy' and investment in social capital. So the demand for highly skilled labour, which is extremely valuable for young people - and consequently the demand for quality education - is insufficient. Numerous sociological surveys have revealed that more than half of young respondents have the intention to emigrate or seek employment abroad.

Young Lithuanians rank job security highly and they particularly lack labour competitiveness and stability. According to the labour exchange, the number of unemployed young people is increasing every year. The level of unemployment among young people reached 18.9% (total 12.0%) on 1 November 2001. Young people account for approximately a third of all the long-term unemployed. One cannot predict exactly which qualifications people will need several decades hence, but what is known for sure is that the capacity and the motivation to learn on a continuous basis will become something like a basic skill for everybody.

Young people are increasingly trying to combine different areas of life. But family and work are difficult to combine in Lithuania. This is one of the reasons why women who on average are better educated than men dominate in lower-paid activities and among those that demand precarious forms of employment (part-time, a shortened day). In the end the response of young women is clear - to postpone having children or reject the idea of children altogether.

The future pattern of intergenerational relations has been influenced by income and social disparities. Under these circumstances society can hardly expect young people to develop a sense of intergenerational solidarity. In seeking to better integrate them into society, political and economic

measures are necessary, targeted towards different groups of young people.

The formulation and approval of a concept on state policy for young people was the first step in addressing young people's problems. It could be stated, however, that a comprehensive and coherent approach to youth problems has not yet been developed, and there is a lack of legislation that clearly defines the specific tools, measures and forms of support from the state in implementing youth policy. In this respect Lithuania is far behind the countries of the EU, where

tackling youth problems has gained significance and a constructive response from society. On 21 November 2001, for example, the European Commission adopted its White Paper 'A New Impetus for European Youth'.

From the sustainable human development standpoint, however, the personal qualities and knowledge that today's young people are developing are not only the most important 'resource' on which Lithuania will rely in the coming decades. They are a chance for people to lead meaningful lives within the larger European family.

From the Editors

The Lithuanian Human Development Report 2001, subtitled 'Opportunities for Youth and Human Development', is the seventh national annual report to be financially supported by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in Lithuania since 1995.

As in previous years, the report has been prepared by a team of independent scholars from Lithuania. The analysis of human development topics covered is based on official statistics. Its preparation, therefore, would not have been possible without the support and contribution of professionals from the Department of Statistics. Colleagues from UNDP Lithuania provided useful comments during the drafting of the Report. This year's report is more focused on societal relations and perceptions, and its preparation benefited particularly from data obtained from sociological surveys and background studies.

The aim of the report is to empower the reader, which means both to inform and to motivate in the wide sense (to make decisions, change attitudes or alter opinions). One can conclude with satisfaction that the report has from year to year been gradually achieving this multi-dimensional objective. The report was conducive to the introduction into university curricula a discipline called Sustainable Human Development, which has been taught at the country's largest universities since 1999. In 2000, lectures on human development were included in upgrading programmes for the employees of the social departments of municipalities and district administrations.

Another example of the success of the report is that it has broken the 'ice of silence' and stirred up public debate on the issue of suicide, one of Lithuania's most pressing social problems. This debate resulted in a programme Lithuania adopted on suicide prevention. Moreover, by concisely describing the situation and focusing attention on acute human development problems, the report has inspired research on poverty, social exclusion, improving social statistics.

Instead of targeting a special group, the report's readership is wide and can be identified as educated readers inter-

ested in the problems of society and human development. To meet the requirements of such a wide audience, the editors decided that the report should provide a thorough understanding of the situation and give analytical assessments and recommendations where possible. The main argument in favour of this decision is that recommendations are the result of an individual opinion that might not necessarily be valuable, while a lack of facts will not allow the reader to judge it. Many human development issues are complex enough to be supplemented by recommendations without serious research to back them up. In our opinion, the most compelling advantage of the report is the ease with which readers may develop their own opinions and recommendations on the basis of contextualised data and analysis.

The report is a continuous publication that robustly adheres to the sustainable human development concept formulated by the UNDP in 1990.

This year's report is devoted to young people, to the problems and opportunities they face, and to their position in society as a social group. Moreover, both problems and opportunities are understood from a human development point, beyond tangible material opportunities, or opportunities related to livelihood. Apart from education, employment and security, these include social and spiritual opportunities for children and young people to share important values with other generations, to feel that they are a valued part of society.

The restoration of statehood and democracy and the openness of the country to the world created many new experiences for young people unseen during the totalitarian Soviet period. At the same time painful structural reforms, increased competition on the labour market, growing individualism and changes in social values sharpened youth-related problems. The authors of the report reveal the following alarming facts: that young people are vulnerable to unemployment; that families with young children are exposed to the risk of poverty more than other groups; that a large number of children drop out from basic school; and that the driving force behind the growth in general crime in the country is juvenile delinquency.

Brief overview of theoretical basics

The sustainable human development concept. For many centuries people have viewed development as a means of improving the quality of life in a broad sense. The idea that development must be judged by the extent it promotes 'human good' goes back to Aristotle: "Wealth is evidently not the good we are seeking, for it is merely useful and for the sake of something else." Yet in the 17th century Sir William Petty, one of the first development economists (and the 'grandfather' of national income), distinguished such development factors as "common safety" and "every man's particular happiness".

The modern concept of human development is therefore not a new invention. It re-establishes a well-known, but for some time obscured, approach that embraces every aspect of society, not just the economy, putting people at the centre of development.

The original definition of human development

Human development is a process for enlarging people's choices. In principle these choices can be infinite and can change over time. But at all levels of development, the three most essential are for people to lead a long and healthy life, to acquire knowledge and to have access to those resources needed for a decent standard of living. If these essential choices are not available, many other opportunities remain inaccessible.

But human development does not end there. Additional choices, highly valued by many people, range from political, economic and social freedoms to opportunities for being creative and productive, and enjoying personal self-respect and guaranteed human rights.

From the UNDP's 1990 Human Development Report

Human development values human life itself, but not because people can produce material goods. People are regarded as the end of the process of development and its means of existence. In actual fact, people-centered development means the development of the people, for the people, by the people. Enlarging people's choices ('choices' in preference to 'capabilities') conveys the idea of individuals taking charge of their own lives. Choice is wider than capability. It is understood not as choice among different models of

cars, newspapers or houses, but as choice that is created by expanding human abilities (to be knowledgeable, to be healthy, to use the Internet and many other more-or-less essential abilities). Development enables people to build on their abilities in order to have more choice, but the choices people make are their own concern.

The following principles have been laid at the core of the concept of sustainable human development:

productivity - human development has two important aspects, the formation and the use of capabilities. The principle of productivity in this respect means enabling the environment (the environment in a broad sense - economic, political, social, natural) to allow people to achieve their maximum potential and use their acquired capabilities for productive purposes. This principle is obviously wider than simply investing in people (education, health, housing). Contrary to the human development approach, growth models regard productivity in terms of human capital as the means of development.

equality - in opportunities (not in results that depend on individual abilities), which implies that all people irrespective of gender, nationality, place of residence or age have equal opportunities to lead a productive and freely chosen life. This postulate is based on the universality of a claim to life for everyone.

empowerment - giving people greater opportunities (through education, employment, democracy) to participate in economic, social, cultural and political processes and to take part in decision making. Unlike welfare or basic needs approaches, which make people the passive recipients of benefits and basic social services, 'development by the people' in the human development paradigm envisages an active position.

sustainability - which in a broad sense refers to human opportunities (not just the renewal of natural resources and environmental protection). This principle implies that society should preserve its capacity to ensure well-being not only for the current generation but for the generation to come. For example, the neglect of people's health and education, or the violation of their basic rights and freedoms may have no less a devastating effect on the lives of current and future generations than mining out natural resources or a mounting external debt.

From Human Development: Concept and Trends, SPU / UNDP, Vilnius, 1999

In times of deep social change young people experience contradictory and conflicting moods. On the one hand, they support market reforms more than older people do, but on the other the majority are convinced that the state should provide employment for them. Young people feel neglected by society, yet they acknowledge that they are not ready to consider

social problems and feel responsible for the rest of society. Indeed, they show indifference to other members of society and defend their own interests. In this respect, it is worth mentioning the opinion expressed by young respondents to a sociological survey that they should be provided with employment opportunities first in times of growing unemploy-

Students as a mirror for the level of development in society.

In the modern world education is becoming an important precondition for the success of every individual and the quality of life in society. There are about 100,000 students in Lithuania, i.e., more than 13% of the total number of young people. Therefore, it is very important to draw attention to the problems of students and undertake measures to resolve them.

The Lithuanian Students' Union defined its aims in 1997 in the Declaration of Students' Rights issued by the representatives of all the establishments of higher education in the country. Among the most important are the following two chapters:

1. *The right to higher education;*
2. *The right to social security.*

The right to higher education. Every citizen of Lithuania should have the right to choose an institution of higher education according to his or her capabilities. In this context student mobility should be ensured. Today students still face problems if they wish to follow a programme of continuous education. The most suitable conditions must be established for choosing a subject or an institution.

Moreover, students must be provided with efficient tutorials. At the moment, efficiency is often sacrificed in order to resolve financial problems. A student must be provided with sufficient teaching materials for his studies and should be given information about curricula, tutorials and library services. Unfortunately, the curricula currently offered fail to comply with market demand and meet modern international quality requirements, since they are drafted according

to the capacities of the available staff of lecturers and professors. As a result, students receive a lot of superficial tutorials and seminars based on outdated sources.

The right to social security. The right to social security should be granted to students and be protected by the state together with their institution of higher education.

Credits and loans are an important and widespread form of student support in the countries of the European Union, as they enable students to receive financial assistance to cover the costs of living during the years of study. Regrettably, the only fund of this kind in Lithuania is financed from student money; cash is simply transferred from one social assistance fund (the Stipend Fund) to another (the Credit Fund).

The shortage of money predetermines an early influx of students onto the labour market. Education suffers as a result. Students who get engaged in hired labour lose the motivation to start up their own businesses and create new jobs after finishing higher education. National and local authorities are taking no measures to deal with this problem. Passive regional policy in the field of the mobility of specialists has already had an impact. A number of regions are complaining of a 'brain drain' of young people to the cities without doing anything more than register complaints. The insufficient attention being paid by the national authorities to the problems facing students is undoubtedly making the brain drain issue even more critical. An increasing number of educated and gifted young people are choosing countries other than Lithuania for their business or employment.

Arūnas Malinovskis, Vice President, Lithuanian Students' Union

ment, while people who are close to a pensionable age should be forced out of work.

The message of the report conveys the idea that opportunities for young people today are opportunities for all members of society tomorrow. Everywhere in the world young people face challenges related to their age and status in society. The chances they have for success as a social group depend on both the attitudes of society and a youth-friendly state policy on education, employment and human rights. Young people in Lithuania have not so far enjoyed the same opportunities as their contemporaries in developed countries and they do not

feel they are a respected and cared-for social group. If an integrated and targeted effort by the whole of society is not made to improve the situation, Lithuania will continue to lose its youth through emigration, crime and drug addiction.

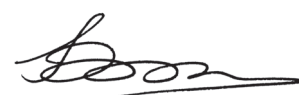
The views presented in this report are expressed by independent professionals. They do not, therefore, necessarily coincide with the views of the Lithuanian government or the UNDP.

We hope that this report will widen awareness in society about youth problems and encourage targeted decisions and action from policy makers.

Jolanta Rimkutė



Irina Voločičuk



Youth and society

Rasa Ališauskienė, Laima Žilinskienė

Young people as a social group. Young people are a vital social group that allows for the sustainable continuation and development of society. However, young people are generally not inclined to identify themselves with older generations, as they are not only the object and product of social influence in society, but also particularly active themselves in social change. Every successive generation has characteristic features that make it different from previous generations. It develops under the influence of the economic, social, ideological and political situation and events of the day.

Disagreements often arise when defining the age when people are considered to be 'young'. The important issue remains the criteria according to which the difference between one generation of young people from the other is defined. Until 1980, 'youth' were uniformly defined simply as the age group that did not participate in professional activities. From the economic point of view, people who are independent and able to dispose of an income did not belong to the youth category. Moreover, the age for young people was defined as the period of time when they were in a 'state of transition' in society and had not yet taken over the position of being 'independent'.

According to research made by Shell-Studie, the age under which young people are classified is changing, and becoming longer. This prolonged period of youth can be divided into two stages. The first stage consists of 'adolescence'¹, during which young people occupy a neutral position in employment. They participate only in family and educational institutions, where they mature morally, socially and sexually. Between youth and adulthood a new 'post-youth' period has appeared, which encompasses study after school. In the socio-cultural sense young people continuing their studies are independent. However, they are not independent in the economic sense. The post-youth period is considered to be the third decade of life. In America it is called 'post-adolescence'. On the one hand, this prolonging of the period of youth may alienate young people from em-

ployment. But on the other, from a societal point of view, it mitigates the problem of unemployment for a certain period, and empowers young people as future employees by giving them the qualifications and knowledge necessary for productive employment and an active social position. Where youth ends is commonly linked with the end of the period of vocational preparation, when young people can start to earn money and live independently. In this sense young people can be divided into having 'short', 'average' and 'long' periods of youth. 'Short' refers to those young people who have completed vocational training before the age of 18. 'Average' refers to those who began employment at 19. And 'long' refers to those who engage in education or vocational training until the age of 21 or older.

To socially define the concept of 'young people' is complicated. There are 'diffuse' biological, social, psychological and cultural factors that must be taken into account. For this reason it is difficult to define uniformly a concept for youth². Even more so, this concept depends on the level of the development of society, which is influenced by political, economic, cultural and educational needs.³

The uniqueness of young people as a social group lies in the fact that it is difficult to define a specific age limit for the social maturity of an entire generation. Social maturity depends on many factors, so that stepping into the world of adulthood takes place at different times. In youth, employment opportunities tend not to correspond to opportunities that exist in other spheres of life:

- in the economic sense, there is an inadequacy between growing consumption needs and income-earning opportunities for young people;
- in the legal sense, there is a discrepancy between young

¹Jugend '92. Hrsg. Von Jugendwerk der Deutschen Shell. Leske - Budrich, Opladen, 1992.

²Zinnecker'86: Zinnecker, Jürgen: Jugend im Raum gesellschaftlichen Klassen. Neue Überlegungen zu einem alten Thema. In Heitmeyer'86

³Deutsche Gesellschaft im Wandel. Band 2. C.W. Leske Verlag Opladen, 1970

Youth: the demographic aspect.

Young people (aged 16-29) constitute 22% of the population. Over the last two years this percentage has not changed. According to a population survey conducted in 2001, a third of young people live in towns or villages of less than 2,000 inhabitants. A quarter live in towns of up to 100,000 inhabitants and 45% live in Lithuania's five largest cities.

Half of the young people in Lithuania are currently studying in various educational institutions, 17% are blue-collar workers, 14% are working as specialists and white-collar workers, 1% are managers, 13% are housewives and 7% are unemployed. Among young people 64% are not married, 34% have already established families and 2% are divorced.

Population by age and gender, January 2001*

	Total	Men	Women
Total	3,692.645	1,740.754	1,951.891
15-19	275.737	140.332	135.405
20-24	258.835	130.562	128.273
25-29	277.016	140.188	136.828

*According to the population census of 2001, the total population is 3.491 million people.

people as citizens of society who have the right to vote and the opportunity to participate in political life;

- in the psychological sense, there is a gap between what has been achieved at school and the promise of future rewards in society.

The impact young people have on changes in society is immense. Every new generation has to resolve the problems being dictated by contemporary social realities. Resolving these problems can cause conflict between generations, particularly when older generations lack a more immediate experience of the situation and assist the young based on their own previous experience. On the other hand, in times of social change young people can become 'victims' who require assistance. The implementation of the principles of a market economy, the opening up of opportunities for international mobility, and the pace of educational reform depend on the 'behaviour' of different interest groups, as well as the varying lifestyles of different generations, and within the younger generation itself.

Generally, young people are more liberal, more supportive of economic reforms and a multi-party political system, more open to cultural change and more tolerant.

The state policy on youth seeks to create favourable conditions for the formation of the personalities of young people and for their integration into political, civil, economic, social and cultural life.

The main objectives of state policy on young people include:

- the formation of an intellectual, civil, democratic individual;
- the integration of young people into political, civil, economic, social and cultural life;
- the formation of spiritual values, and responsibility for society and family;
- the formation of conditions to become acquainted with the constitutional duties and rights of citizens.

From the concept for the state policy on youth, 1996

In this time of deep and rapid social change in Lithuania, the differences in the values between the generations have become more noticeable. Generally, young people are more liberal, more supportive of economic reforms and a multi-party political system, more open to cultural change and more tolerant of new ways of thinking than middle-aged or older generations. The conflict between the generations is founded more on social and income differentiation in Lithuanian society. Middle-aged and older generations have more trouble adapting to the new economic realities and requirements of the labour market than young people. However, the young feel insecure in the labour market because of the increasing level of unemployment and limited opportunities to enter the labour market.

State policy on youth. The fact that there is no concise conceptual definition of young people as a social group, and consequently no systemic approach to tackle the problems they face, influences the essence of any politics related to them. According to state policy, young people are a group of individuals aged between 16

and 29 who, during a period of transition to an independent life in society, form their own personalities.

The state policy on young people seeks to create favourable conditions for the formation of the personalities of young people and for their integration into political, civil, economic, social and cultural life.

The main principles of the state policy are:

- to encourage initiatives by young people to participate in community life. Furthermore, to help them participate in decision-making processes on issues concerning them, while at the same time developing a sense of responsibility for their actions and decisions;

The Council of Lithuanian Youth Organisations unites 41 non-governmental organisations (NGOs) of which only 20, according to their titles, are focused on youth issues. However, the numbers of members of these organisations are not large. The majority of young people, in particular those who live in rural areas or who are not enrolled in educational institutions, do not participate in these NGOs.

- to promote and support non-governmental organisations (NGOs) that contribute to addressing youth problems;
- to encourage and support the active participation of NGOs in the implementation of the state policy on young people.

The support of the government and municipalities for youth-orientated NGOs is focused mostly on educational and social issues. It is acknowledged that the chance to acquire education and skills for every young person is an important precondition for a meaningful life and sustainable human development. Access to education and training that meets labour demand cannot, therefore, be considered a second-rate issue by state policy. It is essential to help young job-seekers to find employment or encourage them to engage in private business. Assistance is essential in solving the problem of housing for young people and the problems facing young families.

International communication between young people should be promoted. Opportunities should be provided for students to attain an education and skills in a foreign country, and international exchange programmes for young people should be encouraged. This will be conducive not only to the acquisition of new knowledge and skills, but encourage tolerance and confidence between nations.

The formulation and approval of a concept on state policy for young people was the first step in addressing their problems. The success of this decision and its effectiveness depends on the specific measures and methods taken. It must be noted that up to now politicians have usually limited their actions to declarations and the establishment of new structures. However, the level of activity and participation of young people themselves in addressing their problems is insufficient.

Democratic orientation is much stronger among young people in Lithuania than among older generations.

Democratic orientation, %, December 1999

	Strong Democrats	Democrats	Autocrats	Undecided
Total population	7	57	24	13
Men	6	63	21	15
Women	8	51	26	10
Youth	7	61	20	12
People aged 30-50	7	57	23	14
People aged over 50	7	55	26	12
Education:				
Incomplete secondary	6	49	31	14
Secondary	6	58	22	15
Special secondary	10	66	17	7
Place of residence:				
Rural areas	8	50	29	13
Towns	6	53	27	11
Cities	7	65	17	11

Political preference, %, November 2000

	15-19 years	20-29 years	Total population
Left	16	17	21
Centrist	24	36	27
Right	10	17	18
Don't know	50	30	33

Young people's political interests and their political activity.

In 1999, 12% of young people in Lithuania said that politics was a very important part of their lives, whereas 62% claimed that they were not concerned about politics. Meanwhile, 10% of young Latvians stated that politics was very important in their lives, and 64% said they were not interested. Only 7% of young Estonians said that politics was very important, while 70% were not interested. Twelve per cent of Lithuanian, 10% of Latvian and 15% of Estonian young people said they often discussed politics with their friends.

It is more difficult for young people than older people to define their political preferences. Of people aged 15-19, 50% could not identify a political preference based on some ideological direction, whereas among older persons 30% did not have an opinion regarding this question.

During the last parliamentary elections, more young voters than older ones voted for the centre-right Liberal Union (29% of young people), and the New Union (Social Liberals) (16%). However, they voted less often than older people for Algirdas Brazauskas' left-wing Social Democratic Coalition (13%). But perhaps most significantly, 34% of young people did not vote at all.

However, democratic orientation is much stronger among young people in Lithuania than among older generations.

A person's democratic orientation is mostly conditional upon level of education and age. The higher the level of education the stronger the democratic orientation, and young people living in the cities particularly have stronger democratic instincts.

Lithuanian youths are less active politically and less interested in politics than older generations are. On the other hand, according to surveys, young Lithuanians are more interested in politics than young Latvians and Estonians. In the other Baltic countries the same conformity is evident where young people are less politically active than older people.

Changes in life: the opinions and attitudes of young people. The general mood of the Lithuanian population is reflected in answers that have been given to the question of how people evaluate the direction of the country's development. These evaluations depend on the age of respondents. Young people evaluate the current situation more optimistically than older people do. Among the under-30s, six out of 10 people evaluate the situation pessimistically, whereas for people older than 30 the number is eight out of 10.

The general psychological climate determines not only one's self-confidence but also the confidence in the effectiveness of state institutions and society as whole. Given that the majority of people are pessimistically inclined, an individual will rarely believe that his or her life will become better. And a person who is convinced that the majority of his or her fellow citizens are looking towards the future with confidence will tend to believe in a better life. In 2000, 71% of Lithuanian inhabitants thought that the majority of people were disillusioned, apathetic and did not believe in a better future, while 28% thought that people still believed in a better future.

The mood of young people was somewhat more optimistic: 55% of youth aged 15-19 were pessimists and 43% optimists. Among the 20-29 age group, 61% were pessimists and 39% optimists. A total of 53% of young people in Lithuania thought that the future would be better than today, whereas 47% did not. Furthermore, among the 30-50 age group 50% were optimists, and among people older than 65, 45% were optimists.

The biggest optimists in the Baltic states are young people in Latvia, 60% of whom are optimistic about the future and 34% pessimistic. Of the middle-aged generation of Latvians, 58% are optimists, and among the older generation 44% are optimists. The biggest pessimists are the Estonians, since 32% of young Estonians are optimists and 68% pessimists, 33% of

“In recent times, the situation in Lithuania has been changing...”, %

	15-19 years		20-29 years		Total population	
	1997	2001	1997	2001	1997	2001
...for the better”	29	52	29	31	25	28
...for the worse”	60	46	64	68	69	71
No opinion	11	2	7	1	6	2

*August 1997 and September 2001

the middle-aged generation are optimists and 41% of the older generation are optimists. More than 30% of young people in Lithuania regard themselves to be very happy, while in both Latvia and Estonia 19% of young people feel the same way.

These responses show that the established opinion about the pessimism of Lithuanians is more true for the middle-aged and older generations. Young Lithuanians cannot be said to be pessimistic compared with Latvians and Estonians.

Attitudes to the market economy and the economic situation. After 10 years of economic reform, the continuation of a market economy is supported by 56% of the adult population and opposed by 38%. Support for a market economy depends largely on a person's age. The younger a person is, the more likely he or she will be a supporter of the market economy. Among people who are under 30, 60% support the market economy, among the 40-50 age group the figure is 50%, and among those older than 60, it is 40%.

Approximately 25% of the population are pleased with the pace of economic reform, 27% think the pace is too quick, and 38% think it is too slow. Young people generally want quicker reforms, with 40% of this group of people believing that the pace is too slow. People aged 50 and above, particularly those of a pensionable age, feel more often that economic reform is going too fast (every third person of this age group).

In evaluating the changes in the economic situation, young people are far more optimistic compared with the old and middle-aged. In September 2001, 10% of people under 30 thought the economic situation in the country was improving, 53% thought it had not changed and 35% said it had worsened. Among the over 30s, an improvement in the situ-

Opinion on the pace of economic reform, %, February 2000

	18-19 years	20-29 years	Total
Too quick	7.2	24	27
Too slow	47	41	38
About right	34	28	27
Don't know	11	6.6	8

ation was only mentioned by 2%, a worsening by 45% and stability by 42%.

How young people evaluate themselves.

In 1999, once discussions on a concept and state programme for young people were underway, sociological research into the situation of young people was carried out.⁴ The results of the research indicated that young people are relatively self-critical. The opinion that young people today are worse off than they were 10 years ago prevails. Respondents from the younger generation valued positively young people who are employed and have greater economic opportunities. Young people living in Lithuania's cities are of a better opinion about people of the same age group than inhabitants from rural areas.

Young people who are working or who have a higher income, as well as those who live in the cities, tend to be more positive about their contemporaries.

Young people who thought that their contemporaries were better than young people 10 years ago cited the following reasons:

They had more opportunities	27%
They were more democratic and progressive	21%
They were more educated	19%
They were more energetic	9%
They sought education more diligently	7%
They held a more serious view of life	4%
They had better living conditions	3%
They were more independent	3%

Young people who thought the youth of today are the same as young people of earlier generations named the following reasons: common to every generation is youthful enthusiasm (19%); the same problems arise for young people all the time (32%); parents are never pleased with their children (2%).

The negative characteristics and circumstances listed by young people can be divided into two groups. The first consists of evaluation, which is directly related to the behaviour of young people. The second is 'external' factors, that have an undesirable effect on the behaviour of young people, for example a low standard of living, too much freedom and so on. The undesirable behaviour young people have that was most often stressed was drug addiction, alcoholism and criminal offences.

The negative characteristics of contemporary youth were named as:

More drug addicts and alcoholics	25%
More criminals	24%
More aggressive, insolent, cruel, uncontrollable young people	18%
Too many things to do, too much is allowed	8%
Dissolute, amoral	7%
Difficult to find employment	6%
Not interested in anything, have nothing to do	6%
Do not want to work	5%
Care little for spiritual values, more concerned with material well-being	4%
Lack of responsibility and very egoistic	4%
Too much freedom	3%
Large number of young people not studying	3%
More passive	2%

Young people today compared to those 10 years ago, %, 1999

"Young people today are..."	Total	Gender		Age		
		Male	Female	16-18	19-23	24+
...better	9	9	9	10	9	8
...the same	36	37	34	31	38	39
...worse	43	39	47	41	43	45

A negative evaluation of one's generation depends on the growing wealth and social differentiation between young people, a weakening of the social identity of one's generation, and better and more accessible information about social problems in the mass-media.

Evaluation of the situation for young people. In 2000, the opinion among young people was that the first years of independence were very favourable for the younger generation. Later the state lost its monopoly on employment and labour relations become more deregulated. At the same time the link between a predominantly state education and labour demand driven by the private sector weakened. Young people become more exposed to the risk of unemployment, since a lack of work experience weakened their competitiveness on the labour market.

Young people who thought in 2000 that the past five years had been less favourable for them cited the following reasons: difficulties in finding a job; the unemployment problem; a poor level of attention shown by the state to the problems facing young people; the lack of social guarantees; the unfavourable economic situation; poverty. Youth with a higher education and bigger income living in the cities evaluate today's situation more favourably. In their opinion, there are currently more opportunities for self-expression, more democracy and freedom, and more opportunities to see the world, and study and gain experience in foreign countries. The main concern young people have that causes a sense of

⁴Portrait of Young People in Lithuania. 1997. Vilnius University, Sociological Laboratory

insecurity is how to find a job. The feeling of insecurity is very common to people aged 24 years and older who have low incomes, live in rural areas and do not possess a higher education.

Young people have not yet reached the level of maturity to be able to take responsibility for society. They are more inclined to be interested in those problems that are directly related to them. More than two-thirds of young people are concerned only by events that are directly associated with them; 20% are concerned about everything that is taking place in Lithuania, and 11% are indifferent to such events.

Civil initiative. Young people rather often identify themselves with Lithuania and its citizens. Those from rural areas are more inclined to associate themselves with a specific region. Those from the cities with a higher education think of themselves as Europeans more often than others. And 10% of young people describe themselves as citizens of the world. Young people associate Europe with the future and cultural development.

Young Lithuanians, Latvians and Estonians on self-identification, %, 1999

What do you most feel?	Young Lithuanians	Young Latvians	Young Estonians
A resident of your village, town, city	41	32	53
A resident of your region	17	14	18
An inhabitant of your country	29	38	16
An inhabitant of Europe	4	3	3
An inhabitant of the world	10	13	10

More than two-thirds of young people are proud to be Lithuanian citizens (86%). For Latvia and Estonia, the figures are 83% and 85%, respectively. A feeling of patriotism is common among young people in the Baltic states. Young Lithuanians are mostly proud of their sportsmen, national independence and the diligence of Lithuanian people. In young people's opinion, diligence, indifference and orderliness are the most common features of Lithuanians. Young people most often associate Lithuania with independence and unemployment.

In the event of the outbreak of war, 74% of young people in Lithuania, 84% in Latvia and 60% in Estonia would fight for their country.

Furthermore, young people from the Baltic countries are more open to the world than older people are. Young people are more inclined to draw upon the experiences of other countries.

In identifying themselves with Lithuania young people would in favourable circumstances:

Leave to work or study abroad for several years	55%
Remain in Lithuania	32%
Live abroad	13%

Young people are expressing the desire to work or study in foreign countries more and more often. More school pupils are planning to study or live abroad. These plans are largely the result of the drop in the standard of living in Lithuania, the feeling of insecurity and unemployment. The most important issues for Lithuanian society, according to young people, are related to economic, physical and psychological security.

What young people value most. Research carried out in 1994 and again in 1999 shows that young people value family the most. In 1994, they listed values in order of priority in the following way: family, employment, friends, acquaintances and leisure time. In 1999, the most important spheres of life were family, employment and education. The importance of education is increasing among young people.

The number of young people who are studying and working simultaneously is increasing. This happens because opportunities for parents to financially support their children and pay for their studies have decreased. Moreover, young people who study think this will help ensure a job exists for them in the future. In their opinion, it is more difficult for them to find employment than it is for older people due to their lack of work experience, employers do not trust young people or have confidence in them, and there is a shortage of jobs anyway.

More than two-thirds of young people in Lithuania want the state to guarantee them employment. This opinion is most common among those aged 16-18 who have basic and secondary education.

The majority of young people are in favour of special support in times of widespread unemployment; 74% think that with the increase in unemployment young people should be provided with employment and that this should be done at the expense of other social groups, while 59% think that

Opinion of young people on employment, %, 1999

The state should guarantee employment for us	67
It is the duty of a young person to find employment for himself/herself	30
Our parents should help us find employment	3

with the increase in unemployment people should retire at an earlier age, and 44% think it is not right to provide work for people with disabilities when there are insufficient positions available for able-bodied people. These opinions can be explained not only by the 'maximalistic' attitude young people have to life, but also by the real situation in the labour market. With the increase in unemployment and the uncertainty of employment in the future, young people think that as a result of their lack of real professional experience, regardless of acquired education, it is difficult for them to compete for better jobs.

Employment for young people is more a mean (necessity), whereas the result of work is associated with remuneration. Twenty per cent of young people perceive work as an objective, a value in itself, while remuneration is a 'secondary' result.

Remuneration is the most important feature of employment for young Lithuanians. It is also important that the work should be interesting and provide them with social comfort.

Private business is the most attractive prospect for young people. They are more inclined to be 'entrepreneurial' types. Less entrepreneurial young people are more oriented towards employment in the state sector. Among the main obstacles to starting a private business young people cited: a lack of money (65%), an insufficient legal basis (31%); and a lack of knowledge, bureaucratic hindrances, and a lack of confidence in their abilities.

Participation in NGOs. In 2000, more than half of young people said that they did not know about any organisations for young people. They did not know which organisations could represent their interests or help to tackle their problems. Meanwhile, 25% of young people knew of at least one youth organisation. The most commonly known ones were Youth Line, the Scouts, the Student's Union, Young Lithuania, and the Youth Psychological Support Centre. Among the main faults of youth NGOs were: a lack of initiatives, insufficient communication, and not enough information about the organisation.

What employment means to young people, %

Work is a business deal - the more they pay me, the more I'll work.	30
I work with pleasure, but this should not interfere with my personal life.	25
I work so I can survive. I would never work if I didn't have to.	22
I always try to work well, regardless of the level of payment.	17
I work with pleasure. It's the most important thing in my life.	4

Most important qualities of employment, %

Good salary	90
Interesting job	55
Pleasant work colleagues	39
Social guarantees	33
Convenient work time	32
Possibility for a career	29
The work matches one's abilities	26
Chance to see the results of one's work	25
Chance to interact with people	21
Chance to show oneself, to show initiative	17
Long holidays	16
Not too stressful a job	15
Chance to work creatively	14
Chance to be of benefit to society	8
Responsibility	7
Recognition by society	6

Young people's preferred types of activity, %

	Most likely yes
To work in a private company on a contract basis	59
To work abroad	58
To engage in private business	56
To find additional employment	56
To establish a company with others	46
To work in a state company or organisation	45
To emigrate	26
To engage in 'free trade'	20
Not to work at all	11
To buy or reclaim land and farm	8

Participation in NGOs is on the decline. This passivity could be explained the overall low interest in politics, disbelief that community activities can have an impact on solving social problems, and a lack of confidence in the leaders of NGOs and political organisations. Moreover, young people's community activities are based more often on professional and political interests.

Leisure-time. Forty-eight per cent of young Lithuanians stated that communication with friends is a very important part of their lives. Another 40% said that their leisure time is very important to them. Among young people from Latvia, 42% considered friends and 32% free leisure time as important values. These things are more important to young people in Estonia, where 51% of young people considered friends and 39% free leisure time important.

Between 1998 and 2000 the most popular forms of leisure did not change. Young people continue to like commu-

Preferred leisure activities, %

	Often	Sometimes	Rarely	Never
Cafes, parties	17	38	35	9.8
Theatre	2.3	18	41	38
Exhibitions	2.3	13	40	44
Classical music concerts	3.0	8.8	25	63
Rock, pop concerts	9.8	36	36	18
Cinema	3.3	18	35	44
Watching sport	11	24	34	30
Playing sport	23	29	26	21
Dancing, discos	27	29	21	22
Watching TV	69	24	5.6	0.6
Spending time with friends at home or elsewhere	72	24	3.3	0.6
Associations, clubs, religious or other community groups	6.0	9.9	17	67
Reading	30	33	25	11
Listening to music	65	29	5.1	0.6
Special hobby	24	9.6	4.7	50

nication with friends, watching television and listening to music.

Communication as one of the most important forms of leisure is mostly identified by unmarried people under 24 living in the cities. Young people spend their leisure time mostly with friends. Passive forms of leisure (watching TV, going to the cinema, listening to music) are more popular than active community activities.

To sum up, it could be said that young people differ as a social group from other age groups. The differences become evident when comparing social and political behaviour and attitudes, and employment opportunities between age groups. Young people have a more liberal attitude. They are socially and geographically more mobile and more receptive to change than older people. The rapid economic and social polarisation of society determines the increasing differentiation within young people as a social group and

the appearance of new interest groups and the orientation of community activities toward vocational, political, cultural and other interests.

Young people today are not very interested in politics and are not politically active. There is a low level of interest in non-governmental organisations for the young. Educational and other individual opportunities are more important for young people than resolving problems common to their generation or society.

Young Lithuanians do not differ greatly from their contemporaries in Latvia and Estonia in terms of social characteristics and orientation.

Young Lithuanians feel themselves poorly integrated into society. They often feel ignored or unprepared to compete in the labour market. However, they do not show a great deal of interest in overcoming this social alienation.

In seeking to better integrate young people into society, political and economic measures are necessary, targeted towards different groups of young people. Taking into account their passivity it would be more effective to employ non-traditional (beyond the media) ways of disseminating legal, social and other information to help them find their place in an ever-changing society. More attention should be paid to young people who neither study nor work. They are the group most vulnerable to social exclusion and so are the most difficult to reach. Young people who study are the most active, both from a political point of view and in the labour market. They should therefore be encouraged to take part in decision-making processes involving issues relating to themselves, and even more so in addressing global social problems.

II

Economy

Margarita Starkevičiūtė

In 2000, Lithuania drew to a close its transition reforms from a centralised to a market economy, and having laid the foundation for a market economy started a new stage in its development – integration into the European Union (EU).

The stable political and economic situation and the accession negotiations to the EU that officially commenced in February 2000, which have determined economic policy priorities and accelerated the country's convergence with the macroeconomically balanced EU market, predetermined optimistic assessments of Lithuania's long-term future. However, a relatively low standard of living (GDP per capita barely reaching 35% of the EU average) and increasing structural unemployment caused concern among the population. State economic policy was directed more to foreign policy objectives like EU and NATO integration. Solving the problems of young people was not among its priorities. Unemployment among young people was the highest, because they commonly experience difficulties in acquiring the skills necessary to meet the country's rapidly changing economic requirements and embark on a successful career. Youth problems are determined by such factors as the macroeconomic environment, the structure of the economy, state investment in social capital and agreement between the interests of different generations and population groups within state policy.

Macroeconomic environment. Economic development influences opportunities and choices for young people since macroeconomic conditions determine individual income and employment. In 2000, when Lithuania experienced 3.9% GDP growth, the economy finally overcame the negative consequences of the Russian crisis, which had resulted in an economic recession in 1999.

Youth problems are determined by such factors as the macroeconomic environment, the structure of the economy, state investment in social capital and agreement between the interests of different generations and population groups within state policy.

The major driving force behind the economic growth was a 20.5% increase in the export of goods and services.

The major driving force behind the economic growth was a 20.5% increase in the *export of goods and services*. Traditional Lithuanian industries – textiles and clothing, electrical machinery and appliances, and chemicals – occupied an important place in the export market. Nevertheless, oil refining represented the largest contribution to exports. Oil products accounted for 44.2% of the total export growth for 2000, and brought about a 28.7% increase in merchandise exports during the year.

Lithuanian goods are competitive on both eastern and western markets. Exports to the EU in 2000 grew by 21.2%, making up 47.9% of total exports. The largest increases were characteristic of export flows to the Netherlands and the United Kingdom, by 95% and 72.6%, respectively.

Favourable conditions for the growth of Lithuanian exports to the east were determined by the recovery of the economies of the CIS after the crisis. In 2000, Lithuanian exports to the CIS rose by 13.3% (including 28.6% growth in exports to Russia), even though their proportion in the total export figure fell, reaching 16.3%.

The export of services followed a different pattern, shrinking by 3% in 2000 in comparison to 1999. This decline was caused by a reduction in the export of travel services. Travel revenues fell by 28.9%, due to a lower number of incoming foreigners. The successful operation of shipping and haulage companies holding a leading position in the transportation of flows of goods from east to west resulted in a 23.1% increase in the export of transport services.

Growing income from exports had a positive impact on the domestic market. The volume of retail trade increased by 14.8%. However, a decline in real wages by 1.9% and growing

Main economic indicators

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
GDP in current prices (mln. LTL)	31,569	38,340	42,990	42,655	45,254
Real GDP (change, %)	4.7	7.3	5.1	-3.9	3.9
Annual average inflation (%)	13.1	8.4	2.4	0.3	1.4
Unemployment level (%)	7.1	5.9	6.4	8.4	11.5
Private consumption (change, %)	10.5	9.2	4	2.1	4.6
General government consumption (change, %)	0.1	1.5	22.9	-17.5	-0.7
Gross domestic investment (change, %)	9.8	31.7	11.8	-9.6	-9.4
Exports of goods and services (fob, change, %)	31.9	24.1	-2.9	-16.4	20.5
Imports of goods and services (fob, change, %)	27.8	25.1	1.8	-15.9	9.3
Current account balance (% of GDP)	-9.2	-10.2	-12.1	11.2	-6.0
Overall budget balance (% of GDP)	-4.6	-1.6	-4.6	-7.8	-2.8
Foreign direct investment (total, LTL)	2,801.2	4,162.5	6,501.2	8,252.1	9,337.3
Foreign debt (% of GDP)	15.3	14.6	15.8	22.8	22
Average monthly wage (gross, LTL)	618.2	778.1	929.8	987.4	1,007.9

unemployment, which reached a level of 11.5%, dampened private consumption. A strict fiscal policy, thanks to which the overall budget deficit went down from 7.8% of GDP in 1999 to 2.8% in 2000, reduced government consumption, so general consumption expenditure grew by only 3.6%.

The rapid expansion of exports and strict fiscal policy predetermined positive changes in the *balance of payments*. A current account deficit from a proportion of 11.2% of GDP, which was threatening the country's financial stability in 1999, almost halved, to 6.0% of GDP in 2000. More than half (56.2%) of the current account deficit was financed by foreign direct investment that totalled 632 USD per capita by the end of 2000.

Financial intermediation (54.3%), food processing, and beverage and tobacco production (8.8%), and wholesale trade (7.5%) enjoyed the largest share of *foreign direct investment* (FDI). Investment from the EU amounted to 64.3% of total FDI. Investors from Denmark and Sweden took the lead, contributing 18.3% and 17.3%, respectively.

Since the current account deficit was falling and FDI continued to grow, the state was able to borrow less. Therefore foreign debt remained relatively small, at 22% of GDP, and made up 77.8% of the total state debt, which amounted to 12.7 billion LTL or 28.0% of GDP at the end of the year. Debt service expenditure was not problematic for the economy. In 1999, the average interest rate on government securities issued on the domestic market dropped from 11.4% in 1999 to 9.4% in 2000. Moreover, the pattern of state debt was very favourable, with long-term liabilities accounting for almost 90% of the total debt, about 51% of which were eurobonds and 37% were loans. Ten per cent of state debt was short-term liabilities, comprised of treasury bills issued on the domestic market.

Monetary policy is based on a currency board arrangement and the pegging of the litas (LTL) to the US dollar. This at a time when the US dollar is getting stronger relative to other currencies was the main reason for a low (1.4%) average annual inflation in Lithuania, the lowest among the EU candidate countries.

In order to ensure macroeconomic stability, the decision was taken not to alter monetary policy or the current anchor currency, the US dollar, in 2000. Despite strengthening trade relations between Lithuania and the euro-zone economies, it was decided to postpone the pegging of the litas to the euro until February 2002.

So with the formation of an EU-oriented export pattern, the fluctuations of the real exchange rate of the litas with respect to the currencies of the major trading partners increased. The litas became almost 8% more expensive than the euro during the year. Exchange rate changes had a negative impact on the competitiveness of Lithuanian industry, because of higher labour costs per unit. The unfavourable trend in the exchange rate of the litas to the euro adversely affected incomes of companies in Lithuania that export to the EU. This consequently resulted in lower budget revenues.

Monetary policy was also unfavourable for the export of services, particularly tourist services, which are closely related to the domestic market as tours to Lithuania were relatively more expensive than trips to other countries. Budget revenues from tourist services fell by almost 29% in 2000. Moreover, a stronger currency had an adverse impact on investment flows, since entry into the Lithuanian market was more expensive compared to the neighbouring Latvian and Estonian markets both for 'greenfield' investors and those acquiring property (real estate) from private owners or the state.

As macroeconomic stability was achieved at the expense of economic growth, it was not capable of ensuring an increase in the income of the population and the reduction of structural unemployment.

One of the most complicated problems encountered by countries in transition is getting their financial flows balanced. On the one hand, considerable financial resources are needed for the implementation of economic reforms, and on the other, an initial stage of economic reforms national income significantly drops. This problem remains acute during the accession period to the EU as candidate countries must enhance structural reforms in order to align their institutional systems with EU requirements. This in turn calls for considerable financial resources that are not sufficient despite a high pace of

economic growth and assistance from the EU, since structural reforms predetermine a high rate of unemployment and big income differentiation – and a resulting increase in state social expenditure. For Lithuania, the solution to this problem was even more complicated after starting negotiations with the EU, since in addition to the above factors the increase in social expenditure is being determined by the ageing of the population. An indicator of ageing that shows the number of people aged 60 and over per 100 children under the age of 15 reached 92 by the end of 2000. This had increased by 1.6 times over the previous 10 years. For that reason the country's economic situation and long-term development prospects depended on how efficiently the potential of young people was being used. Appropriate macroeconomic and structural reforms could have offered favourable conditions to reach this goal.

Economic structure and opportunities for young people.

Monetary policy, which suppressed economic activity and the creation of new jobs, was not the only factor that prevented the full utilisation of the potential of the young people that were entering the labour market. One of the barriers that prevented young people from making use of their abilities was the fact that the majority of newly created jobs was in the service sector, which is relatively badly paid (surveys show that 52.2% of young people were employed in services), or in traditional branches of industry (22.6%), where highly skilled labour was not in demand.

PHARE experts and the staff of the Lithuanian Institute of Economics concluded that skill-intensive industry produced only 3.5% of total value added, while the same indicator in the EU member states, the US and Japan was 15-18%. Bearing in mind that the number of scientists, R&D personnel and students in Lithuania is similar to the EU and candidate countries, the conclusion may be made that labour skills, particularly the skills of young people who have acquired an education during the years of independence, were not being used to the full.

The demand for highly skilled labour is restricted by a very small number of high-tech industries in the total industrial output, at only 4.4%, and the large share of low-technology industries, at 73%. In Lithuania research and technology-intensive industry is responsible for 5.9% of the total value added produced in indus-

The household budget survey revealed that 5% of households had personal computers in 2000 (3% in 1999). Every tenth household had a PC in the cities, 3% in towns, and 1% in rural areas.

In Lithuania research and technology-intensive industry is responsible for 5.9% of the total value added produced in industry, while in the EU it exceeds 20%.

The state of Lithuanian industry.

Assessments reveal that advertisement-oriented (such as food, tobacco, leather, footwear, publishing) and capital intensive (oil refining, chemicals) branches dominate Lithuanian industry. According to assessments made by European Commission experts, labour productivity in the above sectors was relatively high. Such a structure of Lithuanian industry, however, demands that attention be paid to two important factors. First, promotion and other marketing tools greatly influence the competitiveness of advertisement-oriented goods on foreign as well as domestic markets. For economically relatively weak Lithuanian enterprises it is hard to compete with large, stable foreign companies. So multi-sided state support and the steps the state has taken in introducing Lithuanian goods to the international market and disseminating information abroad may be important instruments for solving this problem. However, the enterprise survey has proven that enterprises (the respondents) that produce advertisement-oriented goods assign a particularly insignificant role to marketing compared to other factors determining the competitiveness of their goods. Abroad these goods are often not linked to the state of origin or the name of the producer. Rather, they are exported using the name of a famous foreign partner.

A second aspect is the global trend in the development of capital intensive industries that call for large investment. This suggests that Lithuania should incorporate particularly favourable conditions for investment, including FDI, into these industries.

Ministry of Economy of the Republic of Lithuania, Lithuanian Institute of Economics "The Competitiveness of Lithuanian Industry", 2000

try, while in the EU, the US and Japan it exceeds 20%.

Research data show that the largest number of jobs was created in small enterprises that employ between five and 19 people, and the number of enterprises that did not hire employees during the year at all, or hired only one person, rose in 2000. Young people could have created jobs for themselves by setting up small new technology enterprises. Such efforts, however, were hindered by an inadequately small supply of venture capital on the market. Surveys show that 70.9% of young people intended to start their own business, of which 48.7% indicated that they lacked funds.

Bank lending to enterprises and businesses. Stability was a characteristic feature of Lithuanian banks in 2000. Their capital adequacy was better than the required indicator and stood at 16.3% (required indicator 10%), according to audited statements. Their liquidity level was 49.7%, which exceeded the minimum of 30% set by the Bank of Lithuania. In six out of 10 active commercial banks, foreign investors owned over 50% of the equity. During the year, bank assets grew by 16.5%, alongside the growth of deposits by 23.9%. Due to the delay in structural reforms and because of the conservative risk-limiting requirements established by the supervision authorities, banks allocated insufficient funds for new enterprises. Two state-controlled banks – the Lithuanian Savings Bank and the Lithuanian Agricultural Bank – were preparing for privatisation, and the largest bank, Vilniaus Bankas, was engaged in a merger process, so the financing of higher risk projects was not on their priority agenda.

Moreover, the low liquidity of the Lithuanian capital market (the ratio of turnover of shares to capitalisation was only 12%) did not offer flexible possibilities for banks to withdraw from company management. Foreign banks were newcomers on the Lithuanian market, and they had not yet developed their activities enough to provide the services that were needed.

An analysis of start-up capital showed that in 89% of cases the personal savings of owners were used for starting a personal enterprise. Such a funding option is complicated for young people who have had no time to accumulate many savings and cannot count on the financial support of their parents or relatives. Income earned by the head of a household who is under 30 years of age from a business or artwork was 3.6% of the total disposable income in 2000, which is about half of what is typical for more senior age groups.

The government was keen on promoting the development of small- and medium-sized businesses and allocated 2 million LTL for the purpose. However, the largest share of the funds was used in the form of different training programmes and the maintenance of an administrative system of ‘business incubators’. By the end of 2000, there were 15 enterprises per 1,000 inhabitants that employed up to 250 people, which is a very low indicator in comparison to the EU where the figure is 50 to 60 enterprises.

Interests of different generations and population groups in state economic policy. The consequences of reforms for individuals usually depend on their education, age and gender. A negative impact of socio-economic reforms on different population groups, including young people, could have been mitigated by state investment into social services and health

care, education, and infrastructure development. The state therefore plays a significant role in economic policy in the period of integration into the EU.

In reforming the state budget system and setting the criteria for efficient use of governmental financial resources, a model of strategic planning and budgeting on a programme basis was introduced. The model facilitated a more targeted planning of activities and the co-ordination of funds allocation with government priorities.

In the Lithuanian state financial system, beside the state and municipal budgets 24 extra-budgetary funds including the largest one, the State Social Insurance Fund (SODRA), were drawn from. The funds were administered by different authorities. The Ministry of Finance in many cases did not know the amount of accumulated funds and how they were being utilised. A law on the budget stipulating the incorporation of extra-budgetary funds into the state budget, with the exception of larger funds such as SODRA and the Mandatory Health Insurance Fund, had a positive effect on the efficiency and transparency of the management of state finances.

In order to stabilise the balance of payments, a decision was made to reduce public spending in 2000. However, the size of state expenditure was determined by structural factors such as the necessity to maintain a network of institutions providing essential public services (schools, hospitals, cultural institutions). The reduction in state expenditure consequently led to a lower quality of public services and the growing debts of these institutions to enterprises providing public utilities. The burden of financing their services partly shifted to the population. This decision had a marked impact on young people since, as proven by the household budget survey, expenditure for education in young households with a breadwinner under 30 was three times higher than in other age groups.

Seeking fiscal balance by cutting state expenditure reduced domestic demand and, consequently, the income of the small- and medium-sized enterprises that prevail on the domestic market. The number of registered small- and medium-sized enterprises that are not operating grew by 14% in 2000 compared to 1999.

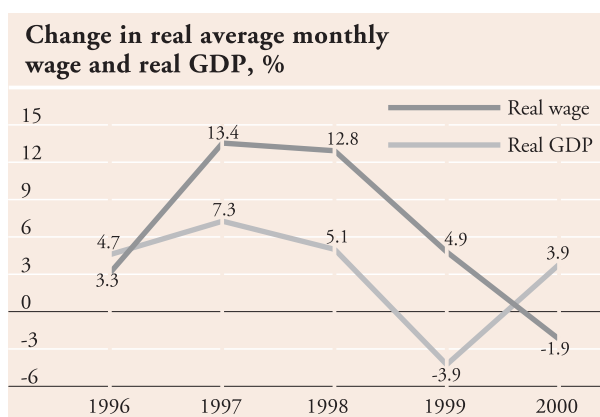
The strict government savings policy slowed down the growth of disposable income and was conducive to a worsening in the quality of public services. This discouraged the population, and emigration grew. Human capital was driven out of Lithuania. The household survey revealed that in the opinion of 69% of heads of households under the age of 30, the standard of living during the year decreased. Young people prevailed among those who went abroad to seek employment;

Young people prevailed among those who went abroad to seek employment.

21.9% of young respondents said that they were ready to leave for permanent residence abroad, and an additional 50.0% said they would agree to a temporary stay abroad.

Social insurance, pension reform and jobs for young people.

The SODRA budget encountered significant financial difficulties in 2000, and even though its deficit fell compared to 1999, it still totalled to 151.6 million LTL. One of the reasons for the deficit was unfavourable demographic trends and the ageing of the population. SODRA expenditure on pensions amounted to 7.3% of GDP in 2000, while the rate of pension insurance contributions was 25% of the wage of the person insured. In order to pay pensions on time, SODRA was obliged to resort to the short-term borrowing of about 70 million LTL each month. An increased rate of state social insurance contributions (from 31% to 34%) from the beginning of 2000 also had an adverse effect on SODRA's budget revenue, since such a decision prompted tax evasion and resulted in a smaller number of insured people. The government's fiscal policy also contributed to SODRA's problems, because corporate tax exemptions reduced the wage base, and social insurance contributions made up 8.5% of GDP. For comparison, they were 2-3% of GDP higher in neighbouring countries.



SODRA's difficult financial situation negatively influenced social opportunities for young people. Its revenue constraints resulted in a shortage of funds that had to be remitted to the state's health and employment funds. Debts to these two funds grew. The shortage of funds prevented the Employment Fund from the implementation of employment programmes, and young people did not get a great deal of support to enter the labour market. And the supply of jobs to young people has fallen for one more reason. With a view to reducing SODRA's deficit and the burden of pension 'obligations', the pension age for men was increased to 62.5 years of age and for women to 60.

One of the aims of pension reform was to increase the public's motivation to pay social security contributions. Its

key task was to introduce mandatory pension schemes without raising the insurance contribution rate by relocating a part of the contributions collected on the basis of the existing social insurance system to mandatory pension funds. A long-term goal pursued by pension reform was to change the whole system so that retired people could receive a higher income than they have now. In actual fact, pension reform was aimed more at offering young people new opportunities to accumulate funds for their old age rather than solve the problems of today's pensioners.

The pension reform strategy and its economic feasibility was submitted to the public in a White Paper prepared by the government. The starting date of the reform was not set, however, since sources of funding were not clear. The only real resource for pension reform was the Privatisation Fund, but its utilisation was determined by law, which read that two-thirds of funds obtained from privatisation should be used to compensate for lost deposits, and one-third should be used for the implementation of the Public Investment Programme. The programme for deposit compensation was postponed for two years. Politicians did not have the courage to cancel it for the sake of the progress of pension reform.

Financial problems forced the government to re-evaluate its support programme to agriculture in 2000. A large part of the Rural Support Fund was used to cover the debts of 1999. Subsidies that were envisaged in 2000 for supporting the purchase prices of agricultural commodities were not applied, and attempts were made to gradually move from a price subsidy to a direct payment system, depending on the size of the livestock and arable land. To that end, a more modern system of livestock registration and declaration of areas for crops was introduced. Low purchase prices for agricultural produce and reducing state support conditioned a lower standard of living in rural areas than in the cities. Life in rural areas offered still fewer opportunities for young people.

Investment in human development and opportunities for youth. Higher income, satisfaction with the quality of life, and social harmony cannot be promoted without investment in human capital and public goods and services.

Complicated structural problems did not allow in 2000 for a rapid reduction of the budget expenditure to the required level. Instead the government simply halved public investment. State investment was therefore smaller in Lithuania, at 1.5% of GDP, than in Latvia and Estonia, at 3.5% and 3.8% of GDP, respectively. Scarce public investment brought about a slower improvement in the economy and prevented the modernisation of the country's infrastructure. Moreover, it hindered necessary preparation for the utilisation of EU accession funds. In its economic growth rate, Lithuania lagged behind the other two Baltic states by 2-3%.

The fundamental problems detrimental to the appropriate financing of social programmes were related to an unfavourable taxation pattern, the ambiguous distribution of administrative responsibility between central government and municipalities, and the inefficient management of state expenditure.

Structure of tax revenue, % of GDP, 2000

Personal income tax	7.9
Corporate profit tax	0.7
State social insurance contributions	7.0
Domestic goods and services taxes (consumption related)	11.7
Property taxes	0.6
Other	0.3

Even though the state budget of 2000 was drawn with reference to conservative forecasts, its implementation turned out to be a difficult task. A taxation structure where taxes related to consumption and were sensitive to economic cycles played an important role (11.7% of GDP; of which excise taxes, 3.2%) made fiscal policy rigid and incapable of rapid adaptation to the dynamically changing conditions of the global economic environment.

The structure of the taxation system proved that the purchasing power of the population was relatively low, because the proportion of value added tax (VAT) in the total state budget revenue fell from 8.1% of GDP in 1999 to 7.6% of GDP in 2000, and revenues from personal income tax fell from 8.5% of GDP to 7.9%.

A drop of the proportion of corporate income tax from 29% of GDP to 24% was also a blow to budget revenues. The share of this tax in the general income structure fell from 0.8% to 0.7% of GDP between 1999 and 2000.

The effectiveness of fiscal policy depends on the distribution of functions between the central and local governments. It was difficult for municipalities to plan their activities, since the Seimas (Parliament) and the government set a taxation base and rates for them. So the municipalities did not know what income they could count on to disperse in future. Moreover, they were not allowed to collect taxes themselves. Despite the law on the indicators of local budget revenue adopted back in 1997, transfers and subsidies to local governments were often distributed on an ad hoc basis.

The government and the Seimas delegated certain functions to municipalities, but no adequate financing followed. Consequently, the municipalities felt a shortage of funds for the payment of social benefits and compensations, for the timely

payment of wages and salaries to the staff of educational and other budgetary institutions, and for the renovation and computerisation of medical institutions and schools. Young families with children where social payments constituted a relatively large part of household income were most severely hit.

In 2000, the government proceeded with budget reform in line with EU requirements. The new version of the law on the budget stipulated that all amendments affecting budget revenues and expenditures, as well as the public debt, should be adopted prior to the approval of the financial indicators of the state and municipal budgets. This legal step reduced the possibility of taking decisions the financing of which would not be backed up by allocations from the state budget.

It was difficult to assess the efficiency of allocations to social programmes, since a system for the evaluation and monitoring of budget expenditure was not put in place, and the distribution of financial resources did not rest upon objective criteria for their effective utilisation. Taxpayers were insufficiently informed as to how

budget revenues were used.

There is no procedure or criteria according to which budget expenditure should be reduced if revenue comes to less than planned. Fund allocations were made on the basis of monthly budgets. Allocations for the payment of wages and utility services were made first, and only then did social benefits and investment projects follow. It has been revealed that social programmes and investment projects received only 80-90% of the envisaged funds in 2000.

In 2000, funds allocated for health care stood at 4.4% of GDP, which is half the EU average. Expenditure for education was 6.64% of GDP, lagging behind Poland and Latvia (above 7% of GDP). It has not been easy to evaluate all the consequences of the insufficient investment in human development in Lithuania. Insufficient access to and the falling quality of education and health care continue to deprive young people of many essential choices and opportunities.

In the changing global world, a country's or an individual's success depends on how quickly innovations are introduced, and how well young people are educated, how many skills they have and much knowledge is gained. The economic development of Lithuania offers its young people prerequisites for the acquisition of necessary knowledge and skills. However, what really matters in the process is the efforts of the young people themselves, since the economic policy of the country was not quite favourable for the attainment of their aspirations in 2000.

III

Education

Violeta Rimkevičienė

The pace of reforms in education: a brief overview. The second stage of reforms in education for the period between 1999 and 2001 has been marked by activities and achievements focused on the following priorities: the modernisation of learning; raising the quality of education; the improvement of conditions in the education and learning of social pedagogues, and the harmonisation of the general education system.

An important step in laying the foundations for sustainable improvement in the quality of education has been setting up a framework for pre-school education and the formulation of corresponding programmes and concepts. Between 1999 and 2000, basic education was

prolonged from nine to 10 years. The specialisation of basic education was finalised between 2000 and 2001. A common programme and educational standards (for grades 11 and 12) were introduced. The introduction of state examinations after graduation from secondary school proved to be efficient, and so while in 1999 there were two state examinations, in 2000 there were five. Vocational qualification exams are gradually being transferred to the Trade and Commerce Chamber, and internal and external audit methodology is being developed. Higher education legislation was adopted that legitimised colleges and other non-university tertiary educational schools.

An important step in laying the foundations for sustainable improvement in the quality of education has been setting up a framework for pre-school education.

Most important and ongoing tasks in educational reforms for the period between 1999 and 2001.

The overall ‘umbrella’ task is to provide finance and other resources for the implementation of educational reform.

1. To modernise learning and raise the quality of education

1.1. Renew and re-shape curricula in line with the national education concept and the latest international trends in education and the information society;

1.2. Apply national education standards for assessment and a uniform monitoring of the learning process for grades 1-12, and prepare standards for all education levels (vocational, specialised secondary and tertiary);

1.3. Continue specialised and differentiated secondary education;

1.4. Pay particular attention to the adjustment of vocational training to labour market needs;

1.5. Modernise school libraries with focus on information and computer networks;

1.6. Continue reform of the examination system and improve acceptance procedure into higher education institutions.

2. To improve conditions for education and studies of social pedagogy

2.1. Expand educational opportunities by developing informal adult training including the enforcement of the law on informal adult education, develop a network of diverse schools and curricula, implement extra-curricula studies and integrate them into the education system;

2.2. Maintain positions of social pedagogy at educational institutions;

2.3. Ensure state financial support to students.

3. To harmonise the education system

3.1. Strengthen general academic compatibility and succession with focus on the continuity of basic and vocational education, enlarging opportunities to enter tertiary education and improving the compatibility of qualifications;

3.2. Encourage self-governance of schools;

3.3. Support non-university higher education and implement a concept of the regional development of the education system.

In improving the social conditions for education and harmonising the education system, the following important achievements of 2000 should be mentioned:

- research was carried out in the basic education and vocational training of individuals who had been sentenced to imprisonment;
- one youth school was established and two classes for young people in basic education schools were set up;
- basic education by correspondence, funded by municipalities, was provided for military servicemen at the Kaunas, Vilnius and Marijampolė adult education centres;
- analysis was carried out into the needs of ethnic minority pupils in receiving basic education, and recommendations were prepared;
- entry into five higher educational institutions was centralized, and the main principles were defined for entry conditions into higher education schools for the years 2001 and 2002;
- a vocational educational institutions network optimisation programme was confirmed and the process of optimisation commenced.

Challenging the state monopoly: private education. The state monopoly in education continues to further diminish under the pressure of an increasing number of various private education institutions emerging. The development of private education has created the conditions for a diversity of choice in education. In the last five years the number of private institutions has grown from 36 (for the period 1995 to 1996) to 42 (for the period 2000 to 2001). Since 1999, the range of private education institutions has changed qualitatively. In the academic year 1995/1996, the most dominant non-state basic education schools were primary

In 2000, 6.64% of GDP was allocated to education. In the national budget, expenditure for education accounted for approximately 2.7 billion LTL, of which 30.8% was state budget funding and 69.2% municipality money. At the end of 2000, according to the Ministry of Education and Science, expenditure per pupil studying in a basic school was 2,404 LTL, in a vocational school 4,094 LTL, and in a tertiary institution 3,787 LTL per year.

Non-state education institutions

	Number of schools			Enrolment		
	1995-1996	1999-2000	2000-2001	1995-1996	1999-2000	2000-2001
Basic/secondary schools	20	19	20	1,092	1,660	1,744
Pre-schools	1	2	2	13	50	35
Primary	12	6	4	399	230	120
Basic	5	5	6	295	596	584
Secondary	1	5	6	338	333	491
Gymnasium	0	1	1	0	451	481
Special	1	0	1	47	0	33
Vocational school	1	1	1	145	57	42
Specialised secondary	15	18	14	1,860	4,740	4,022
Non-university higher (college-type)	0	0	3	0	0	575
Universities	0	1	4	0	63	630

In 2000, 6.64% of GDP was allocated to education.

The state monopoly in education continues to further diminish under the pressure of an increasing number of various private education institutions emerging.

schools. In the academic year 2000/2001, the dominant schools become basic, secondary and gymnasiums. Special education schools started to emerge. The number of private vocational schools is scarce and remains unchanged. Only one such school operates at this time.

Positive qualitative and quantitative changes have occurred in private tertiary schools, and in the past five years the number of students enrolled there has grown by 2.3 times, from 3,097 to 7,105. Three private college-type schools have received accreditation as non-university educational institutions. The appearance of private tertiary schools in the last two academic years has had an impact on tertiary education. In 1999, the Vilnius St. Joseph priests seminary was established, and in 2000 the International Higher Management School, the Lithuanian Christian Foundation Higher School and the Telšiai Priests Seminary were established.

Accessibility to education. One of the most important indicators characterising the state of education is its accessibility - the coherence between the supply and demand of educational services and the structure of the education system, which ensure the sustainability of the education process.

Objectively, educational opportunities are unevenly distributed territorially depending on the size of the population, the economic structure, the demand for labour and other regional economic factors. However, the problem of an uneven distribution of educational institutions is solvable when the mobility of pupils and students is ensured. For example, if small and inefficient primary and basic schools in rural areas are closed, transportation should be introduced for pupils (yellow buses). For students of specialised secondary and higher

education who move to study from rural areas or small towns, settlement grants and stipends should be provided on a means-tested basis. In solving the problem of accessibility to education, access to targeted education-related loans is important.

An important aspect of the accessibility of education is the creation of conditions conducive to life-long education, which means the possibility to start and continue studies at different stages in a person's life. The developmental years of a child are most important time to create conditions for psychosocial, social, psychological, emotional and cognitive development. In this respect, the early childhood education concept and manual on early education prepared and approved in 2000 is highly important. Moreover, an education programme for children under three years of age must be formulated and implemented. It is acknowledged that the successful and unsuccessful experiences that children undergo in school to a large extent impact their lives and form their attitudes to future education.

In 2000, there were 501 pre-school institutions in urban areas and 213 in rural areas. The number of children attending pre-school institutions fell by nearly three times between 1991 and 2000. In 2000, 41.1% of children of pre-school age attended kindergardens, of which 11.8% were in rural areas and 58.0% were in urban areas. In the past five years the number of children throughout Lithuania attending pre-schools grew by 11% - by 16.3% in urban areas and only 3.2% in rural areas.

In seeking to improve attendance of pre-schools along with creating new institutions, special classes and groups of pre-school age children should be created within schools. The increase in the num-

An important aspect of the accessibility of education is the creation of conditions conducive to lifelong education.

Children from rural and urban areas have unequal opportunities to be prepared for primary school.

ber of special groups and classes at rural schools exceeds that of urban schools. During the last two academic years such classes grew by 321 in rural areas and by 107 in urban areas. Such a gap could be explained by a difference in the structure of educational institutions within the network. The number of

pre-school institutions in rural areas is 2.4 times less than in urban areas. However, in the opinion of OECD experts, the uniting of pre-school classes with the basic education system will not solve all the problems of early education for rural children. So in optimising the network of educational institutions it is necessary to take

into account the needs of early childhood education, particularly in rural areas.

In summing up, it could be said that children from rural and urban areas have unequal opportunities to be prepared for primary school. Generally speaking, access to pre-school education depends very much on the place of residence. Closely related to this is the distribution of pre-school age educational institutions in the districts. Other factors that contribute to these differences include the inequality and different social and economic conditions of the family's socio-cultural environment and so on, all of which contribute to attendance.

In the past five years enrolment in basic education schools in urban areas has grown, and in rural has fallen. However, despite this trend, in the academic year 1999/2000 there were twice as many basic schools operating in rural areas, even though enrolment there is three times less than in urban areas. The disproportion in primary, basic and secondary schools between rural and urban areas is also obvious. In rural areas there are nine times as many primary schools and 12 times as many basic edu-

cation schools as in urban areas, while urban areas have nearly twice as many secondary schools and eight times as many special education schools as rural areas. Moreover, while in rural areas there is only one youth school, and no adult education schools, in urban areas the number of these types of schools is 23 and 21, respectively. Pupils from rural areas have less opportunities to enrol in different types of education past basic school if they have dropped out of basic school. There is,

Enrolment at basic school in Lithuania's urban areas was three times higher than in rural areas in the academic year 2000/2001. The number of gymnasium pupils in each differs by 94.2 times, and enrolment at special schools in urban areas was 10.6 times higher than in rural areas.

Enrolment at pre-school institutions, % of the corresponding age group

	1995	1999	2000
Total			
1-6 years	30.1	40.4	41.1
Up to 3 years	11.2	13.4	13.7
3 years and over	36.2	53.3	53.1
Cities			
1-6 years	41.7	56.6	58.0
Up to 3 years	15.7	19.4	19.9
3 years and over	49.9	74.1	74.4
Rural areas			
1-6 years	8.6	12.2	11.8
Up to 3 years	2.6	3.4	3.2
3 years and over	10.7	16.6	15.6

therefore, a higher probability that students in rural areas will acquire a lower level of education. Access to educational institutions is often linked to a lack of money for transportation.

Even though the publishing of textbooks was considered an important task of education reform, in reality insufficient attention was paid to the quality of textbooks for basic education. In stressing the importance of final grades in secondary schools in relation to further studies (the possibility to enter specialised secondary or higher education institutions), the quality of the whole of basic education as the foundation on which all future learning is based was somehow sacrificed.

Specialised and differentiated education: lessons learnt. In striving to take the individual needs and preferences of pupils into account, in 1998 an experimental programme on specialised education was approved. In the academic year 2000/2001, in the final grades of secondary school pupils could choose between an exact, humanitarian or technical education. However, the survey of schools that revealed a need for specialised learning also revealed that the needs of pupils in selecting specialised education have not been completely satisfied. The ‘capacity’ of the specialised education model was itself insufficiently utilised, particularly regarding the tools and measures for redistributing the workload and improving teaching methods.

The secondary schools that did not meet the requirements of specialised education were transformed into basic schools. This transformation worsened still further accessibility to schools. Such a situation contradicts one of the main objectives of education, to not only guarantee opportunities to select a specialisation, but also to freely change it, or, having stopped studies, to be able to continue them whenever the need arises. The education system must contain a ‘bridge’ linked to specialised education, to ensure such opportunities exist. According to OECD experts, however, the early specialisation and segregation of pupils in fact limits rather than boosts their education-related choices. Uncertainties also arise during the acceptance of pupils with a different specialisation or without any into university or other higher educational institutions.

There is a clear trend in Lithuania where conditions are created for students who are studying better, are more gifted, diligent and motivated from the ninth class to continue their secondary education in a gymnasium. While in the academic year 1993/1994 there were three gymnasiums operating, in 2000/2001 the number increased to 80, and the number of schools having gymnasium classes was 12. In the academic year 2000/2001, there were 28,921 pupils in gymnasiums, and there were 307 students in gymnasium classes in rural areas.

The 10 years of the gymnasium ‘movement’ has not been evaluated uniformly in the context of general educational reform. The idea behind the creation of gymnasiums was the provision of higher quality education and conditions for the

In striving to guarantee better opportunities for pupils to acquire secondary education from 2000 to 2001 specialised learning was introduced in basic schools. Of the 740 secondary schools, gymnasiums and adult education centres, specialised grades were established in 546.

Lithuanian Education 2000, Vilnius: PPRC, 2001, p.30

maximum realisation of pupils’ abilities. In actual fact gymnasiums created the conditions to change the final stages of secondary education schools for some categories of pupils. This only sharpened the problems of the whole of basic education, particularly related to the specialisation of basic education schools. Moreover, the establishment of gymnasiums raised questions of a social and psychological nature, to which it is not easy to find answers at this time. Is a teenager who has finished eight grades mature enough to choose the further direction of his or her studies in a gymnasium? How much do gymnasiums contribute to segregation in the education system?

Opportunities to continue education for those who go back to repeat studies in the same grade or who drop out of school. From the human development perspective, both the individuals who stop studying and society as a whole suffer significant losses. These people become deprived of many essential choices in their lives and are exposed to a high risk of unemployment, poverty and social exclusion. And in economic terms, society will need to ‘invest’ more in these people through additional social programmes.

The total number of pupils who repeated courses between 1995/1996 and 2000/2001 was approximately 34,800. This demanded approximately 10 million LTL in additional funding annually. Most often, they are first-year students and pupils in the sixth and ninth grades. ‘Repeat’ pupils from the latter two grades usually drop out of basic school altogether.

Particular attention is paid by society to children up to the age of 16 who do not attend basic school since, according to the Lithuanian Constitution and related laws, education is compulsory for children until they turn 16. The registration of drop-outs is made by the Ministry of Education and Science and the Department of Statistics. However, the different methodologies used for these calculations do not allow for accurate assessments.

The Ministry of Education and Science has indicated that 1,305 children up to 16 years of age were not attending school (among them 485 children with disabilities) in 1998. In 1999, the figure was 824 (of whom 309 were with disabilities), and in 2000, 689 children dropped out of basic school (of whom 255 were disabled). Statistics from Lithuania’s districts indicate that the number of drop-outs is decreasing, and in the districts of Vilnius, Kaunas and

The results of examinations in basic and secondary schools.

In 2000, after basic education become a 10-year process, completion examinations were taken by 10th grade pupils for the first time. Analysis made by the National Examination Centre allowed for a comparison of the results of different types of schools. Very small schools (up to 10 pupils in the 10th grade) and small schools (11 to 20 10th-grade pupils) dominate among the basic schools, accounting for, respectively, 72.2% and 21.9% of all basic schools. Of the total number of basic school pupils, 78.8% study in these schools. Very large (61 to 90 10th-grade pupils) and large (31 to 60 10th-grade pupils) schools together constitute 2.6% of total basic schools, with 14.1% of all basic school pupils. Among secondary schools and

gymnasiums very large, large and small schools, respectively constitute 35.1%, 23.3% and 5.6% of the total number of secondary schools.

The final examination results from gymnasiums were the best of all Lithuania's schools. Similar trends were noted in comparing state graduation examination results. In 1999, state graduation examinations were held in history and mathematics. In 2000, the number of state examinations was expanded, and biology, chemistry and physics examinations were included. The results of the state graduation examinations were better in urban and regional centre schools than in schools in small towns and rural areas.

There is a link between the size of a school and the results of the state graduation examination - the smaller the school, the worse the examination results.

Pupils who repeat course, thousands*

	1995/1996	1996/1997	1997/1998	1998/1999	1999/2000	2000/2001
Total	8.1	7.5	6.4	5.0	4.1	3.7
1 - 4 grades	3.0	3.0	2.5	2.1	1.7	1.4
5 - 10 grades	4.9	4.4	3.7	2.8	2.4	2.3
11 - 12 grades	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.04	0.03

*Beginning of academic year

Panevežys their number is greater than in other districts.

According to expert assessments by the Department of Statistics, for example, in the academic year 1998/1999, 96% of children aged 7-15 studied in various types of schools while 21,000 dropped out (4%). Expert calculations indicate that on average 5,000 seven-year-olds do not enrol for school and that approximately the same number drop out between the first and ninth grades.¹ On the other hand, in the publication "Education in Lithuania 2000" it is noted that in the academic year 1999/2000 the number of children aged up to 16 who are not attending school was 24,724. The biggest age group among drop-outs is 10-12 years of age (5.5% of those who are 10, 7.1% of those who are 11 and 6.2% of those who are 12 do not attend school).

All figures and estimates unanimously reveal a decrease in the number of drop-outs. It must be noted that absence of reliable data on drop-outs can not allow not only for a evaluation of the situation, but also for targeted policy measures. It is only to be hoped that the 2001 population census will provide more accurate data.

Absence of reliable data on drop-outs can not allow not only for a evaluation of the situation, but also for targeted policy measures.

The problem of dropping out should be related not only with compulsory education, but with life-long education.

Young people aged up to 16 who have dropped out of the education system are just the tip of the iceberg. A large number of pupils who are older than 16 leave educational institutions each year. In the past 10 years, the number of drop-outs from basic school fluctuates from 5,000 to 11,000, in vocational schools from 4,000 to 5,500, and in tertiary institutions from 5,000 to 9,000 students. On the other hand there are no statistics that can allow us to assess just how many of these people actually continue their studies at a later date. What the statistics do show is how much the education system incurs in losses, and this forces us to think about those opportunities that do exist for people to continue their studies at different stages of their lives. So the problem of dropping out should be related not only with compulsory education, but also with the necessity to provide opportunities to re-enter the education system and be involved in life-long education.

For those who leave school before reaching the age of 16, there are several opportunities to continue education by returning to basic school or attending a youth school (12-16 years of age). They can also enter a vocational school from the first level (from 14 years of age), and when they turn 18 they can then continue their studies and acquire a basic education at an adult education centre. So for young people aged 16-18 who lack a basic education (who, for example, have not attended school for several years and have only completed five grades), the opportunities for an education remain scarce. They cannot return to a basic

education at an adult education centre. So for young people aged 16-18 who lack a basic education (who, for example, have not attended school for several years and have only completed five grades), the opportunities for an education remain scarce. They cannot return to a basic

¹ Lietuvos socialine raida, 2000, p.28.

Drop-outs from educational institutions*

	Pupils/students who left during academic year	% of total enrolment
Basic school (day)		
1991/1992	10,057	2.1
1992/1993	11,089	2.2
1993/1994	4,473	0.9
1994/1995	6,263	1.2
1995/1996	6,706	1.3
1996/1997	6,081	1.2
1997/1998	5,108	0.9
1998/1999	5,127	0.9
1999/2000	4,828	0.9
Vocational school		
1991/1992	3,871	...
1992/1993	4,856	11.4
1993/1994	4,579	9.9
1994/1995	3,840	8.4
1995/1996	4,163	8.4
1996/1997	4,730	9.1
1997/1998	4,896	9.0
1998/1999	5,144	9.1
2000/2001	5,410	10.3
Specialised secondary school		
1991/1992	4,086	10.9
1992/1993	3,060	10.2
1993/1994	2,400	10.1
1994/1995	2,736	11.5
1995/1996	2,554	10.4
1996/1997	2,967	10.9
1997/1998	4,126	13.4
1998/1999	3,023	8.8
2000/2001	4,477	11.5
Higher education institutions		
1991/1992	7,115	11.5
1992/1993	6,684	11.8
1993/1994	6,332	12.7
1994/1995	6,166	11.7
1995/1996	5,358	9.6
1996/1997	6,542	10.9
1997/1998	7,227	10.5
1998/1999	8,542	11.1
1999/2000	8,828	10.1

* Excluding those who transferred to another educational institution.

school and they are not accepted to adult education centres that provide a secondary education past basic school. So there are some people who remain with only a primary education.

It is difficult for them to continue their studies and at the same time find their place in the labour market.

Educational opportunities for all: meeting special needs.

In the past 10 years, special education was an important component of the education system. In the Law on Education of 1991, it was already stated that children with special needs have the right to be educated in the general educational institutions that are closest to their home. This created the conditions for the social integration of pupils with special needs. In 1998, changes to the legislation noted that every child without exception - even those with very special education needs who until 1990 were considered 'uneducatable' - had the right to education. In 1999, the Law on Special Education was passed, which encompassed an entire education chain from early childhood to higher education for people with special needs. On the adoption of this law, the following additional legal acts were adopted: an acceptance procedure for people with special needs into a special educational institution; and a procedure for educating pupils at home. Today, pupils with special needs have a wide range of opportunities in being educated together with other children of the same age in basic or specialised schools. According to the Ministry of Education and Science, in 2000/2001 there were 53,308 pupils with special needs, (9% of the total number of pupils). Of the 45,539 pupils who were studying in basic schools together with children of the same age (this is called total integration), 60% had language or communication disorders, 19% had specific recognition disorders, 8% had limited intellect, 5% had visual impairments, and 1% had hearing impairments. Only 1.1% of all pupils with special needs were enrolled in special educational institutions, a proportion that has nearly halved over the last 10 years.

There still remains the problem of children with special needs who have limited opportunities to select further education or a vocation. In 2000/2001, there were only 169 such pupils studying in vocational training and education groups at special education schools.

With the spread of globalisation and the increase in labour force mobility, education should ensure the maintenance of traditional values and cultural identity, and at the same time provide the skills and knowledge to empower people with the ability to adjust to changing conditions. People should have access to quality basic education and have equal 'start' opportunities, accessibility to secondary education and vocational training, and the chance to return to education at any time in their lives.

IV

Youth and the labour market

Nijolė Večkienė

Employment. On the one hand, young people, in accordance with their socio-demographic position, determine the prospects for the labour market. They are, on the other, the population group most sensitive to labour market fluctuations. This is, therefore, to some extent a priority 'contingent' for the labour market. The important issue is whether vocational training qualitatively and quantitatively corresponds to labour demand. There is a tendency among young people to reject low-qualified jobs in favour of more important strategic aims by acquiring a speciality that is in demand.

According to forecasts from the Department of Statistics, the number of young people should start to fall dramatically from the year 2010. This will reduce competition in the labour market, but in the long term any fall in the number of young people will inevitably result in a decline in total population and a shortage of young workers. Increasing migration has also contributed to the decline in the younger population. In the last 10 years the number of young people has fallen by almost 63,000 people. The process of migration as a whole is most common among people between the ages of 20 and 29. The declining numbers of young people are, of course, leading to a decline in their presence on the labour market. Labour force surveys in 2000 revealed that the number of economically active young people (employed and unemployed people aged 14 to 29) fell between 1997 and 2000 by approximately 53,100.

The concept of state policy on young people defines them as being 16 to 29 years of age, people who are forming their own personalities and preparing themselves for an independent life in society. In Lithuania, even though the age from which a person can begin work is 16, legislation on work contracts allows for the possibility to work from 14 provided there is the consent of the parents or carers.

According to the labour force survey, approximately 868,000 young people (15-29) were part of the labour force in 1997, of whom 401,000 were employed. By 2000, the 'young labour force' had dropped to 811,000 people and the number of employed young people reached 357,500. The number of young people who were unemployed, meanwhile, rose from 71,000 to 82,000 during the same period.

Changes like these occurred in all groups of young people aged between 14 and 29: the employed, unemployed and economically inactive (those who study, those who neither work nor study and those who are not seeking work). In 1997, 57.7% of young people were economically active, of whom 46.2% were employed and 11.4% were unemployed, and economically inactive young people accounted for 42.3%. In 2000, the following shift occurred: 55.2% were economically active, of whom 44.1% were employed, while the proportion of those who were unemployed fell to 11.1% and the proportion of economically inactive young people grew to 44.8%.

Labour force by age and gender, thousands

Age group	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total	1,827.9	1,842.5	1,861.7	1,793.6
15-19*	67.3	56.4	52.3	33.4
20-24	192.3	183.4	179.7	165.0
25-29	241.1	252.9	254.6	249.1
Men				
Total	965.8	960.5	962.3	918.7
15-19*	43.9	35.4	31.2	22.8
20-24	113.3	104.9	102.1	93.0
25-29	134.7	135.5	136.0	130.2
Women				
Total	862.1	882.0	899.4	874.8
15-19*	23.4	21.0	21.1	10.5
20-24	79.0	78.5	77.7	72.0
25-29	106.4	117.4	118.6	118.9

*Between 1997 and 1999, the age group was from 14 to 19 years, and in 2000 from 15 to 19.

Employed, thousands

	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total	1,570.7	1,597.6	1,598.4	1,517.9
Young people	401.3	404.9	391.2	357.5
15-19	43.8	41.0	36.1	19.5
20-24	150.3	145.7	134.3	121.5
25-29	207.2	218.2	220.7	216.5

Employment by age group varies and has significantly changed over time. In 1997, 14% of 14-19 year olds were employed. In 2000, the proportion was 7%. The proportion of young people aged 20-24 who were employed was 56% in 1997 and 47% in 2000. About a third of bachelor's students and approximately 80% of master's students work and study at the same time. They belong to the category of the employed.

The employment of men and women. Since there are traditionally more women enrolled in secondary, specialised secondary and higher education institutions, less of them are employed and the number of men exceeds the number of employed women in all age groups. The number of young men aged up to 24 who are employed or economically active is markedly higher than the number of women employed in the same age group. However, economic activity increases for women aged 25-29 years, whereas for men of this age group it decreases.

Employment by economic sector and profession. The distribution of employed young people by economic sector depends on their age. For example, in 2000, 7% of people aged between 15 and 19 were employed and the majority of them (60%) were rural residents, who helped their parents in private farming. The distribution of employed people aged 20 to 29 resembles the distribution of the total number of the

Employment level by age, %

	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total	52.8	53.5	53.2	51.2
15-19	13.9	12.9	11.2	7.2
20-24	55.4	55.1	51.7	47.0
25-29	73.5	76.9	77.7	76.8
Men	60.3	59.6	58.4	55.5
15-19	18.2	15.6	12.6	8.7
20-24	62.1	61.7	57.7	52.4
25-29	82.0	80.2	80.1	76.3
Women	46.4	48.2	48.7	47.5
15-19	9.5	10.1	9.8	5.6
20-24	48.6	48.5	45.7	41.4
25-29	64.6	73.4	75.2	77.4

Working a shortened day.

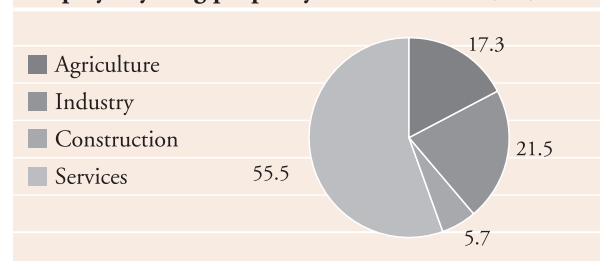
The possibility of working a shortened day or part-time is particularly important for students, not to mention young student families. However, a shortened working day is more popular among women.

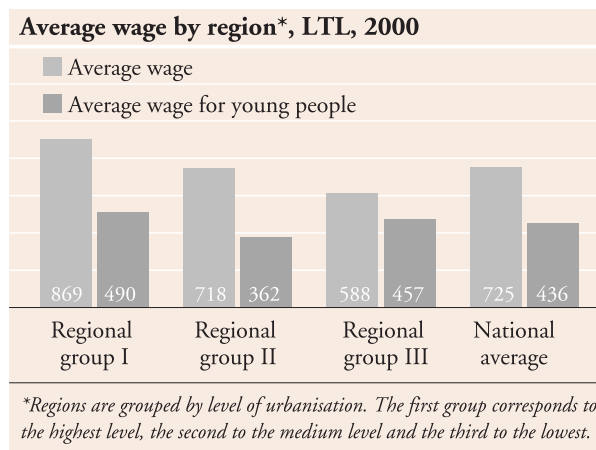
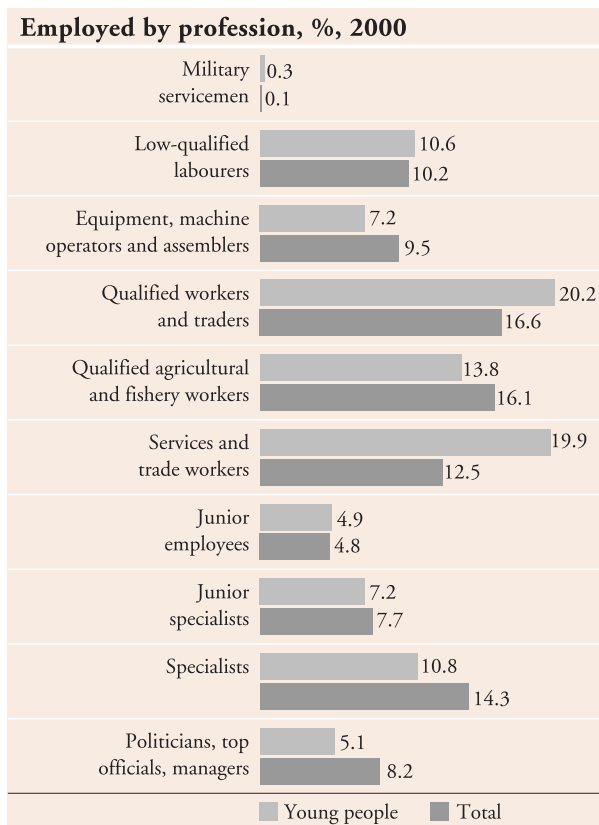
This is how 10.5% of all employed women and 7.5% of employed men worked in 2000. Among young people, 20% work part-time. In the last few years the number of people working part-time has been increasing, as young married women strive to protect their jobs. However, married women working part-time are not popular among employers, and their number has been decreasing.

employed by economic activity, with the exception that slightly more young people compared to adults work in commerce (20% and 13%, respectively) and 19% of those who are older than 30 work in agriculture, while for young people the figure is 16%. As the majority of people aged 15 to 19 work in agriculture their most popular choice of profession is farming (48%). Twenty per cent of this age group do non-qualified work. The majority of young people who belong to the 20-29 age group have acquired qualifications; 20% of them are qualified workers, 19% work in services, 13% in agriculture and 5% are legislators, senior officials and managers. A relatively high proportion (11%) of people aged 20 to 29 belong to the category of specialist (for example, professions like engineers, teachers and doctors) compared to those who are older than 30, of whom 15% are specialists.

Generally speaking, the greatest chance of employment for young people comes from services and industry. Their employment in agriculture also remains high. In terms of the development trends of the countries of the EU, which Lithuania intends to join, this cannot be seen as a positive factor. The reduction of the agricultural sector is an important prerequisite for EU membership. Given that 17.3% of young people are employed in agriculture, special programmes aimed at labour mobility should be implemented.

Employed young people by economic sector, %, 2000





Territorial gaps in employment opportunities for young people. Qualifications among young people living in urban areas are significantly higher than those of young people in rural areas, and their work is better paid. More than 49% of young people are concentrated in Lithuania's five largest cities. Moreover, educational opportunities and choices of training programmes are much wider in the cities. Meanwhile, in rural areas there is a shortage of work in non-agricultural sectors and the territorial mobility of young people is very low.

The work young people do is paid nearly 40% less than the national average.

Unemployed young people by education in selected labour exchanges, %, 2000

Region	Higher	Specialised secondary	Vocational	Unqualified
Group I				
Vilnius	3.9	11.9	40.9	43.3
Panevėžys	2.9	10.3	43.2	43.6
Group II				
Rokiškis	0.7	6.4	39.2	53.7
Akmenė	0.2	3.3	38.5	58.0
Švenčionys	0.9	5.8	53.1	40.2
Group III				
Kaišiadorys	0.5	6.0	32.5	61.2
Vilkaviškis	0.6	4.8	52.7	41.9
Šalčininkai	0.6	4.6	30.9	63.9
Lithuania	2.8	7.7	42.4	47.1

As surveys on the integration of young people into the labour market have shown, the work young people do is paid nearly 40% less than the national average. The difference is more notable by region, depending on its level of urbanisation.

In all three regional groups the supply of jobs for people aged 16-19 exceeds demand. The potential for labour supply is best in the first group and worst in the third. In the cities, the unemployed have the higher level of education. Conditions for young people to integrate into the labour market are more favourable for those who live in the cities. The situation is worse in the country's rural areas. One of the ways of mitigating differences in employment opportunities is more rational use of the Employment Fund - to decentralise the vocational training of young people, optimally using the network of schools.

Unemployment. The International Labour Organisation (ILO) defines the unemployed differently to the Lithuanian Labour Exchange. According to the ILO, the unemployed are people of working age who: have no work or personal business; who have been actively seeking a job during the previous month; and, having found a job, who are able to start work within two weeks. The regular labour force surveys conducted by the Department of Statistics use the ILO definition of unemployment. It should be noted that before 2000 the minimum age for polling was 14, and since 2000 it has been 15. Data on young people obtained before and after 2000, therefore, is difficult to compare.

The Law on Unemployment Benefits passed in 1996 defines the unemployed as working-aged, able-bodied people who are out of work, are not attending day schools, are registered with a labour exchange as job seekers, or are ready to take on professional training. Labour exchanges register the unemployed according to this law.

According to the labour exchange, the number of unemployed young people is increasing every year. Their num-

ber grew from 48,000 people in 1997 to 62,600 in 2000. On 1 September 2001, 29,200 young unemployed people were registered. The level of unemployment among young people reached 18.9% (total 12.0%) on 1 November 2001. On average, every fourth person registered with the labour exchange is under 29. The level of unemployment among young people was always higher than the national average. The highest levels of unemployment at the beginning of 2001 were 21% to 29% in Akmenė, Šalčininkai, Pasvalys, Lazdijai and Mažeikiai.

According to the labour force survey, however, actual youth unemployment is twice as high as the registered rate. This occurs not only because of a difference in the definition of unemployed applied by the labour exchanges and therefore in the labour force survey, but also because not all unemployed people apply to the labour exchange. Moreover, the Law on Unemployment Benefits limits job seeking opportunities at the labour exchange for those who study. Young people who study at daytime educational institutions do not officially belong to the category of unemployed, despite the fact that very often they want to work and seek employment. So data on unemployed young people from the labour exchange are not accurate. Unlike the labour exchange, the labour force survey revealed particularly high unemployment in the regions of Tauragė (41%), Alytus (39%) and Šiauliai (33%).

In 1997 the young unemployed accounted for 38% of the total unemployed, and their proportion decreased to 33% in 2000.

From 1997 to 2000, the level of unemployment for both the age groups 15-19 and 19-24 was more than 1.5 to two times higher than the national average, according to the labour force survey. The highest level of unemployment was noted in the 15-19 age group. The level of unemployment for the 20-24 age group was lower, but it grew by 4.6% between 1997 and 2000. The lowest level of unemploy-

Unemployment level by age and gender*, %

	National average			14-19			20-24			25-29		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1997	14.1	14.2	13.9	34.9	33.7	37.2	21.8	25.0	17.4	14.1	12.1	16.6
1998	13.3	14.3	12.2	27.4	28.8	25.0	20.6	21.7	19.0	13.7	14.1	13.3
1999	14.1	15.6	12.6	30.9	33.8	26.5	25.2	26.1	24.0	13.3	14.6	11.9
2000	15.4	17.3	13.3	43.0	47.8	29.5	26.4	26.7	26.0	13.1	15.7	10.2

*Labour force survey data

Unemployment level by district, age up to 25, %, 2000*

District	Total	Women	Men
Total	29.0	26.3	30.8
Alytus	39.1	18.7	48.2
Kaunas	33.8	39.2	29.9
Klaipėda	23.9	18.2	28.1
Marijampolė	20.3	27.6	28.2
Panevėžys	27.8	25.1	29.8
Šiauliai	32.9	22.6	38.4
Tauragė	40.9	44.4	37.8
Telšiai	13.1	11.8	14.2
Utena	30.5	39.7	26.4
Vilnius	26.0	22.9	28.5

*Labour force survey data

Unemployed young people by age and gender, % of total unemployed

	14-19			20-24			25-29		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
1997	9.1	10.8	7.2	16.3	20.0	11.4	14.1	12.1	16.6
1998	6.3	7.4	4.9	15.4	16.6	13.8	13.7	14.1	13.3
1999	6.1	7.0	4.9	17.2	17.7	16.5	13.3	14.6	11.9
2000	5.0	6.8	2.5	15.8	14.7	12.9	11.8	12.9	10.4

*Labour force survey data

According to the labour exchange, the number of unemployed young people is increasing every year. The level of unemployment among young people reached 18.9% (total 12.0%) on 1 November 2001.

ment was noted in the 25-29 age group. Generally, older age groups suffer lower unemployment.

The level of unemployment is increasing among young men. In 1997, the proportion of men in the total number of unemployed young people was almost 60%; in 2000 it fell to 56%. By the beginning of 2001, the proportion reached 59.8%. The highest level of un-

employment is among boys in the 15-19 age group (63%). In 2000, 12,600 vocational, secondary and tertiary school graduates sought the assistance of the labour exchanges. This figure was 3,200 more than for the previous year.

The insufficient level of education and vocational training or their disparity with labour market demand often becomes the reason for unemployment among young people.

Young people unemployed by education, %, January 2001*	
Primary, incomplete primary	9.6
Basic with vocational	18.1
Basic without vocational	22.5
Secondary with vocational	23.6
Secondary without vocational	15.1
Specialised secondary	8.3
Higher	2.8

*Lithuanian Labour Exchange data

Education and unemployment among young people.

Lithuanian Labour Exchange statistics indicate that by the beginning of 2001 the proportion of unemployed young people with a higher education was only 2.8%, and with specialised secondary 8.3%. The proportion of the young unemployed without vocational training was 41.7%. It was noted that approximately 3,300 of the young unemployed did not even have a basic education. The labour force survey suggested a different picture, with the unemployed with higher education accounting for 5%, those with specialised secondary education 15% and those with secondary 41% of the total number of young unemployed people. More than a third had no basic or primary education. Young people with a low level of education are exposed to a high risk of long-term unemployment.

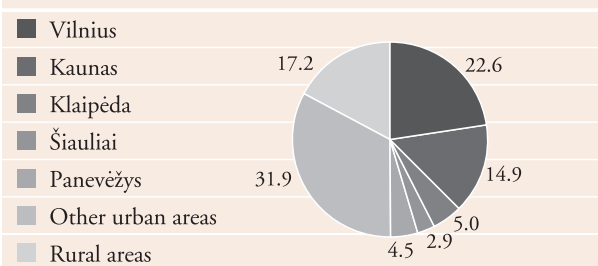
Research on the demand for professionals with a higher education conducted in 1999 on the initiative of the Department of Education and Science revealed that more and more young people from the cities are seeking higher education. The residents of rural areas and towns are gradually being pushed out of the higher education system. The majority of people aged up to 29 were labourers before registering with the labour exchange. Only 2% had their own business, 1% were farmers, and 1% were employed in other jobs.

Reasons for unemployment among young people. Surveyed young unemployed people have indicated the following reasons for loss of employment or in-

Approximately 3,300 of the young unemployed did not even have a basic education. Young people with a low level of education are exposed to a high risk of long-term unemployment.

ability to get a job: expiry of work contract; engagement in seasonal work; dissatisfaction with employer; insufficient remuneration; poor work conditions; work not according to speciality; and viability of company employer (liquidation, bankruptcy, staff reduction). Approximately 8% of young employees were fired because of bad relationships with their employers and because they violated their work discipline code. Less than 3% of the young unemployed who had work experience stated that the reason for the loss of a job was insufficient vocational training. Meanwhile, in the opinion of the employers, young people lose their jobs because they lack professional training. The majority of unemployed people without much work ex-

Breakdown of higher education graduate respondents by place of residence, %, 1999



perience (60%) also think that the main reason for their unemployment is their lack of vocational training. When stating the main reasons for their unemployment more women than men identified a lack of vocational training, whereas men identified a lack of jobs.

Employment opportunities and challenges. The behaviour of young people in the labour market and the reasons behind their unemployment depend on many social, economic and demographic factors that are very much interrelated. The following important factors can contribute to the expansion of employment opportunities for young people: the motivation of young people themselves to improve their education; the accessibility of that education; the availability of information and consultation about employment and changes in the labour market; a more active role of labour exchanges in addressing employment needs; active labour market policies; and the improvement of territorial and occupational mobility of young people.

The average unemployment benefit received by the young unemployed in 2000 was 137 LTL. According to research data, only 29% of the young unemployed receive unemployment benefits. The majority of unemployed young people are not eligible to receive benefits, because they do not have the required two-year employment record.

Long-term unemployment among young people.

Long-term unemployment (jobseeking for more than 12 months) is growing steadily along with the increase in total unemployment. According to the labour force survey, the long-term unemployed accounted for 58% of the total number of unemployed in the second quarter of 2001. In 1999, the proportion was 39%.

Long-term unemployment among young people is also rising. Young people account for approximately a third of all the long-term unemployed. There are twice as many men as there are women among the young long-term unemployed.

Around 50% of the young long-term unemployed have been seeking jobs for one to two years, and approximately a third have been looking for work for two to three years. There are relatively few young people among those seeking jobs for four years or more, but their numbers are growing rapidly. In 1999, such jobseekers accounted for 1,400 people, or 5%, of the total number of the young long-term unemployed, and by the second quarter of 2001 these figures had jumped to 11,100 and 27%.

The ultimate influence on success in jobseeking is education and work experience. By the second quarter of 2001, a third of unemployed people aged 15-29 had left school without any qualifications or work experience. Of these, 25% left a secondary school or a gymnasium, and 16%

Long-term unemployed, thousands

	Total	Men	Women	Of which young people, aged 15-29		
				Total	Men	Women
1999	101.9	61.8	40.0	28.4	19.5	8.9
2000	144.2	86.3	57.9	42.9	30.2	12.6
2001, 2 nd quarter	168.5	106.4	62.1	41.0	29.2	11.8

went to a vocational college after school with skills that were not in demand at their place of residence. Young people with a specialised secondary education and those who got vocational training after secondary school accounted for only 6% of the total number of the young long-term unemployed. Many young long-term unemployed people have either previously worked (40%) or studied at daytime schools (31%).

The most popular method of jobseeking is through the state labour exchange, by applying directly to employers or via advertisements in the media. Less often, young unemployed people apply to private labour exchanges or place advertisements in the press.

About a third of all the long-term unemployed (the same is true for young people) would agree to work for the minimum wage, 10% for even less than that, and approximately 13% would agree to earn from 400 to 800LTL, while 5% would agree to earn no less than 1,500LTL.

Vitalija Motikaitienė, Head of the Employment Statistics Division, Department of Statistics

This text is included in this chapter by the editors of the Report.

From July to September 2000, the Institute of Labour and Social Research carried out a survey of the young unemployed (jobseekers) in eight territorial labour exchanges. The aim of the research was to determine motivation, territorial mobility and opportunities for integrating young people into the labour market.

The research helped to reveal a socio-demographic portrait of the young unemployed. The typical young unemployed person who is unsuccessful in finding job is 21 to 24 years old, with insufficient educational background, without 'marketable' professional qualifications or any regu-

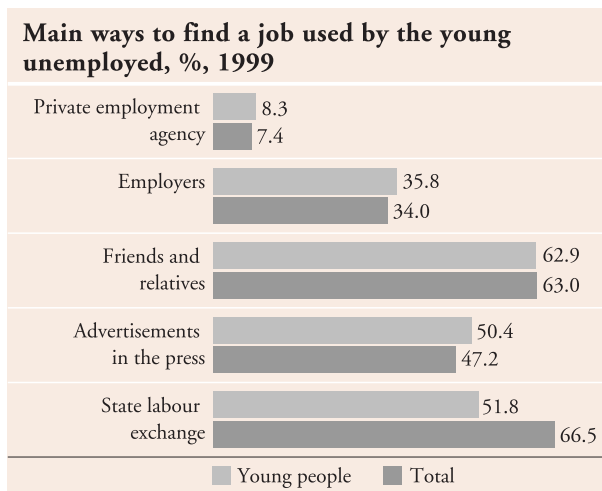
lar source of income, unmarried and without children, and still living with his or her parents and maintained by them.

The research also revealed deep regional disparities in economic development and standard of living, the demographic composition of the population, and labour supply and demand. The Lithuanian labour market differs from those in developed countries not only by deep territorial disparities in employment opportunities but also by low labour mobility. Opportunities for young people to participate in the labour market therefore differ.

Systemic measures for the improvement of employment opportunities for young people. The problem of youth employment is much wider than labour market policy or approaches to the allocation of the Employment Fund. It should be considered from a systemic human development position. A system of measures aimed at improving employ-

ment opportunities for young people should include ¹ :
· the advancement of basic education emphasising the importance of knowledge about labour market development, strength-

¹ Jaunimo integravimas į darbo rinką, The Institute of Labour and Social Research, Vilnius, 2001



ening motivation for acquiring competitive qualifications;

- developing sustainable vocational training by improving its quality and accessibility, and the correlation between training and labour market demand;
- the expansion of the entrepreneurial skills of young people as a part of a national programme on the development of small- and medium-sized businesses;
- the promotion of active labour market policy measures based on competitive vocational training, the dissemination of information, increasing the popularity and variety of social public works, and increasing the flexibility of Employment Fund-supported jobs;
- the development of information systems, non-governmental youth organisations, international work contracts, territorial mobility and support for first-time jobseekers by tax concessions for employers.

V

Standard of living: children, youth and poverty

Romas Lazutka

General trends. The year 2000 is widely considered to be Lithuania's year of recovery from its economic crisis. The aggregate wealth indicator, GDP, grew by 3.9% after a fall in 1999. However, economic growth had no positive effect on the average standard of living of the population. Disposable income fell below the level of 1998. In 1999 it reached 428 LTL per household member on average, and in 2000 it fell to 415 LTL. Income both in cash and in kind went down.

The fall in income continued into the beginning of 2001. Compared to the 1st quarter of 2000, it fell by 2% in the 1st quarter of 2001. Even though the average gross wage in 2000 rose from 987 LTL to 1,008 LTL, it was not sufficient to compensate for the growth in consumer prices, and the real wage fell by 1.9%. The majority of Lithuanians have no share in the benefits of the economic recovery.

Monthly disposable income per household member, LTL

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Disposable income	326.7	368.9	422.5	428.0	415.4
in cash	253.0	297.0	350.4	360.4	349.4
in kind	73.7	71.9	72.1	67.6	66.0

The decrease in income led to a worsening of consumption indicators. In 2000, average monthly consumer expenditure per capita fell by 21 LTL. The population spent less money on almost all consumer goods and services. Expenditure on utilities (water, electricity, gas) and transport, remained almost at the same level, but grew noticeably on communications. Higher prices were behind this increase in expenditure.

Lithuanians reduced their expenditure on food in both relative and absolute terms. The welcome continuous decrease since 1996 in the proportion of expenditure on food in total consumer expenditure slowed a little in 2000, the proportion dropping from 45.7% to 44.4%.

Usually, when total consumption falls the proportion of expenditure on food tends to increase, since it is more difficult

Monthly consumer expenditure per household member, LTL

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total	348.1	382.6	426.8	425.4	404.4
Food	192.2	199.6	205.5	194.4	179.7
Communications	2.9	4.0	8.1	9.8	14.4
Rent, water, electricity, gas and other fuel	41.0	46.8	52.7	54.8	54.4
Transport	18.1	25.0	28.8	32.3	30.5

Expenditure on food in total household consumer expenditure, %

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
	55.2	52.2	48.1	45.7	44.4

to decrease food consumption absolutely in a society that is not wealthy. Even so, during 2000, average expenditure on food fell from 194.4 LTL to 179.7 LTL per household member per month. This occurred because an increase in prices of essential goods and services provided in a centralised way (like heating, water) did not bring about a decrease in their consumption. Therefore, the fall in income forced people to save on food.

The difference in consumer expenditure between deciles I and X decreased. In 2000, consumer expenditure per capita of the wealthiest decile was 7.9 times higher than that of the poorest. The ratio was 8.7 times in 1996 and 8.1 times in 1999.

Although the disparity in consumer expenditure between the wealthiest and poorest of the population slightly decreased, it nevertheless remains significant. The expenditure on food of decile X is almost four times as large as that of decile I, while the poorest households allocate 64% of total expenditure on food, and the wealthiest 31%.

Standard of living of households with children. The standard of living of households with children is on average lower than that of households without children. A single person

Monthly consumer expenditure of wealthiest and poorest deciles, per household member, LTL

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
All households	348.1	382.6	426.8	425.4	404.4
decile I	105.6	118.3	135.3	133.5	128.4
decile II	160.7	176.9	199.5	202.8	189.6
decile IX	530.6	564.1	642.2	631.2	608.1
decile X	920.7	1,004.6	1,080.3	1,077.7	1,008.7

enjoys the highest income, and couples without children slightly lower. Households called in the survey 'other households with children under 18' and single-parent households with children appear at the opposite end of the scale. Their income is the lowest. As a rule, three generations live in 'other households with children', either parents with children under 18 and those who are over 18 or children and grandchildren together with parents and grandparents.

There is a clear link between the size of disposable income and the number of children in a household. In 2000 disposable income per capita in households with one child was slightly higher than the country's average, and in households with three or more children it was 60% lower.

Families with a bigger number of children stand out not only for their low income but also for their consumption of durables. Most indicative in this respect is the consumption of modern hi-tech appliances. For example, 7% of families with one or two children have computers, while only 3.7% of families with three or more children do. A total of 28% and 10% of households respectively have access to cable television, and 37% and 24% have stereo sound systems.¹

The standard of living of households with children is on average lower than that of households without children.

Households with a relatively low standard of living with children and young people who do not work cannot be explained by income distribution among a larger number of dependants only. Usually households where the breadwinner has low-paid jobs also have more children. Almost one third of households with a higher income from business and employment have only one child, and only 3-4% of such households have three or more children. Meanwhile, households of farmers, the unemployed and those living on social benefits (these are attributed to the category of 'others' in surveys) often have more children. Over 10% of such households have three or more children.

Available data do not allow for a conclusion on causality. Do those with lower incomes tend to have more children or, on the contrary, do those with more children find no sufficient income-earning opportunities?

Households with three or more children virtually do not fall under the category of wealthiest households (deciles IX and X). They constitute almost one-fifth of the poorest households (decile I), although households with three or more children make up less than 4% of the total number of households in the country. In total, half of households with three or more children fall under the two poorest deciles.

Since 1997, families with three or more children have been entitled to social assistance benefits. Households with two children make up almost 16% of all households in the country. If these positioned themselves in the middle according to rate of consumption, they would also make up approximately 16% in each household of a corresponding decile. In the least consuming households (decile I) their proportion is almost 30%, while in the wealthiest 10 percent (decile X) the proportion of households with two children is two times smaller.

With the shift from the poorest to the wealthiest deciles, the proportion of children is decreasing and that of adults

¹Lietuva 1999: gyvenimo sąlygos, 2000, Table 4.5c.

Monthly disposable income by type of household, per household member, LTL, %, 2000

Single person	544.4
Couple without children	507.6
Other households without children	442.5
Couple with child(ren) under 18	383.8
Single person with child(ren) under 18	376.7
Other households with child(ren) under 18	333.8

Distribution of households by occupation of breadwinner and number of children, %, 2000

	Total	Households with 1 child	Households with 2 children	Households with 3 or more children	Households without children
All households	100	22.5	15.9	3.8	57.8
Farmers	100	22.0	21.1	10.4	46.5
Employees	100	31.4	21.8	4.2	42.6
Self-employed, employers	100	28.3	39.2	4.4	28.1
Other	100	28.0	18.2	11.4	42.4

Households by number of children in marginal deciles, %, 2000

Number of children in household	% of all households	Decile			
		I	II	IX	X
Households without children	57.8	31.4	39.9	70.1	75.5
Households with children: One child	22.5	21.7	24.6	19.4	16.6
Two children	15.9	29.3	27.6	9.5	7.5
Three or more children	3.8	17.7	8.4	0.9	0.4
All households	100	100	100	100	100

is increasing (the proportion of men and women). In the poorest deciles (I and II) children make up over 30% of the total number of people in these deciles. Meanwhile, in decile X the proportion of children is only 13 %.

Standard of living of young people. This analysis of the standard of living of young people is based on the assumption that people live in families (households), which adhere to the solidarity principle. This means that household members share resources and consume irrespective of personal input into the household's wealth.

Household budget surveys conducted by the Department of Statistics single out households where breadwinners are 18-29 years old. These households made up 11.5% of the total number of households in 2000. People aged 18-29 make up approximately 17% of the total population.

Since 1996, the number of households in the 18-23 age group decreased from 3.1% to 2.8% and those of 24-29 years from 9.9% to 8.7%. This trend could partially be explained by a decline in the number of marriages.

Factors determining the standard of living of young people. Referring to the differences in standards of living in Lithuania, four key factors affecting them can be named: demographic composition of household, source of income, occupation of household members and place of residence.

Territorially, young households are spread relatively evenly. Their number is decreasing more rapidly in the cities, whereas

Deciles by demographic composition, %, 1999			
X	49.8	37.2	13
IX	46.9	35.8	17.3
VIII	46.3	35.9	17.7
VII	46	36	18
VI	44.4	36	19.6
V	42.2	35.7	22.1
IV	40.4	33.7	25.9
III	40.1	33.3	26.7
II	37.8	30.4	31.8
I	34.2	30	35.8
	■ Women	■ Men	■ Children

Households by age of breadwinner, % of total number of households

	18-23	24-29	30-49	50-64	65+
1996	3.1	9.9	50.8	23.1	13.0
1997	2.2	9.3	51.0	23.9	13.6
1998	3.2	9.7	51.0	23.2	12.9
1999	2.3	9.0	51.0	22.8	14.9
2000	2.8	8.7	50.0	23.8	14.7

their decline is slower in the towns and even slower in rural areas. In 2000, in rural areas there were more independent young households of the first age group (18-23) than in 1996. In the cities the number of independent young households is decreasing every year.

Most households aged 18-23 consist of single people, the majority of whom study and are starting their independent lives. Their standard of living to a large extent depends on support from their parents. On the other hand, about 30% of these households already have children who possess a serious risk of becoming poor.

The 24-29 age group marries and has children three times more often than the 18-23 age group. Almost half of these households consist of married couples with children. The number of single-person households in transition from the first group of young people to the second fell from 45% to 15%. Moreover, younger (18-23 years) households as a rule have only one child, whereas 25% of households where the breadwinner is aged 24-29 have two children. A significant

Households by age and place of residence, % of total number of households within age groups, 2000

Age of breadwinner	Urban areas	Rural areas	Five largest cities	Towns
18-23	2.9	2.5	3.1	2.6
24-29	8.7	8.7	8.3	9.2
30-49	52.3	45.1	60.0	52.8
50-64	23.8	23.9	24.3	23.0
65 and over	12.3	19.8	12.3	12.4
Total	100	100	100	100

Households by type and age, %, 2000

Type of household	Age of breadwinner				
	18-23	24-29	30-49	50-64	65+
Single person	45.6	15.7	7.2	27.1	49.7
Couple without children	6.0	5.9	6.2	30.0	31.1
Other households without children	17.7	8.7	12.2	25.0	11.8
Couple with child(ren)	16.7	48.9	47.4	6.6	1.0
Single person with child(ren)	6.6	11.7	10.2	2.1	0.9
Other households with child(ren)	7.4	9.1	16.8	9.2	5.6
Total	100	100	100	100	100

Households by number of children, 2000

	Age of breadwinner				
	18-23	24-29	30-49	50-64	65+
Households without children	69.4	30.3	25.6	82.1	92.5
Households with children:	30.6	69.7	74.4	17.9	7.5
with one child	25.4	42.3	34.5	13.4	5.3
with two children	3.6	23.4	31.9	3.9	1.8
with three or more children	1.7	4.0	8	0.7	0.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100

proportion of these households (almost 12%) are composed of a single parent and children.

The demographic structure of young households has seen a significant change over the last five years, determined mostly by changes in the family structure and the growing importance of education. Since 1996, the number of single young people within the total number of households of the 18-23 age group increased by 50% and almost doubled in the 24-29 group. Young people more often postpone or reject marriage. Households headed by 18-23 year olds that are composed of couples with children dropped from 32% to 16%.

The trend for young people to choose to live alone is likely to be predetermined by more complex circumstances in life, in the presence of which it is increasingly difficult to assume responsibility for a family. Another factor is the growing significance of education. Professionals, particularly people with higher education, are more competitive and better paid on the labour market. The level of the education of breadwinners from young households has been growing over the last five years. Despite the positive developments, young households lag behind the others in terms of education. Among 24-29 year old breadwinners 15.5% have a higher education, while among the 30-49 age group the proportion is 22%.

Income and consumption of young people. Compared with more senior age groups, for young people income from employment in the private sector (other than agriculture) is playing a more and more important role. Over 40% of all young households receive their income from that sector. Less than 30% of the total income is earned in the public sector by the 24-29 age group, and in the youngest age group this source of income accounts only for 12.5 % of total income.

Within the last five years young people have clearly tended to rely on employment in the private sector. The proportion of income earned in this sector in the total income for the 18-23 age bracket grew from 32% in 1996 to 41% in 2000, and in the 24-29 age group from 37% to 46%, respectively. The percentage of income the youngest age group of households earned from the public sector has decreased significantly within the last five years, from 28% to 12.5%.

On the other hand, the proportion of young people's income from business and freelance activities almost halved. The share of social benefits, on the contrary, grew significantly. Between 1996 and 2000 the income of middle-aged breadwinners from business and freelance activities remained unchanged, at about 7% of the total income. Young people are becoming more and more dependent on social and private support (usually from parents).

The income enjoyed by young households is relatively large. The income of the 18-24 age group exceeds 500 LTL per household member per month and is higher than the

Households by education and age, % of total number of households of respective age group

	Age of breadwinner					
	18-23			24-29		
	1996	1998	2000	1996	1998	2000
Specialised secondary education	17.6	14.9	12.1	33.7	34.5	36.9
Higher education	4.9	7.9	7.5	12.9	14.0	15.4

Households by age and place of residence, % of total population

Year	Age of breadwinner					
	18-23			24-29		
	Five largest cities	Towns	Rural areas	Five largest cities	Towns	Rural areas
1996	4.2	3.3	1.7	9.9	10.6	9.2
1998	3.7	2.6	3.2	9.6	11.0	8.8
2000	3.1	2.6	2.5	8.3	9.2	8.7

Education of breadwinner by age, % of total number of households of respective age group, 2000

	18-23	24-29	30-49	50-64	65+
Specialised secondary education	12.1	36.9	34.4	22.7	9.2
Higher education	7.5	15.4	21.9	16.7	8.0

national average. Household income tends to fall with age. If per capita income in the 18-19 age group is 561 LTL, it falls to 425 LTL in the 25-29 age group. It further decreases to 368 LTL for 30-34 age bracket - the lowest level. Income is only slightly lower for people aged 80 and up. The main reason for such a change in income is that young people rarely have dependants. In the age groups that follow, income is shared among dependants as the number of households with children where the mother cares for the children and does not work increases.

Social benefits are small and do not compensate for the decrease in household income. Moreover, benefits for families raising children are paid until the child reaches the age of three. In the 20-24 age group, income from three main benefits related to raising children (maternity, family and a child-birth grant) amounts to 24 LTL per household member, and in the 30-34 age group it is only 9 LTL. In addition, support (such as presents and charity) for the 20-24 age group halves compared to the 18-19 age group (from 290 LTL to 147 LTL), and in the 25-29 group falls further to 83 LTL per household member.

As adult children leave, income in households where breadwinners are in their 50s nears 500 LTL per capita. According to size of income, it appears that people in their 50s and early 20s live best in Lithuania. It must be remembered that part of the income earned by people in their 50s is accounted for twice. First as their income, and second as support to the young. As consumer expenditure shows,

Young households lag behind the others in terms of education.

Benefits for families raising children are paid before the child reaches the age of three.

the generation of people in their 50s lives a more modest life than young people.

The consumer expenditure and income of young people very much depends on the specific age group. Those aged 18-23 spend the most, on average 486 LTL per capita per month. In the more senior age group (24-29 years), the average consumer expenditure is much smaller, (396 LTL), equal to that of pensioners. Another interesting characteristic of the consumption pattern is the relatively little expenditure on food. In the 24-29 age group, young people spend less on food than any other age group. Households in the 18-23 age group spend more on goods and services, transport, communications, education, leisure, alcohol and tobacco).

They spend less, as one might expect, only on health care and household appliances in comparison with the senior population. The senior youth group (24-29) is barely distinguishable by either size or consumption pattern compared to the consumption of the middle-aged population.

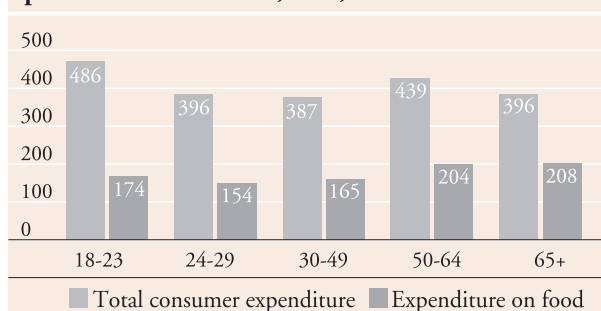
Young households are unevenly distributed by decile. Most belong to the wealthiest deciles (VIII, IX and X), which include almost 40% of households of the 18-23 age group and about 30% of households of the 24-29 age group. Young households of the second group are found not only in the wealthiest deciles, but also in the poorer ones (between I and IV), which include about 40% of these households. However, noticeably fewer of those households appear in the middle deciles, between V and VII. The 24-29 age group is characterised by a considerably large differentiation in consumption.

The households of the senior population vary significantly by decile. Pensioners' households would commonly

Sources of household income, % of total income in corresponding age group

Source of income	18-23			24-29		
	1996	1998	2000	1996	1998	2000
Private farming	1.8	4.8	3.9	4.7	6.2	5.8
Business and freelance activity	4.3	5.4	2.7	10.0	7.0	5.3
Employment in private sector (excluding agriculture)	32.1	35.4	40.8	36.8	43.5	46.3
Employment in public sector (excluding agriculture)	28.1	21.1	12.5	33.5	28.5	28.6
Employment in agriculture	2.9	4.0	1.2	5.7	5.5	3.6
Stipends	19.0	13.7	17.7		0.2	0.3
Social benefits	5.0	7.5	8.7	4.3	5.3	6.0
Other	3.4	6.0	9.3	2.3	2.0	2.9

Monthly consumer expenditure by age, per household member, LTL, 2000



be concentrated within the middle deciles, (between IV and VII). The middle-aged (30-49 years) households are distributed more evenly, i.e., by approximately 9-11% in each decile. In contrast to young people, there are a similar number of poor and well-off households in this age group.

Poverty. According to the relative poverty line, of 50% of average consumer expenditure per household member which is frequently used in Lithuania and many other European countries, the poverty level in Lithuania in 2000 was 16%. Approximately 560,000 people lived below the poverty line. The depth of poverty (average deviation of the consumer expenditure of the poor from the poverty line) was 23%. This means that average consumer expenditure in households below the poverty line as calculated per equivalent consumer was smaller than the poverty line by almost a quarter. If the poverty line in 2000 was 260 LTL, then the poor spent on average 201 LTL.

In 2000, for the first time in two years, the poverty level grew by 0.2 percentage points and reached the same level as in 1998. Taking into account the relatively steep economic decline of 1999, the insignificant increase in the poverty level

The poverty level in Lithuania in 2000 was 16%.

Scales of equivalence.

In calculating household income, expenditure and the poverty line, scales of equivalence are used to eliminate the effect of the size and composition of households. Research has revealed that relatively less income is needed to satisfy the needs of larger households, since the size of a certain expenditure does not increase in proportion to the number of household members. The application of scales of equivalence makes the standard of living of households of different sizes more comparable. Lithuanian statistics use a scale attributing 1 for the first adult in the household, 0.7 for each following adult and 0.5 for each child under 14.

“Namų ūkių pajamos ir išlaidos 1999”, 2000

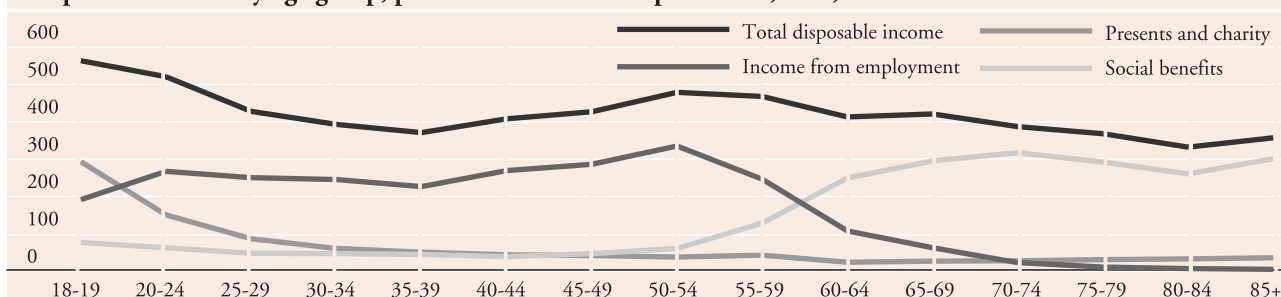
seems doubtful. The relative poverty line reflects differentiations in the standard of living, but it cannot accurately reflect a change in poverty when consumption changes evenly for all groups of the population. For eliminating the influence of variation in the average standard of living by comparing poverty levels over several years, a poverty line of any year adjusted by the consumer price index can be used as a basis for comparison. The basic poverty line makes it possible to assess a change in the part of the population whose consumption level remains below the poverty line irrespective of a change in the standard of living of the other part of the population. Using the adjusted relative poverty line from 1996, the poverty level of 2000 exceeds the 1999 figure by almost 3.5 percentage points and is higher than the poverty level of 1997.

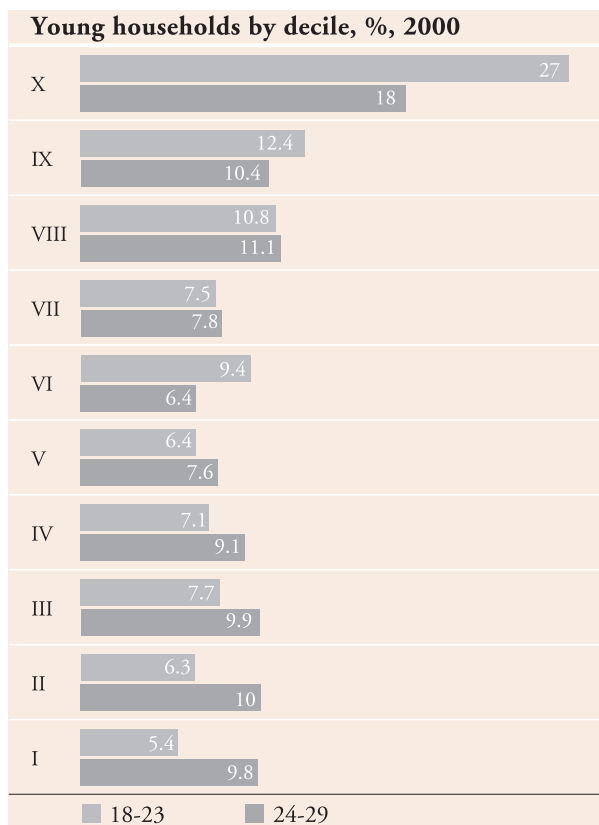
As it was earlier, in 2000 poverty remained unequally distributed in society. Households where the main source of

Relative poverty line and poverty level

	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Current relative poverty line (50% of average consumer expenditure), LTL	226.2	248.6	276.7	274.6	260.0
Poverty level, %	18.0	16.6	16.0	15.8	16.0
Relative poverty line (50% of average consumer expenditure in 1996, adjusted by price index), LTL	226.2	246.4	258.9	261.0	263.6
Poverty level, %	18.0	16.3	13.2	13.1	16.6

Disposable income by age group, per household member per month, LTL, 2000





income was business, crafts and freelance activities were among the least affected by poverty. The poverty level among the households of employees was less than the national average (11%). Poverty was much higher than the national average among households that live on benefits and stipends (41%); have three or more children (37.6%); and where the breadwinner is a farmer (35%). The poverty level among pensioners' households was slightly higher than the national average. A much higher (up to 50-60%) poverty level appears in households for which several risk factors overlap. These are, for instance, the households of small farmers who have many children.

In 2000, the highest poverty level was in rural areas (27.6%) and the lowest in the cities (12%). Although the rural population accounts for only 32% of the total population, 56% of the poor live in rural areas. Expenditure deviation from the poverty line reveals that poverty is deeper in rural areas. The average consumer expenditure of the rural population below the poverty line was 25% that of the urban population, or 21% below the poverty line.

The poverty level in 2000 in households with a female breadwinner was 18.6% and with a male breadwinner 14%. Women were breadwinners in almost half of all households. However, 36% of these households were couples while the others were of single people or women with children.

In households with a breadwinner who had a higher education, the poverty level was only 2.5% and the expenditure

The Lithuanian Poverty Reduction Strategy defines poverty as insufficient income and other resources (material, cultural and social), ensuring a standard of living acceptable for Lithuanian society. ("Skurdo mažinimo Lietuvoje strategija," 2000, p.13).

The Second Poverty Programme of the European Union is based on a poverty definition by the Council of Ministers that considers individuals, families and groups as being poor if their resources (material, cultural and social) are limited to the extent that they exclude these people from the minimum standard of living acceptable in the state where they live. (Callan, T., 1996, p.25).

One way to measure the scale of poverty in a country is to assess the volume of resources needed for its elimination by increasing the consumption of the poor to at least the level of the poverty line. In Lithuania this would require approximately 320 million LTL annually (0.7% of GDP in 2000). At first sight this seems to be an affordable amount of money and that poverty can therefore be overcome, particularly if the economy grows at least 4-5% annually. However, it is not only the quantity of resources, but also the possibilities of their utilisation that matter.

First, it is difficult to reach a consensus in society that significant funds should be directly allocated for the poor. Second, these calculations are based on the assumption that these funds were allocated only to cover the difference between the consumer expenditure of the poor and the poverty line. In reality, however, it is not that easy to target the funds for consumption precisely. Third, with Lithuania's steadily growing GDP, income and consumption increase and so does the poverty line. Therefore, to adjust consumption for the poor would demand more and more funds. Finally, the reduction of poverty using a mere redistribution of income would de-motivate the poor to seek income-earning opportunities.

deviation was smaller than in other households. In households with a breadwinner who had the lowest standard of education the poverty level was the highest.

Poverty among children and young people. The proportion of those in poverty is much higher among children and young people than among the adult population. In 2000, children under 18 constituted 26% of the total population, yet 31% were below the poverty line. More than 20% of children of pre-school age are in poverty. There is a clear trend for poverty to decrease with age.

It is difficult to explain the differences in poverty among young people of different gender. The poverty level of young

Poverty level among vulnerable groups of the population, %

Type of household	1997	1998	1999	2000
Unemployed*	39.6	40.8	40.4	41.1
Households with three or more children	37.2	34.5	35.4	37.6
Single person with child(ren) under 18 years	21.6	22.0	25.7	...
Farmers	30.2	32.2	39.9	35.3
Rural population	25.9	26.5	28.2	27.6
People with basic (8-9 grade) education	24.4	24.6	26.3	24.2
Pensioners	22.1	20.9	19.1	20.4

*Households of this type include all unemployed irrespective of whether they are registered with the labour exchange or not.

women aged 25-29 generally coincides with the national average, whereas poverty among young men of the same age is almost 19%. This is probably because men most often leave their parents' home without a sufficient source of living and rely on parental assistance less.

The poverty level depends on the age of the breadwinner. In 2000, most of those living in poverty appeared in households where the breadwinner was under 30 or over 60, while those least affected by poverty were households with breadwinners aged 50-59. Although young people (particularly those aged 18-23) have a higher average income and consumer expenditure, due to significant income inequality many young people fall below the poverty line.

A comparison of households of different demographic compositions reveals the clear trend that the highest poverty is in households with under-aged children.

Usually poverty is widespread among single-person households with children. This is easily explained by the fact that women most often bring up children while their incomes are lower than those of men. Nevertheless, if between 1997 and 1999 the poverty level for these households grew from 21.6% to 25.7%, in 2000 it dropped abruptly to 14.9%. It is difficult to explain such a significant change. There are no notice-

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The poverty level in 2000 in households with a female breadwinner was 18.6% and with a male breadwinner 14%.

More than 20% of children of pre-school age are in poverty.

able positive factors traced in the standard of living of single mothers with children. Their situation on the labour market has not changed, nor have any targeted measures been applied to social policy that could positively affect the situation of such households. Considering that households of this type make up only 6% of the total number of households included in this survey, it is possible to think that the unexpected result could have been predetermined by the size of the sample even by some mistake. The next household budget survey should reveal whether the result of 2000 was accidental.

The poverty level among households composed of couples with children is close to the national average (15.3%). The poverty level for all households with under-aged children is 18.1%.

It is understandable that the poverty level of households with children varies substantially and depends on the number of children in the family. In households with three or more children the poverty level in 2000 was 37.6% and consumer

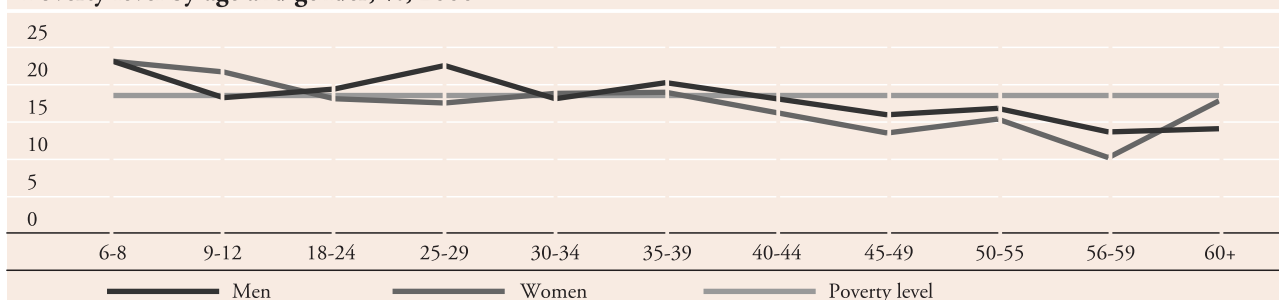
Poverty level by age, %, 2000

18-23	24-29	30-49	50-64	65+
16.9	18.1	15.7	14.7	18.0

Poverty level by household type, %

Type of household	1997	1998	1999	2000
Couple without children	11.2	8.7	8.6	9.9
Single person	13.4	13.1	13.1	12.8
Other households without children	14.2	15.3	14.7	15.2
Single person with child(ren) under 18	21.6	22.0	25.7	14.9
Couple with child(ren)	15.0	13.9	15.5	15.3
Other households with child(ren)	24.0	24.8	21.9	24.1

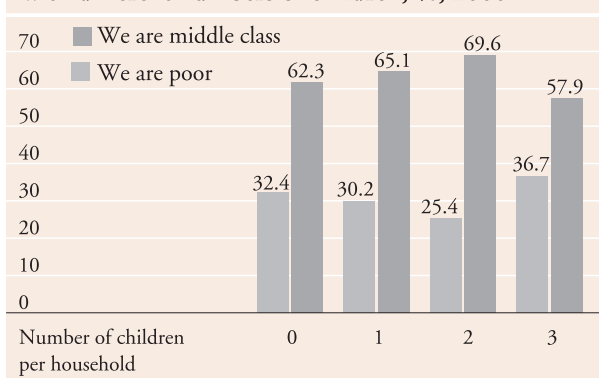
Poverty level by age and gender, %, 2000



Opinions by households on their standard of living, %

		"We are poor, very poor"	"We are middle class"	"We are well off"
All households		34.6	63.9	1.5
Households without children:	couples without children	27.5	71.5	1.0
	other households without children	36.7	61.8	1.5
	single person	42.9	55.7	1.4
Households with child(ren):	couples with child(ren) under 18	27.5	70.3	2.2
	other households with child(ren)	34.0	64.4	1.6
	single person with child(ren)	47.7	52.1	0.2

Opinions on standard of living by households with different numbers of children, %, 2000



expenditure deviation from the poverty line was 25%. Approximately 8% of all households have three or more children, but they account for 20% of poor households.

In 1997, the poverty level in households with three or more children exceeded 37%. The introduction of social support for such households at the end of 1997 was a significant poverty reduction measure that allowed for poverty level reduction to 34.5% in 1998. However, large families again fell victim to a deteriorating economic and financial situation in the country between 1999 and 2000, and their poverty level went above that of 1997.

Subjective perception of poverty. Alongside adverse standards of living evaluated by income or consumption indicators, an important manifestation of poverty is the way a person assesses his or her life. In 2000, almost 64% of respondents attributed themselves to the middle-class and slightly more than one-third to the poor.

Poverty level and the number of children in a household, %

	All households with child(ren) under 18 years	Number of children		
		one	two	3+
1997	18.8	14.9	16.0	37.2
1998	18.1	14.1	17.0	34.5
1999	18.2	12.4	18.7	35.4
2000	18.1	12.9	17.7	37.6

Forty-three percent of respondents from single-parent households with children indicated that they were poor, but according to objective data less than 13% really were poor. While 27.5% of households of couples with children perceived themselves as poor, the real poverty level was 15.3%.

A figure of 27.5% of couples without children considered themselves poor, although objectively only 10% really are.

While assessing the general standard of living in the country, almost 85% of people from households with children and 80% of households without children indicated that their situation had deteriorated.

Young people and children (particularly of a pre-school age) are more vulnerable to poverty than other age groups. Although young people who live separately from their parents have a higher than average income compared to other groups due to mainly their parents' support, there is a large inequality among them. For this reason, relative poverty is also very significant even in this age group. When young people start their families and children, their average standard of living declines sharply.

VI

Family

Gediminas Navaitis

Changes in family models: background and the situation today. After the restoration of state independence and the rapid transformation of social and economic structures in society, significant changes occurred in family relationships and family models. In stating that during the last decade of the previous century Lithuanian families changed, it is worth noting that from a historical perspective during the relatively short period of two or three generations many stereotypes of contemporary family models were developed.

At the start of the 20th century, a Lithuanian could not freely choose to live the life of a single, unmarried person and still maintain the status of a fully valued member of society. If at that time 15-20% of women in Western Europe did not establish families, the figure for Lithuania was much lower, at just a few percentage points. There were few opportunities to legally dissolve a marriage and officially re-marry. An absolute majority of marriages were between inhabitants of the same parish and this did not fare well for social mobility. At that time, Lithuania was a predominantly agrarian country where the family was mainly a union of persons working together on farmland. Rather strict sexual control prevailed. Children born out of wedlock were ostracised from their communities together with their mothers. Yet at that time it was possible to see not only traditional family characteristics, but also features of contemporary western family models. For example, the average age for marriage was relatively late (25-33 years), which corresponds to the Western European family model.

The differentiation of society and an increase in migration from rural areas to the cities and overseas prompted changes in family models. The intelligentsia tried to promote a family model in which it is accented that the wife should support her husband's public aspirations and raise her children based on national traditions. Although between wars state policy on family and the prevailing attitude of society acknowledged

the traditional family model, research indicates that the families of farmers raised their children with the intent of replicating their rural way of life, whereas city-based families were more inclined to encourage their children to be more independent, responsible and creative.

In the middle of the 20th century, the prevailing family model in Lithuania remained the traditional nuclear family.

The main characteristics distinguishing this model from the non-traditional family are the means by which marriages are acknowledged and their stability; the principles for combining the social and family roles of both a man and a woman; family planning; and attitudes towards extra-marital sex. In reviewing the identified factors we can note the following recent changes in families in Lithuania:

Legality of marriage. The traditional family model recognises only marriages that have been officially confirmed in one way or another and rejects any other form of co-habitation. In Lithuania older people condemn unregistered co-habitation more than young people. The registration of couples living together came into effect in July 2001.

Necessity of marriage. The roles of men and women as fully worthy members of society used to be inseparable from living in a family as a married couple. Today approximately 40% of women aged 30 and older do not have a husband, and are single, widowed or divorced.

Stability of marriage. In the traditional family model marriages cannot be dissolved or broken off. In 1950, 0.2 marriages per 1,000 inhabitants resulted in divorce. Today the divorce rate is 3.2. Close to 20% of marriages today are second or subsequent marriages.

Control of sexuality. The traditional family model recognises sexual relations only within marriage and strongly condemns extra-marital sexual relations and homosexuality. With every new generation the age of those engaging in sexual activity for

People in Russia, Belarus and Ukraine are more inclined to marry than in Lithuania. In Estonia and Latvia people are less inclined to marry than in Lithuania. Based on the number of divorces per 1,000 inhabitants and the ratio of marriages to divorces (100 to 65), Lithuania can be assigned to those European countries where the divorce rate is considered high. It also has a low birth rate.

Demographic indicators in selected European countries, 2000

Country	Registered marriages per 1,000 population	Divorces per 1,000 population	Natural growth of population
Austria	4.9	2.3	0.0
Belgium	4.3	2.6	0.9
Czech Republic	5.2	2.3	- 2.0
Denmark	6.7	2.5	1.3
Estonia	3.9	3.2	-4.1
Finland	4.7	2.7	1.5
Greece	5.9	0.9	0.1
Hungary	4.5	2.5	- 4.8
Latvia	3.9	2.5	- 5.5
Lithuania	4.8	3.1	- 1.0
Norway	5.3	2.1	3.2
Poland	5.7	1.1	0.0
Portugal	6.9	1.8	0.8
Russia	6.2	2.7	- 6.4
Sweden	4.0	2.4	- 0.7
Switzerland	5.7	2.9	2.3
Ukraine	6.2	3.6	- 6.0
United Kingdom	5.1	2.7	1.2

the first time is getting younger and younger. The number of children born out of wedlock is also increasing. Legislation stating that homosexuality is a criminal offence was abolished.

Importance of children. In a traditional family model, children are perceived as an essential part of the family. They are raised by both parents. Fifty years ago, women gave birth to 2.6 children on average, whereas the average family size was 3.6 people. Currently the average family size is 2.7 people, and approximately 18% of children live in single parent families (more often without fathers).

Roles of husbands and wives. The traditional family identifies the role of the man as heading the family and as having more responsibility for its well-being. Today the absolute majority of families are 'two-career' families, where both husband and wife are professionally active. Accordingly, the ma-

Main demographic indicators for people younger than 30 years

	1990	2000
Marriage		
men	28,097	11,668
women	29,303	13,201
% of total number of marriages		
men	77.4	69.0
women	80.7	78.1
Divorce		
men	3,793	2,417
women	4,748	3,470
% of total number of divorces		
men	29.8	22.2
women	37.2	31.9
Births		
Total	44,931	24,803
births per 1,000 women	107.3	62.0
% of the total number of births	79.0	72.6

jority of families describe themselves as equal-partner families. The role of the husband as head of the family is confirmed by approximately 6-8% of families.

Changes in the family model have led to a decrease in the birth rate, both in absolute numbers and relative to the mortality rate. This has resulted in negative population growth, as well as in the accelerated ageing of the population (a decrease in the number of children and young people and an increase in the number of old people). Similar changes are taking place in almost all European Union countries. For example, marriage and divorce statistics in the United Kingdom and Lithuania are relatively close. Also, the birth rate is very similar in Lithuania and Sweden.

Despite radical changes in societal and family models, the predominant family model has not changed: the two-generation nuclear family consisting of a married couple or couples without children, as well as other children who as yet have not established their own families. Over 90% of Lithuanian families belong to this type of family.

During the last decade of the last century, changes in family behaviour and family attitudes were particularly evident among young families (couples younger than 30) who play an important role in demography and in forming future family models.

Young marriages. In 1990, 125 men and 117 women were married per 1,000 men and women aged 20-24, whereas in 2000, the figures were 48 men and 56.7 women, respectively. The number of marriages among people who did not

Marriages per 1,000 men of a corresponding age

	1990	1995	2000
19 years of age or younger	19.2	13.3	18.3
20-24	125.3	70.3	48.0
25-29	47.7	36.1	33.4

Marriages per 1,000 women of a corresponding age

	1990	1995	2000
19 years of age or younger	65.9	43.2	18.3
20-24	116.9	73.5	56.7
25-29	31.9	23.2	25.2

reach marriageable age (18 years) decreased. In 2000, compared to 1990, the number of under-age girls who married was 2.6 times less and the number of boys six times less.

In comparison with countries in the EU, the average age of people marrying for the first time is lower, though in the past few years it has been increasing. In 2000, the average age for men was 25.7 years, and for women it was 23.6 years (in 1990, the age for men was 24.1 years and for women 22.2 years).

The decrease in the rate of marriage for young people differed in urban and rural areas. In 1990, 116.4 per 1,000 urban men aged 20-24 were married, whereas in 2000 the figure was only 45.5. Respectively, for women the figures were 108.3 and 53.3. In rural areas in 1990, 148.6 men aged 20-24 married per 1,000 men of this age group. In 2000, the number was 54.4. Respectively, the number of women was 89.8 and 62.1. Similar changes occurred amongst other young age groups.

The decrease in the number of marriages is linked to other changes in family behaviour. These include a rise in the number of people co-habiting in unregistered relationships (de facto relationships), the decrease in the birth rate and the growth in the number of children born out of wedlock.

Meeting marriage-related expectations. Surveys of various age groups of young people carried out between 1990 and 2000 attest to the fact that the main characteristic features of an ideal marriage partner have not changed. Girls would like to marry someone three to five years older than themselves, of a similar or higher education, who is able to provide for the material needs of the family, who does not possess a drinking habit or a criminal record, is a faithful husband, who wants to care for the children and also assist his wife with household chores. The majority of boys would like to aspire to the ideal partner described by girls. However, they are more inclined to

leave the daily household chores and care of the children to their wives, and to limit their contribution to the family to large one-off tasks (e.g., home renovations or repair of household equipment).

Full implementation of the above views is hampered by several factors, the most significant of which are:

- an absolute excess in the number of boys (381,700) over girls (372,000) aged between 16 and 29. The discrepancy is more noticeable in rural areas.

- an increasing gap in the level of education between boys and girls. In 1990, for every 100 boys studying in specialised secondary (college-type) institutions there were 103 girls, whereas in 2000 the latter figure grew to 178. In 1990, for every 100 boys studying in universities there were 108 girls, whereas in 2000 there were 139 girls. During the 1990s, the ratio of boys to girls in vocational schools was also unbalanced. In 1990 it was 100 to 59, whereas in 2000 it was 100 to 67.

- higher unemployment among men. Especially given the fact that men are expected to be the breadwinners, a higher unemployment rate for boys than girls can be regarded as a factor hampering the establishment of families. In 2000, there were 56,100 unemployed men and 33,800 unemployed women.

- imprisonment, which also impacts on the establishment of a family. In 2000, there were 6,841 men under 30 years of age in prisons.

- the spread of sexually transmitted diseases (STD), which can have a negative impact on families and their establishment. The largest proportion of people suffering from venereal diseases is young people (59.1%). The incidence of STD among boys is two times higher than among girls.

In summary, it must be noted that the disproportion in terms of the number of girls and boys, which is particularly unfavourable for boys living in rural areas, as well as a disproportion in 'quality' (difference in level of education, rate of unemployment) can hinder the chances of 15-20% of young people to find their ideal marriage partners.

Consensual unions (cohabitation). Increased incidence of unregistered cohabitation and a more tolerant view of it in society is one of the manifestations of drastic changes in the family model. Often this phenomenon is termed as 'unregistered marriage'. In comparing the 20-25 year interval that differentiates one generation from another, cohabitation has increased by approximately 3.5 times. Due to ethno-cultural and religious norms, people living together unregistered often do not openly disclose this information. Therefore, it is pos-

Increased incidence of cohabitation and a more tolerant view of it in society is one of the manifestations of drastic changes in the family model.

Attitudes towards cohabitation.

Up until the 1990s, society did not tolerate cohabitation. In the last few years attitudes have become more tolerant, and particularly noticeable changes have occurred among young people. Approximately 14% of young people and approximately 25% of respondents aged 40 to 50 believe that cohabitation can negatively affect friendly relationships with neighbours and others in an immediate circle of acquaintances. Among both young and old, women are more doubtful of the tolerance of neighbours and others to cohabitation.

With every younger generation the attitude towards cohabitation is becoming more liberal. However, the majority of all age groups believe that cohabitation does not bode well for a steady relationship between a man and a woman. Rather, it is a period when couples can test and harmonise their feelings until the marriage is registered.

sible to assume that cohabitation is more frequent than revealed during surveys.

The most reliable indicator of the scale of cohabitation and its development into unregistered marriage and then unregistered family could be children born out of wedlock whose parentage is determined by the joint application of both parents.

Today, it is no longer appropriate to identify children born out of wedlock with the children of single parent mothers. In 1990, the total number of applications to register children born out of wedlock was 1,337. In the same year, 3,977 children were born to unmarried mothers, and of this number only 2,640 were registered as the children of single mothers. The ratio of children of unmarried parents and single mothers was 0.5 to 1. In 2000, unmarried parents registered 2,309 children, whereas single mothers constituted 5,387. In the same year, single mothers gave birth to 7,713 children. The ratio of unmarried parents and single mothers giving birth to children was therefore 0.42 to 1. These indirect estimates support the idea that long-term cohabitation is increasing and that the birth of a child often does not change this attitude since the children acquire a legal status, which ensures all their rights (to inheritance, alimony, and so on).

Reproductive behaviour of young people. Between 1990 and 2000, the fertility rate decreased markedly from 2.02 to 1.35 per 1,000 women aged 15-49 years. The number of

Extra-marital births.

For a long time, the birth rate in Lithuania was determined by births within marriage, whereas births out of wedlock constituted only 4-6% of the total. While in 1990, 7% of all children were born out of wedlock, in 2000 the proportion increased to 22.6%. It is worth noting that most extra-marital children were born to young women (aged up to 24). The number of children born out of wedlock in rural areas is higher than in the towns and cities. In rural areas, mothers aged up to 30 give birth to 23.8% of children out of wedlock, and in urban areas 19.5%. The latter phenomenon can be explained by the more conservative attitudes of rural women to family planning, the lack of accessibility to contraceptives and social benefits for single mothers.

births for all age groups also decreased. The most considerable fall occurred among women aged 20-24 (by 42%), whereas for women aged 25-29 it fell by 27%. The birth rate among women under 18 decreased the least, by just 21.8%.

Young mothers (aged 20-29) give birth to three-quarters of the total number of children born, so they play an important role in population growth. The fact that 57% of young women give birth to a first child, 33% have a second child and 7% have a third allows us to assume that there should not be any significant changes in the demographic situation in the near future.

Children are regarded by the majority of the population as an indispensable part of the family, important not only for parents as individuals but also for society. We are now witnessing a trend towards families with one or two children. Various sociological studies indicate that 60-70% of respondents favour two-child families, usually a boy and a girl. This popular opinion has not changed for several decades.

The desired number of children is nearing what is regarded as the ideal number. Two decades ago it was thought that the ideal family should on average raise 3 to 3.5 children. Today the ideal family is regarded as having on average 2.3 children, whereas respondents' desired number is 2.0 to 2.1.

The main reasons for reducing the number of children is their 'cost', related not only to the material aspect of their upbringing and education but also to the uncertainty of the family's social and financial prospects, as well as the unpredictability of the parents' status. On the one hand,

Between 1990 and 2000, the fertility rate decreased markedly from 2.02 to 1.35.

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young people are responsible enough to consider their chances of meeting their children's needs, including education. On the other, they do not feel secure in terms of improvement in the standard of living in the long run, so they strive to reduce the risks related to the care of a child.

However, surveys reveal that the main motives for having children are not directly linked to financial opportunities. Rather, it is either the expression of an emotional need by the parents ("Children bring a special joy", "It would be so good to see how children grow") or a way of strengthening the family and ensuring a secure old age ("With children, there is less likelihood you'll be on your own in your old age", "Children strengthen a marriage"). The decision whether to have children, and how many, is both a personal and a family decision. It is rare that a young family in making a decision to have children would consider the interests of society, or their relatives. Thus, the dominating motives for reproduction meet the needs of a small nuclear family with one or two children.

Stability of young families. In 2000, 2,417 men and 3,470 women aged up to 30 divorced. In comparison with 1990, the numbers were 36.2% lower for men of the same age and 26.9% lower for women. Changes are evident in the proportion of this age group in the total number of divorces. In 1990, divorced men constituted 29.8%, whereas women constituted 37.2%, of the total divorce rate. In 2000, group of men aged up to 30 constituted 22.2% and women 31.9% of all divorcees.

Young families, like the families of other age groups, more often (65-70%) divorce on the initiative of the woman. The main reasons cited for divorce are: psychological discord; the husband's drinking problems; unfaithfulness; violence; and/or irreconcilable differences in the family.

Factors conducive to divorce. In every family, relationships change naturally with time. As the family experiences emotional times or whenever there is a change in daily communication, the pressure can build up on the family relationship and a crisis can break the family down. The ability to overcome these hurdles depends on the motivation of family members to protect and improve their family ties and their experience of communicating with each other. Surveys of young people not yet planning to establish a family and young couples about to marry indicate that their understanding of family life is not favourable to stability. The majority of respondents to surveys believe that the happiest and most enjoyable time for families is the first year after marriage. In their

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The divorce level in Lithuania is relatively high and exceeds the highest divorce levels of the countries of the EU.

opinion, both the wife and the husband will later have to allocate more time and effort to household chores, their free time will be reduced, their intimate relations will no longer be so attractive, and communication will not be as interesting or fulfilling. On the other hand they do not believe that children can have a negative impact on marriage. Rather, it is thought that caring for children can only enrich the marital relationship. It is worth noting that men are more pessimistic than women about family life.

Family stability can be impacted by the still prevalent view that a woman who was married and later divorced has a higher status than a woman who has never been married at all. Nearly 4% of marriages collapse during the first year and approximately 18% fall apart in the first four years of marriage. Given that in the majority of cases the decision to break off the marriage is initiated by the woman, one can make the assumption that the idea of marriage is overrated and that the misjudging of a marriage partner can be one of the reasons for instability in a family relationship.

Consequences of divorce. The divorce level in Lithuania is relatively high and exceeds the highest divorce levels of the countries of the EU. However, in making this comparison one needs to take into account that for a long time in Lithuania marriage was the most popular way of establishing a family. Cohabitation and its termination were not registered.

Divorce often represents a very powerful emotional stress, which negatively affects one or both of the married couple's self-confidence, work effectiveness, and mental and physical well-being, and hampers one's ability to make adequate decisions about potential new marital partners. The children of divorced couples often do not receive all the financial support that they are entitled to, and generally the father or mother living separately from the family does not participate sufficiently in the child's upbringing. It is worth noting that after separation the mother's input into the child's care and upbringing still exceeds significantly the father's input.

Divorces are more complicated and usually take more time when children are involved. Nearly one-fifth of young couples who divorce do not have children, 60% of couples are raising one child, and the remaining number of couples have two or more children.

Overall, every eighth family in Lithuania consists of only one parent, usually the mother. Surveys of divorcees indicate that people who have come from incomplete or broken families

are more likely to break off their marriage. The family's instability is therefore 'reproduced' from one generation to another.

Psycho-social support for young families. Socially disadvantaged families, families undergoing divorce or separation or those that face other social or psychological problems are not necessarily young families. However, often the problems that families experience are the result of problems or conflicts that are not resolved or addressed in the pre-marital phase or in the early phases when the family unit is developing.

Today the preparation for family life from an educational perspective is contradictory. A relatively large amount of scientific and popular educational literature about communication between the sexes, ethics, psychology, and sexual and family life has been published. Often these topics are also discussed by the mass media. However, together with the useful information there is a great deal that is misleading. The

abundance of information has not solved the problem of the preparation of young people for family life. Separate topics related to family life and sexual self-determination have been 'inserted' into basic school curricula, replacing a previous teaching program called Family Ethics and Psychology, which encompassed a systematic way of teaching important general information and skills about family life.

Moreover, civil metrication departments no longer organise seminars for young couples planning to marry. For the most part, their education has been taken over by various religious organisations. In every diocese a family centre is operational. However, only a certain number of young couples who are planning to marry attend courses set up by these and other organisations.

The cheapest and most effective way of dealing with conflicts in young families is conflict prevention, consultations and

The new Civil Code came into effect in July 2001. Much discussion and criticism has taken place in relation to the book, which in part regulates family relationships. The book introduces many new legal regulations previously unknown in Lithuania (such as marriage and engagement agreements, agreement on separation and the status of a separated rather than divorced person, and the preparation of a marriage contract). It includes a very detailed description of not only the rights and responsibilities of family members (spouses, parents, children, grandparents and grandchildren), but also the property rights and responsibilities of engaged and cohabiting couples. The role of courts has been markedly increased not only in relation to resolving property disputes, but also in terms of regulating marriage and divorce, the procedures of determining parental status, adoption and foster care.

The legal regulation of family relationships is based on monogamy, voluntary marriage, the equal legal rights of spouses, the opportunity for all family members to exercise their rights and the priority and protection of the rights of children. The code does not recognise marriage between people of the same sex. Sufficient attention is paid to engagement and also to public agreements to marry, related to property relationships (the return of gifts, debts and compensation for non-property losses).

With the enforcement of market reforms the property relationships between family members have become particularly relevant. These include the civil responsibilities of spouses, and the management and division of common and individual property taking into account the interests of children. The property relationships of cohabiting couples are also regulated.

The Civil Code emphasises the responsibility of both parents for the raising of their children, and for ensuring opportunities to get basic education and provide material support for them while they are under-age (proportionally to the parents' material situation). The family laws in essence regulate the relationship between parents and children. For example, the law limits the parents' power and restricts their control over the property of under-age children.

Many people think, however, that the principles of this new family law reflect first and foremost the interest of lawyers themselves. One doubts whether the law will strengthen the attractiveness of the institution of marriage and at the same time the significance of the family in society as stipulated in Article 3.3. On the other hand, several acute problems were not addressed by the code, for example the laws regulating artificial fertilisation; Article 3.154 states that issues of motherhood and fatherhood regarding children conceived by artificial fertilisation are regulated by other laws.

Despite such contradictory evaluations, the new family law is a significant step towards establishing a legal system of family relationships in Lithuania based on Western European traditions. The principles of the new family law comply with the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, as well as other international family laws and conventions. The code includes many important legal relationships, which up until now were not present in Lithuania's legal system.

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This text is included in this chapter by the editors of the Report.

support for those families facing difficulties. Over the last decade, a relatively large number of consultative groups have been established to assist families. At the same time, as these organisations were being established, some of the existing successful and well-known organisations disappeared. For example, Family Relations and Mental Health consulting rooms belonging to the Ministry of Health were operational in most urban areas. Psychologists providing psychological consultations for couples separating and about to undergo a divorce operated in all the civil metrication departments. The work of these consulting rooms and consultative services was effective, since the consultations were available free of charge and were accessible to all in need. The services were dissembled in the years following Lithuanian independence and the work of the consulting rooms was stopped. Vilnius Municipality stopped the last psychologist at the Civic Metrication Department in 2001.

The popular values and views of contemporary Lithuanian society regarding relationships between a man and a woman in a family and community context, marriage and the birth of children, are contradictory. They are more in favour of the traditional view of the family, abortions are strictly condemned, and a more active role by religious organisations in promoting attitudes towards marriage and the family are evident. However, at the same time there is a more tolerant attitude towards couples living together, and the number of people not wish-

ing to establish a family and have children is increasing.

Obviously, during such abrupt and deep societal transformation families lack an active state policy. There is still no clear understanding of family models that is supported by state institutions. The scope of analysis of families does not correspond to the newly set objective regulating family relationships. And the contribution of the education system to strengthening the family is insufficient. Young people who are establishing families and who will have an impact on Lithuania's demographic situation are not informed about such support, which is available to make an impact on this problem.

Transformations within families, contradictory attitudes towards family values and insufficient scientific acknowledgement of this, along with a lack of active state policy on families, make it difficult to foresee the future prospects for families. It is believed that by overcoming economic problems the demographic situation in Lithuania should not worsen. We can make the assumption that the current situation regarding families is indicative of a certain stabilisation of family processes given that during the past few years there have not been any notable changes. On the other hand, the steadily increasing number of extra-marital births and the spread of alternative family models allows us to substantively forecast further rapid changes in family models.

VII

Social assistance to families

Audra Mikalauskaitė

Development of family policy. The family is the main ‘cell’ of society, on which the future of a nation relies. State social assistance to families should be targeted at strengthening their stability and sustainability, which is an important precondition for the reproduction of further generations and ensuring developmental opportunities for children.

In assessing the development of family assistance policy following the restoration of independence, it can be said that this process was not even or smooth. These were caused by the economic development of the country, as well as by changes in education, health care, social security and the attitudes of society towards certain moral and cultural values. Societal changes influenced the transformation of the family structure and model and its stability. To some extent the family assistance policy and its pattern reflect the dominating ethnocultural features of the nation, as well as their adherence to certain human development values. So far the theoretical foundation for policy making in the field of social assistance to families as a societal activity has not been formulated. For a relatively long period discussions have taken place regarding the relationship between the family assistance policy and general social policy and even the similarity of these policies.

As part of social policy, family assistance policy holds independent status within the general social-demographic system. It should take on an important role not only in regulating social demographic processes, but also in laying the foundations for the harmonious relationship of individuals with their environment (social, economic, political, ecological, cultural and so on).

Scientific literature identifies three groups of factors that influence social security and at the same time the system of social assistance to families:

- Demographic factors, which include the birth rate, average life expectancy, marriage and divorce rates, and the level of

women’s economic activity.

- Economic factors. The size of benefits and social services for families is directly dependent on the state budget, which in turn depends on economic development.

- Political factors determine the implementation of social policy.

Decisions about budget allocations for social security or legitimising concrete social measures depend on the political forces of the day.

Current pattern of family assistance.

Social assistance for families raising children continues to be oriented mostly toward the payment of cash benefits, rather

than to the provision of social services or addressing employment and housing needs. In narrowing family assistance to cash benefits, it becomes more and more concentrated on the most socially disadvantaged families. The largest proportion of these families’ incomes (benefit recipients, or families raising three or more children) comes from social assistance benefits provided in various forms (56%). So social assistance benefits have a very significant impact on the standard of living of families receiving them.

In summarising the development of family assistance policy, it can be said that in wanting to create conditions for the family to become and remain stable as a social institution, it was necessary to look at it as a complex and integral part of state policy.

The renewal of family policy conceptualisation at the governmental level was influenced by the United Nations conference on population and social development that took place in Cairo in 1994. At this conference for the first time governments from all over the world agreed with the principle that individuals with their own needs and aspirations should be at the core of decision-making regarding objectives relating to the development of society.

Stages of family policy transformation.

Five stages can be identified in the development of family policy in Lithuania during the last decade.

Stage 1 - 1988-1990. Formulation of the concept of family policy

The formulation of the concept of new family policy began in 1988. The main principle was to establish conditions that helped to reconcile the concerns of the family with the employment of the parents. Its implementation began at the start of 1989, when the Lithuanian government adopted a resolution on the increase of benefits for families. This resolution prolonged partly paid maternity leave for the care for young children at home to a year-and-a-half and unpaid leave to three years. It was planned that women caring for children until they turned eight years of age would maintain their uninterrupted employment record (legal maternity protection). Assistance provided to families raising a child with a disability was raised.

One of the most pertinent problems of raising children needed to be addressed - to improve pre-school care institutions. The resolution also foresaw measures for institutions and organisations supporting the provision of housing for families, improving conditions for employed women, family services and recreation, and expanding psychological support for them.

Family assistance measures eliminated some of the limitations within the legislation pertaining to employment, while combining the functions of motherhood with professional activities. They created more favourable conditions for raising children of pre-school age at home and improving the work of pre-school institutions.

A further topic of discussion was pre-school education and the role of women in society and in the family. Attitudes towards the traditional patriarchal family were more prevalent in society, however.

Stage 2 - 1990-1992. The establishment of a family policy system

In 1990, family policy basically took a fundamental turn in the direction of increasing financial assistance to families and promoting the maximum rearing of children at home. For this reason, pre-school institutions for children were closed especially in rural regions, and in turn the number of children attending them decreased drastically.

Between 1990 and 1992, the family assistance system became quite complicated and expensive. It poorly reflected the objectives of family policy. Flexible working conditions, as well as the implementation of equal opportunities for both men and women, were left outside family policy in Lithuania.

Stage 3 - 1993-1994. A breakthrough in the establishment of family policy: the selection of a family policy model

In 1993, the system of financial assistance for families began to stabilise. Major changes in the payment system were given an adjustment to inflation only. Between 1993 and 1994, the system of assistance to families was also markedly simplified. At the end of 1994, a new law on state

assistance for families raising children was adopted. A large number of small benefits, which could not provide substantial assistance to families, were relinquished, while assistance for the most socially disadvantaged families was increased. It was decided that the "drop in the ocean" type of assistance should be done away with, and that policy should move towards family assistance systems, which had been tried and tested in other countries.

There was a shift towards a more flexible system of pre-school care. Special kindergartens or groups for children with various disabilities and special needs as well as for gifted children were established. Attempts were made to adopt individual educational programs for children. Private pre-schools were established. A new form of educating and training children was developed, in which children attending kindergarten also went to elementary classes.

The weakest area of family assistance policy continued to be the expansion of flexible forms of employment.

Stage 4 - 1995-1996. The development of a family policy concept

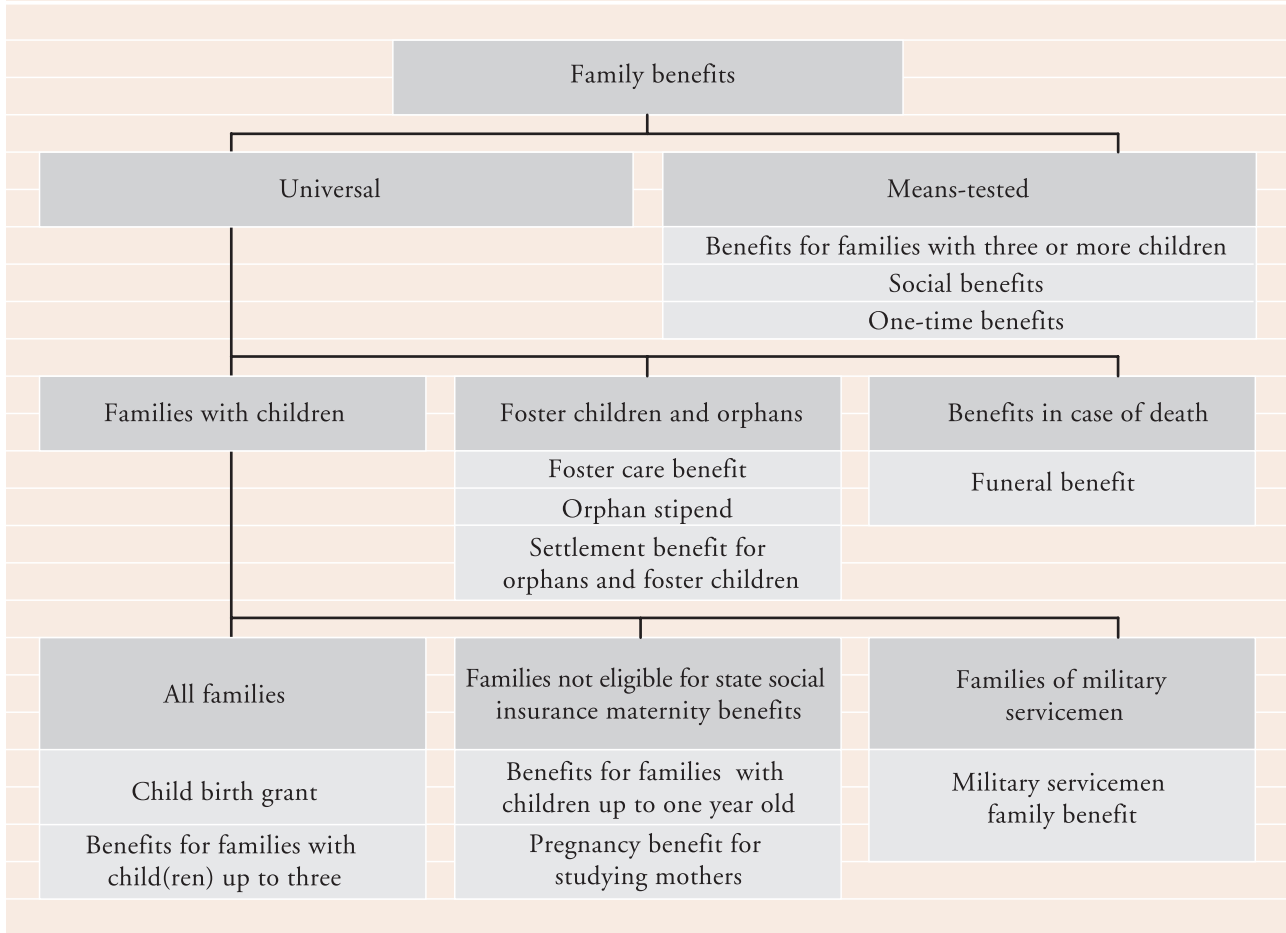
The family policy concept recognised the importance of the economic foundation of the family and therefore identified the sustainability of livelihood as the priority area for development. The stability of the family as a social institution was linked to the strengthening of internal family ties.

It was emphasised that in seeking to improve socio-economic conditions for families measures were required that would allow for the improvement of family planning, maternity and children's health, the raising of young children and opportunities for young people to raise children and maintain good employment. The concept sought to challenge the perception that people with special needs (the disabled, the elderly) were to some extent second-rate members of the community, and sought to help them and their families.

Stage 5 - 1997-1999. The need to develop an integrated family policy

Even though the family policy concept and its areas of activity were confirmed, assistance to families continued to be understood rather narrowly. It was mainly oriented towards the development of monetary assistance to families raising children. Benefits for mothers raising three or more children were introduced, and increased benefits for the care of a child, free meals for children from poor families who attend school, and compensation for the payment of utilities were allocated, and so on. The problem of housing and the possibility for families to receive long-term loans or municipal housing, and the development of family-friendly employment and social services for families (including psychological support for families in crisis) still remains a problem. One of the reasons that family policy remains fragmented could be that it has been insufficiently co-ordinated. Several institutions were responsible for the implementation of separate parts of family policy, while one state institution was authorised to co-ordinate and monitor these activities.

Social assistance benefits in cash to families



State social assistance benefits to families raising children

	Benefit recipients, thousands				Expenditure, LTL			
	1995	1998	1999	2000	1995	1998	1999	2000
Child birth grant	36.4	37.3	36.0	34.1	13,483.8	27,481.0	27,004.9	25,519.7
Family benefit	98.9	93.9	89.5	88.2	60,202.6	101,057.6	98,375.8	95,674.7
Military servicemen family benefit	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.1	254.9	156.6	223.6	154.9
Benefits for families with 3 or more children	-	42.3	44.3	45.0	-	79,269.3	81,132.1	91,929.5
Foster care benefit	3.3	5.6	7.3	8.1	4,057.0	14,573.6	38,055.5	43,240.8
Settlement benefit for orphans and foster children	0.3	0.5	0.6	0.7	402.7	1,076.9	1,245.3	3,075.6
Pregnancy benefit for studying mothers	0.2	0.4	0.3	0.3	60.5	76.9	76.6	70.0
Orphan stipend	0.8	1.6	1.7	1.9	1,012.6	3,498.1	7,456.5	11,178.0

Problematic families and the care of children.

The number of socially disadvantaged and problematic families is growing from year to year. Indirectly this provides evidence that state family assistance policy insufficiently contributes to the preconditions for family sustainability. There is a high risk that the children from these families will be neglected and not properly cared for during their developmental period crucial for socialisation and the formation of personality.

Social assistance to families raising children continues to be oriented mostly toward the payment of cash benefits, rather than to the provision of social services or addressing employment and housing needs.

According to data from the municipal children's rights protection authorities, since 1995 the number of socially disadvantaged families has increased by 1.9 times and the number of children being raised in these families grew by 57%. However, the rise in these figures can be partially ascribed to more accurate registration.

Foster care in the broader sense is the maintenance and upkeep of children, their upbringing, health care, education,

Foster children.

In analysing data from the last few years regarding the reasons why foster care was assigned for children, it can be said that each year on average only about 9% of foster children lost their parents and became real orphans. Others become foster children for the following reasons:

- the parent(s) have been declared missing (4%);
- the parents' rights have been limited (often terminated) (10%);
- the parents do not want to raise children with health problems at home (3-4%);
- the children have behavioural problems or special learning needs (8-10%);
- the children are abandoned by their parents (4-5%);
- the children are removed from socially disadvantaged families (more than 30%).

On the one hand the assignment of foster care is an attempt to remove a child from unfavourable conditions that are usually the result of unresolved, long-term social problems within the family. In other cases, a child is removed from a family not because of the fault of the parents, but rather because the child requires special long-term medical, instructive or psychological support. This could potentially be provided at the community level, but this type of service is rather limited and not yet fully developed and accessible.

protection from exploitation and heavy workloads, and protection of their property and other conditions that ensure their physical and spiritual health. However, in reality the representatives of different specialities (lawyers, social workers, medical personnel) interpret child foster care in the narrower sense and usually from their own perspective. Today this attitude is 'reflected' by the entire child foster care system. In an attempt to better evaluate the development of institutional foster care, at the initiative of the Ministry of Social Security and Labour complex research was undertaken in 2001. The aim of the research into child care institutions in the districts and municipalities was to help to identify the main obstacles that

The number of socially disadvantaged and problematic families is growing from year to year.

Approximately 70% of children in foster care are cared for by close family relatives.

At the start of 2001 there were approximately 20,000 children with disabilities.

Care services provided at institutions dominate the social services pattern for children with disabilities.

have arisen in improving the quality of care at institutions and in the community, accelerating the establishment of alternative foster care in families and the effectiveness of the entire network of care, and educational services for children with problems and special needs.

The research showed that in implementing the reform of local governments the decentralisation of children's homes and special educational institutions was carried out. However, the corresponding responsibilities were not completely 'adjusted'. The municipal children's rights protection authorities often did not sufficiently consult with the district administration on questions relating to the assignment of foster case, placement in children's homes, adoption or the return of children to their families. The districts do not have any functions or authorisation on the above questions. There is no mechanism foreseen for the co-ordination of activities between the different types of care institutions. In some districts there was co-operation in relation to the placement of children in foster care homes, their transfer to other foster care homes, and the resolution of conflict between children, carers and staff. As the institutions are interested in staying operational, no effort is put into searching for alternative care for children. The establishment of alternative care within families is objectively slowed down by municipalities.

Approximately 70% of children in foster care are cared for by close family relatives (the majority by grandparents). If the foster parents are people who are not relatives of the child they tend to take younger children and children without health problems. Older children, particularly children who have lived in foster care institutions, do not themselves want to live in foster care families. It is extremely difficult to find foster families for older children with behavioural problems. Even relatives decide not to care for these children as they assume that it will be impossible to cope with their teenage problems because of a lack of experience and the fact that there are no services that can assist.

Socially disadvantaged families*

	1995	1998	1999	2000	2001 01 01
Total	9,709	14,937	15,144	16,043	18,114
Number of children in these families	25,604	34,328	34,379	36,856	40,276

* Ministry of Social Security and Labour data

Opinions of district representatives on the district network of care institutions for children.

If the majority of districts consider the network of special boarding schools as sufficient and even too expanded, then in the opinion of the majority of districts there is a shortage of institutions for children with severe disability. The research showed that there is a need for the following types of institutions:

- day centres for children from families with problems;
- temporary or short-term stay children's homes;
- rehabilitation centres for under-age children who have been released from children's detention centres or for children with behavioural problems;

- care facilities for children with disabilities who have unpredictable behavioural problems and who no institution wants to accommodate, as well as for children with multiple disabilities or hearing vision impairments.

In the opinion of district representatives there are too many institutions like state children's homes.

The following institutions for children should be under the jurisdiction of the district:

- care homes for children with disabilities
- special boarding schools
- special children's homes and educational centres
- sanatorium schools

What do children themselves think about their own well being and future.

In 2001, at the initiative of UNICEF within the world-wide public opinion survey ("Voice of Youth") polling was simultaneously undertaken in Europe and Central Asia. In total, 15,000 children aged nine to 17 were polled. They were split into two groups - those from nine to 13 were known as the 'children's' group and the second from 14 to 17 were known as the 'youth' group.

The main aim of the survey was to encourage young people, providing them with the opportunity to express their opinions, attitudes and concerns on the issues that are important to them.

Lithuania also participated in this survey. It showed that nearly half of the respondents felt happy, 44% were unsure and could not comment whether they were happy or not, and 4% said that they thought they were not happy. The main reasons why Lithuanian children and young people feel unhappy are poverty, and poor relations with their family members, in particular with their parents. In the survey as a whole, these reasons were most often indicated by children from countries that were in transition to a market economy. The majority of Lithuanians feel happy when they are communicating with their friends and family. Of children's concerns, 63% are related to school, 51% to their families, and 20% are about the poor economic situation in their country. The number of children who are happy is larger in the countries of Western European than in Central and Eastern Europe and the Baltic states.

Children from deprived families indicated more often that their family relationships were bad, that they experience abuse and that their parents are inclined to spend less time communicating with them. The survey also indicated that virtually every five to seven children in 10 experience family abuse.

A total of 51% of the children and youth in the Lithuanian survey said that their opinions are heeded by their family, and 22% said they would like to be included in making decisions about the family and its leisure-time. Meanwhile, 69% said that the usual reaction of their parents to their

bad behaviour was anger, and nearly two thirds said they had experienced aggressive behaviour in their homes. Furthermore, the study showed that children who are beaten by their parents are more inclined to remain silent about this wrongful behaviour towards them.

A total of 58% of respondents said that they were able to watch whatever television programmes they wanted without any parental control.

The main values propagated in the Lithuanian family are respect (75%), honesty (57%), and discipline (45%).

Only 15% of respondents thought that local government takes into account the opinions of young people when they are making decisions on questions that are important to them, predominantly recreation and education.

Young people in Lithuania believe that the government should pay more attention to education (48%), culture, sports and leisure (38%), and social assistance (35%). One third of the respondents indicated that participation in elections is an effective way of changing the country's situation, while 50% of young people in Western Europe indicated that voting is an effective method for adopting political decisions.

In response to how they see the future of the country, 60% of Lithuanian children said they believed that in the future it would be a better place to live in. Major problems that raise pessimism are related to the economic situation (68%) and social problems (64%).

Only 43% of children (aged 9-17) would like to live in Lithuania when they grow up and that the same percentage would like to emigrate. These figures are markedly higher than in other countries. Seventy-two percent of respondents in Western Europe, 74% in countries in Central Europe and 53% in the Baltic states would like to stay in the country of their birth.

The majority of young people who want to emigrate indicated that their main motive was not a lack of social guarantees in the future, but job insecurity. In their opinion it would be extremely difficult for them to find a well-paid job in Lithuania. Many would agree to do unqualified manual work abroad, for the money.

The majority of districts support the opinion that it is essential they take over the responsibility of the functioning of the children's rights protection authorities. This way there would be a foundation for co-ordination and closer co-operation between the activities of the municipality and the districts in the field of childcare. The municipalities in attempting to provide assistance to children growing up in problematic families prefer an expansion of services offered in institutions, instead of developing outside services for families.

Services for children with disabilities. At the start of 2001 there were approximately 20,000 children with disabilities. On average, 1.6 children per 100 have a disability. Over 9,000 children with disabilities (44% of the total number of children with disabilities) receive social services. However, services provided for children with disabilities are not only organised

through social assistance and social services, but also through the education and training system.

Care services provided at institutions dominate the social services pattern for children with disabilities. They constitute 65%, and out-of-institution services account for 35%. For every 100 children, approximately 15 children receive the latter services. However, this proportion differs for each municipality.

The narrow view on family assistance by the state, as on the provision of monetary benefits, should be changed because this approach is not conducive to family sustainability. Family policy should be inseparable from employment policy and housing. Young people value employment and the family most. This attitude should be supported by a long-term strategy on family development as well as by family policies backed up by funding and investment.

VIII

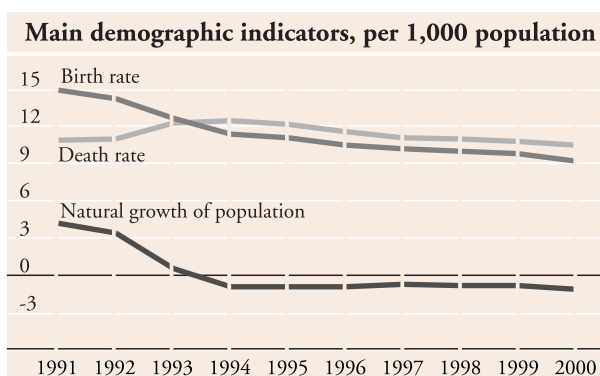
Health

Arūnas Liubšys, Jonas Kairys

General demographic trends. Since 1990, the *birth rate* has been consistently falling. From 1990 to 2000, the annual number of births decreased from 56,900 to 34,100. The number of deaths has exceeded the number of births since 1994. *Mortality: patterns and trends.* A total of 38,919 people died in 2000, and 1,897 more men died than women. The mortality rate continued its downward slide to 10.5 per 1,000 population in 2000.

The most common cause of death was diseases of the cardiovascular system, which killed 20,931 people, a mortality of 566.4 per 100,000 people (53.8% of the overall number of deaths). Another important cause of death was oncological diseases. In 2000, 7,723 people died of malignant tumours, a mortality rate of 209.0 per 100,000 people (19.8% of total deaths). Lung, stomach and prostate cancer dominate the pattern of mortality related to malignant tumours in men. Among women the most prevalent are breast, stomach and uterine cancer.

The third most important cause of death is accidents, suicide, traumas and poisoning. These can be grouped together and termed death by non-medical causes. In 2000, 5,102 people died in this way, a mortality rate of 138.1 per 100,000 people.



The mortality rate continued its downward slide to 10.5 per 1,000 population in 2000.

The most common cause of death was diseases of the cardiovascular system.

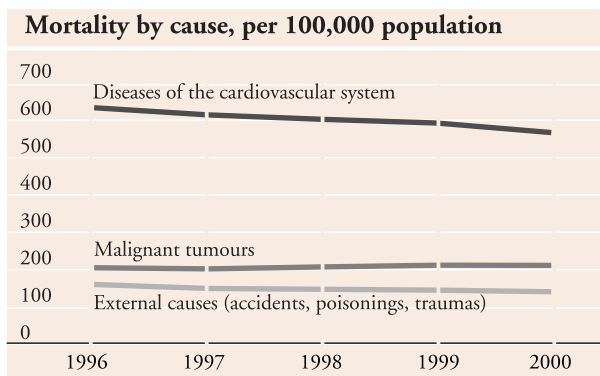
The number of deaths has exceeded the number of births since 1994.

However, death by non-medical causes is the most common cause of death among young people (15-29 years of age).

Infant mortality. In 2000, 294 infants died, making up 0.76% of the total number of deaths. Infant mortality continued to decrease, reaching 8.5 per 1,000 live births in 2000. Even though the mortality rate is falling, there has been a marked increase in the number of perinatal deaths. Perinatal mortality takes into account deaths that occur to a foetus over 28 weeks of pregnancy, still-

Birth rate in selected European countries, per 1,000 population, 1999

Belarus	8.9
Belgium	11.2
Czech Republic	8.7
Denmark	12.4
Estonia	8.7
Finland	11.1
France	12.6
Germany	9.4
Hungary	9.4
Iceland	14.8
Italy	9.1
Latvia	8.0
Lithuania 1999/2000	9.8 / 9.2
Norway	13.3
Poland	9.9
Portugal	11.6
Russia	8.4
Sweden	10.0
Switzerland	11.0
Ukraine	8.4
United Kingdom	11.8

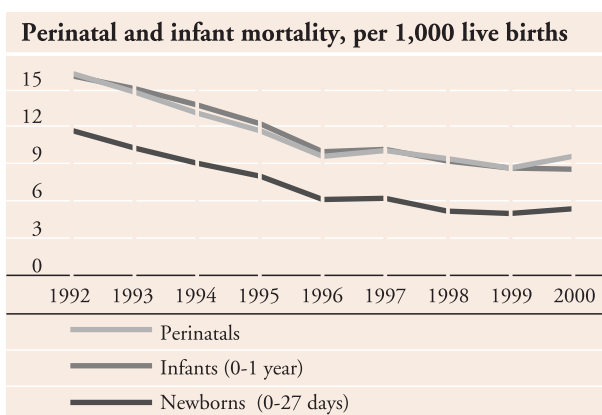


Mortality pattern, %, 2000

Diseases of cardiovascular system	53.78
Malignant tumours	19.8
Suicide	4.2
Road accidents	1.98
Drowning	0.93
Alcohol poisoning	0.88
Murder	0.88
Respiratory tract tuberculosis	0.81
Other	16.74

born births and the deaths of infants up to six days after birth. This was influenced by increases in the number of stillborn births (0.68% of all births in 2000; in 1999 it was 0.58%) and in the number of infants who die shortly after birth (102 cases or 3.02 per 1,000 live births in 2000; 2.85 in 1999).

In developed countries infant mortality does not normally exceed 4-5 per 1,000 live births. Lithuania has the lowest infant mortality of all the countries of the former Soviet Union, including neighbouring Latvia and Estonia, but it is 10 to 15 years behind the developed nations of Western Europe. It must be noted that in some regions and towns (Radviliškis, Kėdainiai, Alytus,

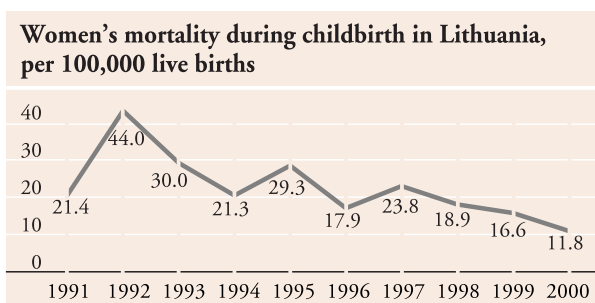


Infant mortality in selected European countries, per 1,000 live births, 1999

Austria	4.3
Belarus	11.5
Belgium	5.3
Czech Republic	4.6
Denmark	4.2
Estonia	9.6
Finland	3.6
France	4.8
Hungary	8.4
Iceland	2.4
Italy	5.2
Latvia	11.6
Lithuania (2000)	8.5
Norway	3.9
Poland	8.8
Portugal	5.6
Russia	16.9
Sweden	3.4
Switzerland	4.6
United Kingdom	5.8

Švenčioniai, Molėtai, Zarasai districts and the towns of Palanga and Visaginas) infant mortality has considerably exceeded the national average for several years (over 18 per 1,000 live births). No targeted research has been made in this area, so grounded conclusions on causality cannot be drawn. However, poor social and economic conditions and/or an insufficient level of health care are probably to blame.

Due to complications during pregnancy, birth and post-birth diseases, four women died in childbirth during the year of 2000 in Lithuania. Women's mortality during childbirth was 11.8 per 100,000 live births. Even though this indicator is the lowest of the past decade it remains high when compared with the majority of developed countries.



Children and infant mortality pattern, %, 2000

Cause of death	Infants (0-1 years of age)	Children (1-14 years of age)
Congenital developmental disorders	41.2	12.2
Diseases of perinatal period	32.0	-
Death by non-medical causes	7.1	52.5
Cardiovascular diseases	2.4	2.9
Respiratory diseases	6.5	4.6
Infectious and parasitic diseases	2.7	3.4
Malignant tumours	0.7	11.3
Other	7.4	13.3

The pattern of infant and perinatal mortality has been virtually unchanged over the last few years. More than 70% of deaths occur due to congenital developmental defects (41.2%) and diseases during the neonatal period (32.0%), the largest proportion of which is taken up by premature births and disorders of the central nervous system. A very similar pattern of mortality is evident in other countries.

The mortality pattern for children aged between 1 and 14 years has also not changed a lot. Over half (52.5%) of all deaths in this age group occur through non-medical causes, such as accidents, traumas, suicide and murder. In 2000, the number of deaths related to non-medical causes fell; in 1999 they accounted for 59.3% of deaths in this age group. There was a decrease in the number of children who drowned (40 and 65, respectively), who were killed in road accidents (40 and 45), and who committed suicide or were murdered (9 and 17). The other two important causes of child mortality were congenital developmental disorders (12.2%) and malignant tumours (11.3%), among which the most prevalent was leukaemia.

Mortality of young people (15-29 years of age). The majority of young people die by non-medical causes. In 2000, the indicator was 98.4 per 100,000 population aged between 15 and 29 years. Cardiovascular diseases accounted for only 5.2 per 100,000 population in this age group. Many more boys than girls died (200.8 and 50.0, respectively, per 100,000 population). Deaths by non-medical causes were higher among boys than girls (165.8 and 29.0, respectively, per 100,000 population). Suicide among boys was 55.2, and among girls 9.8, per 100,000 population.

In the pattern of mortality related to non-medical causes, suicide and road accidents prevailed (44.1 and 20.8 per 100,000 respectively in 2000).

Youth* mortality, per 100,000 population

	1990	1995	1998	2000
Total	128.6	151.9	136.6	126.5
Malignant tumours	8.3	9.4	5.8	8.4
Cardiovascular diseases	8.7	7.2	6.3	5.2
Non-medical causes	94.4	113.4	108.1	98.4
Road accidents	37.9	28.0	36.8	24.5
Alcohol poisoning	1.6	4.9	3.3	2.5
Drowning	10.7	12.8	9.9	8.1
Suicide	16.9	32.5	30.6	32.8
Murder	7.2	9.2	8.3	7.4
Other	20.0	26.1	19.1	23.1
Other causes of death	17.2	21.9	16.4	14.5
Male:	202.1	238.5	213.6	200.8
Malignant tumours	10.5	9.8	4.9	7.5
Cardiovascular diseases	12.1	11.0	9.5	8.3
Non-medical causes	159.3	191.8	179.0	165.8
Road accidents	63.3	46.3	57.9	41.3
Alcohol poisoning	3.0	8.8	6.1	4.6
Drowning	20.0	22.9	17.0	14.8
Suicide	28.0	55.1	52.5	55.2
Murder	11.8	15.0	13.4	12.4
Other	33.2	43.6	32.1	37.4
Other causes of death	20.3	26.0	20.2	19.2
Female:	51.6	61.8	57.2	50.0
Malignant tumours	6.0	8.9	6.8	9.3
Cardiovascular diseases	5.3	3.2	3.0	2.0
Non-medical causes	26.3	32.0	34.9	29.0
Road accidents	11.2	8.9	15.0	7.3
Alcohol poisoning	0.2	0.7	0.5	0.3
Drowning	1.0	2.2	2.5	1.3
Suicide	5.3	8.9	8.0	9.8
Murder	2.4	3.2	3.0	2.3
Other	6.2	7.9	5.8	8.3
Other causes of death	14.1	17.6	12.5	9.8

* Aged 15-29

Suicide among boys was 55.2, and among girls 9.8, per 100,000 population.

Morbidity¹. There is still no unified database allowing for a thorough and qualitative assessment of morbidity in Lithuania. Morbidity is evaluated according to data from outpatient and inpatient health care institutions. In 2000, 14.3%

more children aged 0-14 years received outpatient treatment than in 1999. For the same period the number of children receiving inpatient care decreased by 10.1%. It is difficult to explain the shift from the more serious inpatient morbidity to

¹ Some data provided by the Lithuanian Health Information Centre

Life expectancy.

The positive changes in mortality overall have conditioned an increase in average life expectancy. Average life expectancy at birth was 72.87 years of age (67.62 for men and 77.93 for women).

Life expectancy for people who reach the age of 45 years has also grown. The average indicator for 2000 was 31.15 years (27.28 for men and 31.51 for women).

Average life expectancy at birth in selected European countries, 1999

Austria	75.1	81.0
Bulgaria	68.3	75.1
Czech Republic	71.4	78.4
Denmark	74.2	79.0
Estonia	65.5	76.3
Finland	73.8	81.0
Hungary	66.4	74.5
Iceland	77.8	81.5
Latvia	64.8	75.4
Lithuania	67.6	77.9
Norway	75.6	81.1
Poland	68.2	77.7
Portugal	72.0	79.1
Slovenia	71.8	79.3
Sweden	77.0	81.9
Switzerland	76.8	82.5
United Kingdom	75.0	79.8

■ Men
■ Women

the lighter outpatient morbidity without a thorough investigation. Most probably it can be explained by the fact that some children who were earlier treated in hospitals could now make do with medical assistance at the outpatient level. In 2000, every child of up to 14 years of age visited outpatient facilities on an average of 2.4 times. The current system for the registration of outpatient morbidity does not allow for a true assessment of how many children were ill during 2000. The same patient could have received medical assistance from several doctors or on several occasions throughout the year, whereas other children would not have visited a doctor at all.

The pattern of outpatient morbidity for children has remained virtually unchanged over the last few years. More than a half of children suffered from respiratory diseases, with a markedly smaller proportion suffering from digestive tract

Pattern of child morbidity with treatment in outpatient institutions, per 1,000 children

Name of disease, according to Nr. ICD-10, (selected diseases)	1999	2000
Diseases of respiratory system	1,110.0	1,229.5
Diseases of gastrointestinal system	120.0	166.7
Traumas, poisoning and other external factors	89.4	103.7
Infectious and parasitic diseases	97.2	107.1
Malignant tumours	3.4	4.7

Pattern of child morbidity with treatment in hospitals, per 1,000 children

Name of disease, according to Nr. ICD-10, (selected diseases)	1999	2000
Diseases of respiratory system	77.8	66.7
Diseases of gastrointestinal system	24.5	23.4
Traumas, poisoning and other external factors	18.3	19.1
Infectious and parasitic diseases	18.4	14.7
Malignant tumours	2.3	2.4

diseases, complaints of the eye and related organs, dermal and epidermal illnesses, infectious and parasitic illnesses, poisoning and traumas.

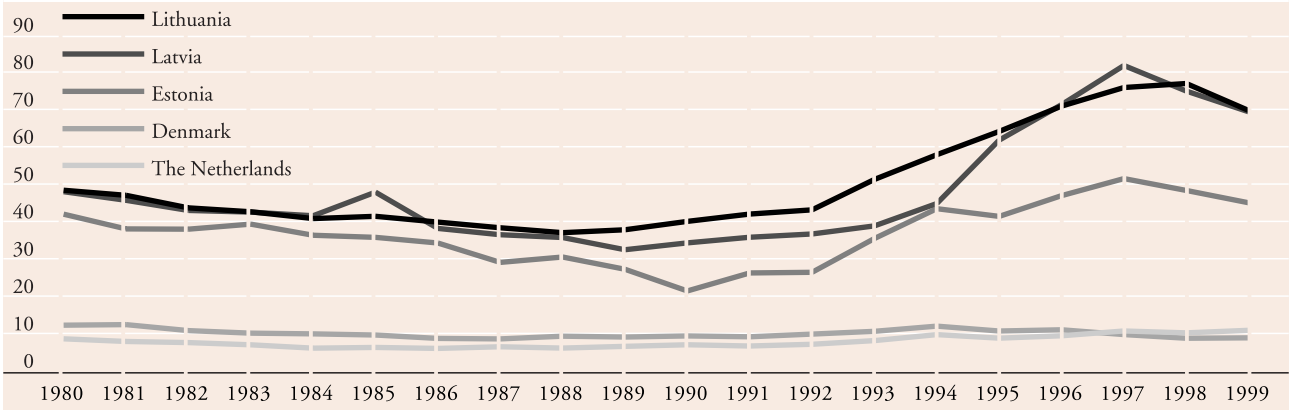
In 2000, nearly every fifth child (191.4 per 1,000 children aged 0-14 years) was treated in hospital. Compared with 1999, there were 20.1% less infectious diseases, 14.3% less respiratory tract diseases and 4.5% less digestive tract diseases among children. On the other hand, the number of children treated in hospitals with diseases of the perinatal period did not significantly increase (2.5%) compared with 1999, and the same can be said of accidents and poisoning (4.2%). Regardless of the fact that the number of children treated in hospitals differed in comparison to earlier years, the overall morbidity pattern did not change.

Malignant tumours. According to Lithuanian Cancer Register data, the number of people suffering from malignant tumours is gradually rising (from 278.0 per 100,000 population in 1990 to 379.5 in 2000).

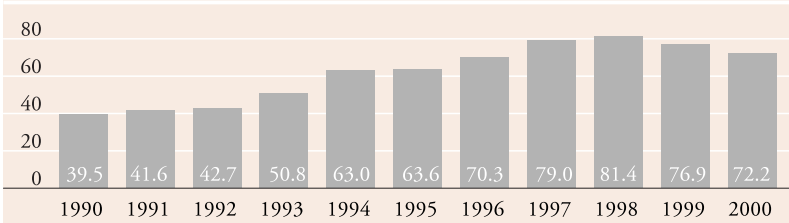
When speaking about cancer in men, malignant lung, prostate and stomach tumours prevail. For every 100,000 people, there were 77.7 cases of lung cancer, 55.2 cases of prostate cancer, and 32.8 cases of stomach cancer in 2000.

In women, malignant tumours of the breast, stomach and uterus prevail. In 2000, there were 67.8 cases of breast cancer, 23.6 cases of stomach cancer, 24.8 cases of cancer of the uterus, and 23.9 cases of cancer of the uterine diagnosed per 100,000 population.

Tuberculosis in selected countries, per 100,000 population



Active tuberculosis, per 100,000 population

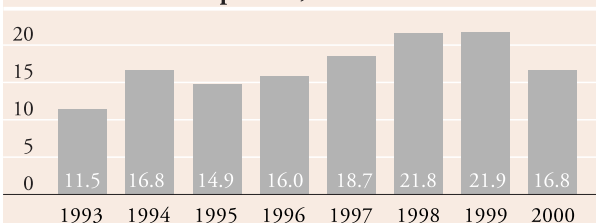


Tuberculosis. The number of people suffering from tuberculosis in Lithuania is falling. In 2000, 2,668 new cases of tuberculosis were diagnosed, which constitutes 72.2 per 100,000 population. According to data from the World Health Organisation's European Regional Centre, the prevalence of tuberculosis is similar in Latvia, lower in Estonia and significantly less inside the European Union.

After years of continuous increase, the number of children suffering from tuberculosis has finally stopped growing. In 2000, the number of children suffering from active tuberculosis was 16.8 per 100,000 children (21.9 in 1999).

Sexually Transmitted Diseases (STD). In 2000, the prevalence of syphilis was 31.7 per 100,000 population, and of acute gonorrhoea 25.1 per 100,000 population. It is difficult to say how many private clinics and doctors are operating on such cases as their submitted statistics do not always reflect the true picture. This in turn means that the prevalence and incidence of sexually transmitted diseases is not completely accurate. The statistics presented are based only on the officially registered cases.

Active tuberculosis per 100,000 children



In 2000, the number of children suffering from active tuberculosis was 16.8 per 100,000 children.

Young people of the 18-29 age group constituted 59.6% of the total morbidity for sexually transmitted diseases registered in 2000. Men contracted STDs 2.3 times more often than women in this age group. There were 906 cases of sexually transmitted disease registered for males, and 391 cases for females.

According to the WHO European Regional Bureau, the prevalence of syphilis and gonorrhoea is higher in Latvia and Estonia, and lower in EU countries.

HIV Infection/AIDS. Eastern Europe and Central Asia are regions where the rate of the spread of HIV infection is high.

Due to the relatively high rate of HIV infection in neighbouring countries, Lithuania is recognised as a place where the rate of the infection is lower.

Data from the Lithuanian AIDS Centre on 31 December 2000 indicated that 266 cases of HIV infection have so far been registered in Lithuania. In 2000, 65 new cases were registered (66 in 1999). The oldest person infected with HIV is 68 years of age (at the time of being diagnosed), and the youngest 15 years of age. The number of men infected

Selected sexually transmitted diseases, per 100,000 population

	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Syphilis	1.9	90.8	101.4	84.9	62.8	45.3	31.7
Acute gonorrhoea	58.8	96.6	70.7	49.2	36.3	30.9	25.1

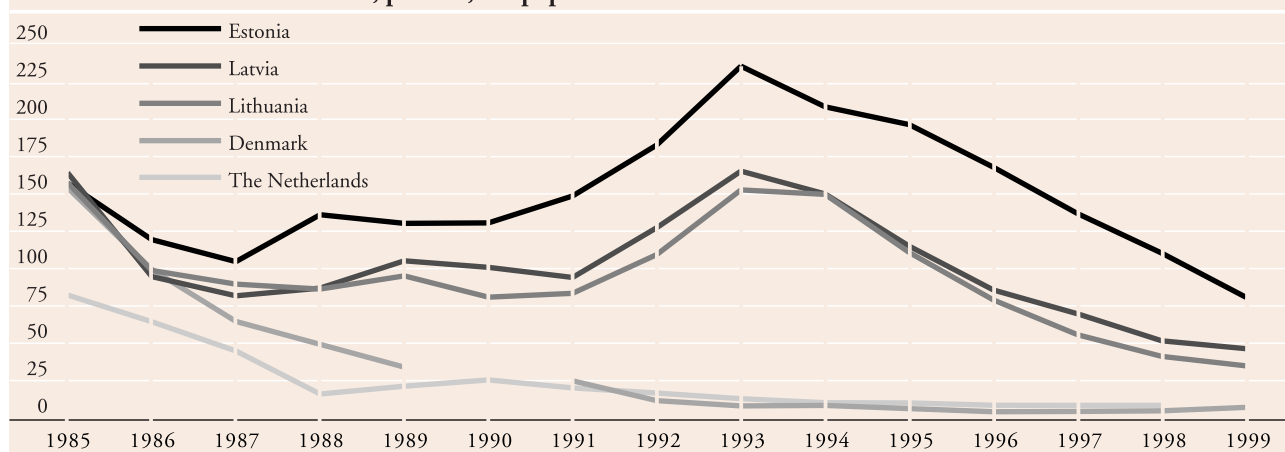
Selected sexually transmitted diseases among young people by gender, per 100,000 population aged 18-29

	1990	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total	312.9	718.6	637.9	494.7	350.3	267.6	201.5
Men	362.4	962.9	833.1	640.4	437.3	355.6	277.9
Women	260.8	464.1	435.4	344.2	260.7	177.1	123.1

Syphilis in selected countries, per 100,000 population

	1985	1986	1987	1988	1989	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
Lithuania	3.24	2.43	2.9	2.11	2.22	1.94	4.81	7.64	18.6	57.57	90.96	101.39	84.9	62.82	45.3
Latvia	8.92	8.88	6.13	2.53	2.25	4.79	8.11	10.37	32.1	59.7	93.7	126.19	121.82	106.05	63.4
Estonia	6.8	5.45	3.35	4.23	3.63	3.37	7.41	11.4	22.55	56.83	69.68	66.16	75.38	72.43	58.31
Denmark	6.45	3.03	1.87	1.97	1.77	1.09	0.62	1.03	1.08	0.48	0.75	0.78	1.12	0.83	0.64
The Netherlands	4.04	2.88	2.88	2.68	3.63	3.34	1.68	1.24	0.88	0.86	1.32	1.35	1.72	0.79	-

Gonorrhoea in selected countries, per 100,000 population



HIV/AIDS in selected countries*

Country	Lithuania 2000 12 31	Latvia 2000 10 15	Estonia 2000 10 01	Russia 2000 09 01	Poland 2000 11 01	Belarus 2000 01 01	Ukraine 2000 01 01
HIV infected	266	929	297	49,715	6,616	2,752	30,603
AIDS	36	70	4	408	934	52	9,400
Died	26	22	4	594	506	600	400

* In September 2000, 3,521 people were HIV-infected in the Russian Enclave of Kaliningrad

with HIV is dominant, with 230 cases registered (86% of the total).

The first case of HIV infection was registered in 1994, contracted through the use of intravenous drugs. This case was registered in Druskininkai. Some two years later another four cases were registered, in Klaipeda, the cause once again being the use of intravenous drugs.

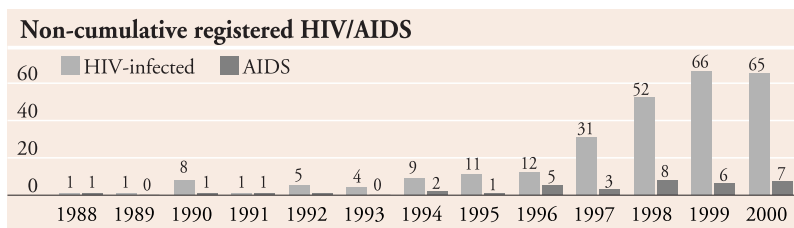
The majority of cases of HIV infection, 112 of them, were registered in Klaipeda, and there were 90 registered cases in Vilnius. The prevalence of AIDS was highest in Vilnius, that is 17 cases, which constituted 47% of all AIDS cases. The spread of HIV infection and AIDS was highest in Lithuania's large cities and also in the resort town of Druskininkai. It was thought that the high figures for Druskininkai were due to the use of intravenous drug use.

Diseases of addiction. In 2000, 764 people were registered as suffering from alcoholic psychosis for the first time. There were

also 1,944 registered cases of chronic alcoholism and 546 registered cases of drug addiction and substance dependency.

Prophylactic medical examination and vaccination. The prophylactic medical examination of children continued in 2000. Out of every 1,000 children who were examined, 98.4 were diagnosed with eyesight impairments (94.3 in 1999), and 68.4 had postural disorders (62.9 in 1999). Children living in urban areas were diagnosed more often with various disorders than children from rural areas. Given that both morbidity and mortality were higher in rural areas, it was doubtful that children from rural areas were healthier than those from urban areas. Obviously the more favourable statistics for rural children were influenced by the fact that generally regular and thorough prophylactic medical examinations were less accessible for rural children.

Since 1997 the budget has no longer financed medical units at school. The reason behind this decision is that health



HIV/AIDS by location

Location	HIV-infected	AIDS	Died
Klaipėda	112	7	10
Vilnius	90	17	9
Kaunas	9	5	2
Panevėžys	5	2	1
Druskininkai	10	0	0
Šiauliai	6	1	2
Other districts	14	3	2
Total	246	35	26

Diseases of addiction, per 100,000 population

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Alcoholic psychosis	53.7	55.4	45.6	55.8	55.1	55.9
Chronic alcoholism	1,949.7	1,985.5	1,980.4	1,871.6	1,788.9	1,729.2
Drug addiction and substance dependency	46.0	63.5	77.4	77.5	83.3	95.3

care is financed by the Mandatory Health Insurance Fund and medical staff in schools are from polyclinics or primary health care institutions, and polyclinics where children are registered already receive funds for this purpose. If medical units in schools are closed, children go for prophylactic examinations and vaccinations at the polyclinics where they are registered. However, while 1997 children were examined on a regular basis, after the closure of school medical units their examination depended on many factors (the will of the parents, for example). Moreover, children in schools will be less likely to receive an education in health care and they will also not be able to receive emergency medical assistance.

Since 1997 the budget has no longer financed medical units at school.

Of every 100 women who gave birth only 46.8 were healthy. Every fourth woman who gave birth was diagnosed as being anaemic.

Vaccination of children and infants.

Children are prophylactically well vaccinated. The staff of primary health care centres, polyclinics and medical offices in schools carry out this task. Vaccinations are available free of charge, are bought centrally by the Ministry of Health and are distributed to health care institutions. The vaccination of infants against hepatitis B began in 1998.

Health of mothers. The Mother and Child Health Care Department, which methodically managed children's polyclinics, children's hospitals and so on, no longer exists in the Ministry of Health. In the cities and regions temporary positions for senior paediatricians, obstetricians (midwives) and gynaecologists have been allocated. As the Ministry of Health abides by the policy that general practitioners should work in the primary health care system, resident doctors do not

freely choose paediatrics as a speciality. There is no guarantee of future jobs with this speciality.

In 2000, every gynaecologist-obstetrician cared for 58.7 pregnant women and women who had given birth (in 1999 the number was 63.1). The number of beds allocated for pregnant women and women giving birth was 4.2 per 10,000 population (in 1999 it was 4.4). The number of birth pathologies of women giving birth was 23,769, which constitutes 70.6% of all births.

Of every 100 women who gave birth only 46.8 were healthy. Every fourth woman who gave birth was diagnosed as being anaemic. Every tenth woman suffered from respiratory tract diseases, three in 100 had cardiovascular diseases, and every tenth woman had other health-related problems. In addition, 45.4% of pregnant women had various other pregnancy pathologies.

Even though the number of abortions in Lithuania has remained very high compared with other developing European nations, in 2000 there was a tendency

Vaccination of children and infants, %

Disease	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	Time of vaccination
Tuberculosis	87.4	93.9	97.6	95.9	96.6	98.3	98.4	99.1	99.3	99	New-borns
Diphtheria	74.9	87.2	86.8	87.2	97.3	92.1	92.0	93.5	93.1	93.5	1 year
Poliomyelitis	79.0	88.2	86.3	87.7	89.3	92.6	94.8	96.6	96.9	96.9	1 year
Measles	85.7	89.0	91.8	92.7	93.7	96.3	95.9	96.5	96.9	97	2 years
Epidemic parotitis	73.8	75.9	54.3	79.4	76.8	93.4	94.9	96.7	96.9	97	2 years

Abortions

	Abortions per 1,000 women of fertile age			Abortions per 100 births		
	1998	1999	2000	1998	1999	2000
Total	30.28	28.35	25.06	76.45	73.63	69.61
Cities	42.08	40.20	35.03	85.59	80.52	75.50
Rural areas	20.17	18.30	16.40	64.20	63.51	60.86

towards a decrease in the number of abortions. The number of abortions was 69.6 per 100 births.

The majority of abortions (68.3%) are carried out at the request of the woman, 22.3% of cases occur because of unexpected (spontaneous) miscarriage and a very small number are carried out because of medical indications. This division has remained roughly the same for the past few years. In urban areas, the number of abortions carried out by women of a fertile age is more than twice the number as women living in rural areas. It is difficult to say what the reasons are for such a clear difference in numbers. It is certainly markedly easier for women living in urban areas to terminate a pregnancy (easier access to medical care). The difference could also be attributed to the more traditional and conservative attitudes towards pregnancy and the family that exist among rural inhabitants.

The Ministry of Health has transferred part of its responsibilities to the newly created following institutions:

- Committee on Medical Ethics
- State Accreditation of Health Care Services Authority
- State Medical Audit Inspectorate
- State Control of Drugs Authority

Among the institutions under the authority of the Minis-

try of Health are the State Forensic Medicine; Psychiatric and Drug Dependency Authorities; National Pathological Anatomy Centres; Nursing Care Advancement and Specialisation Centres; Health Care Information Centres; and Health Care Legal and Economic Centres.

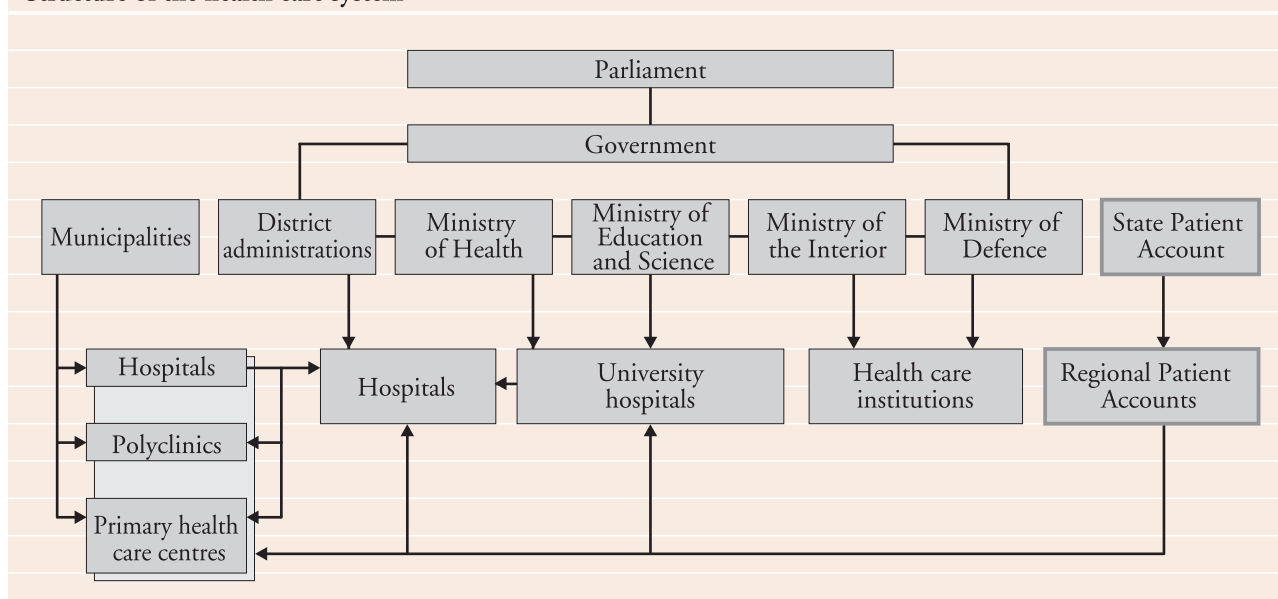
Outpatient health care. The reforms that have been made so far in the outpatient health care system can be evaluated positively. When once there was only one central hospital in each region, more attention was allocated to inpatient services than to polyclinics. With the commencement of separate financing to primary health care institutions they be-

came more independent. However, the strict distribution of services to primary health care institutions have created their own problems. Expanded services were established in terms of primary health care and consultation facilities, polyclin-

ics, mental health centres, dental clinics, nursing and care hospitals. A patient who has applied to a primary health care centre cannot be seen by a secondary level medical practitioner or consultant as this type of practitioner cannot be employed in such a centre. In some regions patients have several outpatient cards and tests are duplicated. Expenses are increasing as it is necessary to maintain separate administrative staff for each institution and patient information is difficult to compile and maintain. Only in some of the city polyclinics can patients be tested quickly with the full range of necessary tests and receive consultations on time with the appropriate doctors and consultants. The Ministry of Health should not artificially differentiate between primary health care services and secondary health care in outpatient services. The ministry is striving to establish more General Practitio-

The number of abortions was 69.6 per 100 births in 2000.

Structure of the health care system



ner (GP) clinics. The establishment of such clinics should be better planned, and more oriented toward rural areas or places where primary health care centres are located some distance away, where it is uncomfortable for patients to reach. Municipalities should be given the authority to regulate the establishment of these types of institutions, which today are limited by the Law on Competition. Competition is not appropriate for health care. The establishment of GP clinics should be linked not only with the number of inhabitants but also to a foreseen distance (for example, 5 kilometres) between each primary health care institution.

Inpatient health care. The highest, that is, third level of institutions should provide only those types of services that are necessary for small numbers of patients or else the services must be very specific. In every district there should be guaranteed quality and an essential minimum of services. For the majority of inpatient services, there are wide gaps between the demand and availability of equipment, professionals and funding. Funding is not assigned for the procurement of new technology and the repair and maintenance of old equipment. Unfortunately there are no open tenders advertised

for investment programmes and the medical community only learns about these through the media. Other hospitals are struggling to implement the minimum requirements for a variety of services and employ specialist medical practitioners (for example radiologists) and they will soon be forced to close. Health care reforms do not encourage hospitals to accept more patients and earn more money. Contracts between health care institutions and state patient accounts set quotas for the number of patients to be treated, indicating the amounts of money hospitals must cover in accepting more patients. The institutions therefore find themselves bogged down in debt, since for every ‘unplanned’ patient a list of expenses is compiled for medication, tests and meals. In this way, hospitals in a position to accept more patients do not do so as the treatment is non-profitable for them. In 1997 and 1998 – before the current recession – the state patient accounts would make payments on time to health care institutions and pharmacies and still had money to spare. Today the accounts are in debt to the health care institutions and pharmacies. The balancing of the health insurance budget should be a top priority for the government.

IX

Juvenile crime

Gintautas Sakalauskas

General crime indicators.¹ In 2000, compared to 1999, total registered crime in Lithuania grew by 6.8%, while registered serious crime decreased by 12.9%. The crime rate per 100,000 population increased from 2,083 to 2,225.

In 2000, for the first time since 1994, 16% more premeditated murders (including attempted murders) were registered in Lithuania in comparison to the previous year. Their number, however, is still 25% lower than the figure registered in 1994. The number of registered cases of premeditated serious bodily harm rose by 17%, thefts by 11%, and robberies by almost 30%. This alarming increase is related to the fact that since 1995 a part of theft has been qualified as robbery. The number of cases of rape (including attempted rape) fell by 19%.

Property-related crime accounts for 80% of the total number of crimes (65% thefts, 6% premeditated damage to property, 5% robberies, 2% fraud, etc.).

The registered level of crimes solved remains constant at 40%. The crime-solving situation in Lithuania resembles general trends in European countries (up to 50% of registered crimes are solved in Germany, up to 35% in the United Kingdom)².

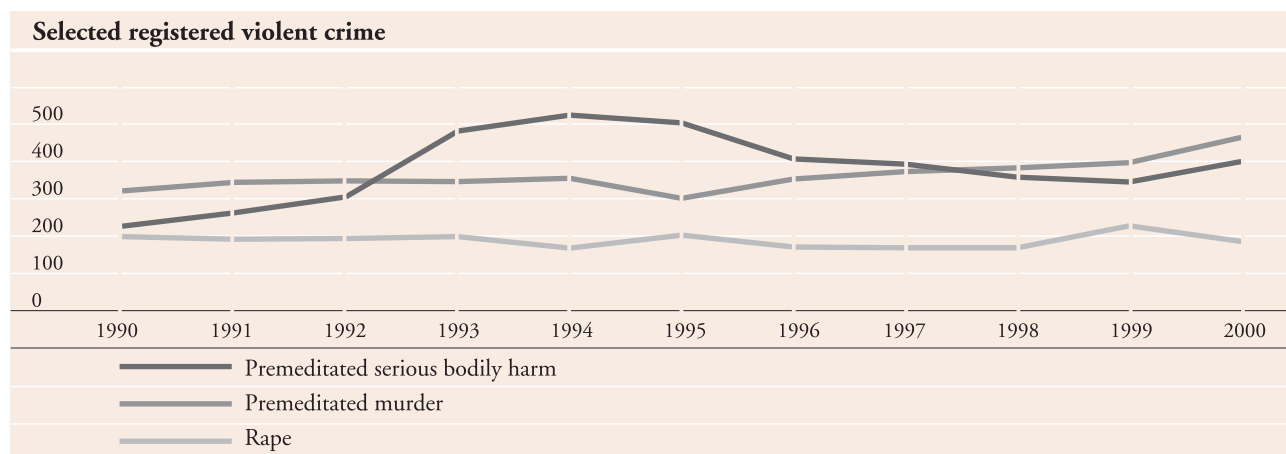
In 2000, the number of solved crimes committed by repeat offenders grew by 27% and made up 46% of the total number of solved crimes. This might lead to the conclusion that law and order and the penal system are ineffective, since a growing number of repeat offenders find it increasingly difficult to integrate into society. However, law enforcement institutions report that they find it a great deal easier to solve crimes committed by repeat offenders.

Drug-related crime. More drug-related crimes are being registered since 1990. In 2000, the number of these crimes increased by 33% in comparison to 1999. The number of crimes committed by people under the influence of narcotic substances also grew by 15%, while crimes committed by drug addicts grew by 22%. This rise is difficult to evaluate unambiguously. Sociological surveys and international research speculate that the trend will continue. Attention should be paid to the fact that not all registered drug-related crimes could be grouped together according to statistics. Certainly, a considerable share of thefts and robberies

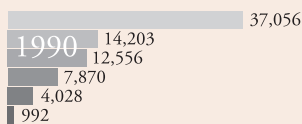
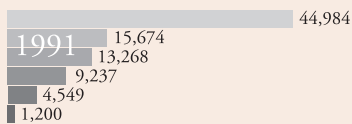
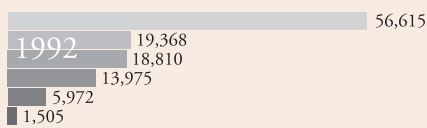
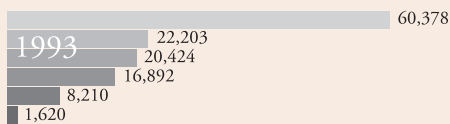
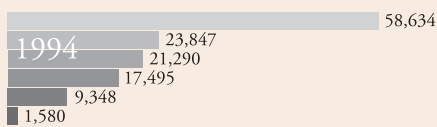
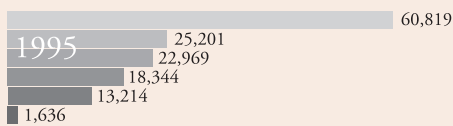
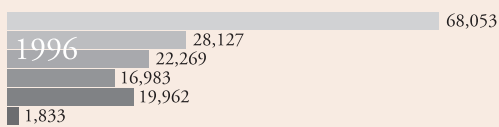
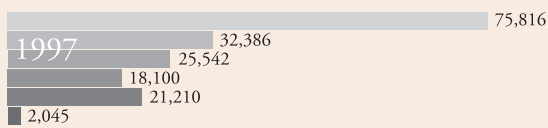
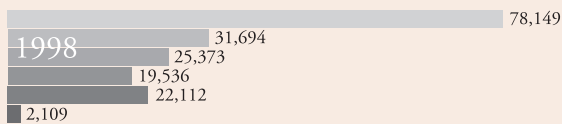
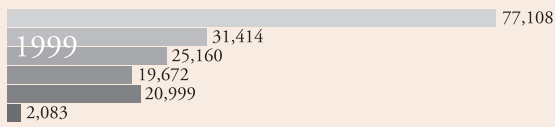
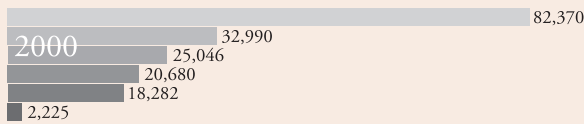
In 2000, compared to 1999, total registered crime in Lithuania grew by 6.8%.

¹This article is based on statistics from the website of the Centre for Crime Prevention in Lithuania (CCPL) at www.nplc.lt unless stated otherwise.

²Data from the official statistics of these countries on the Internet.

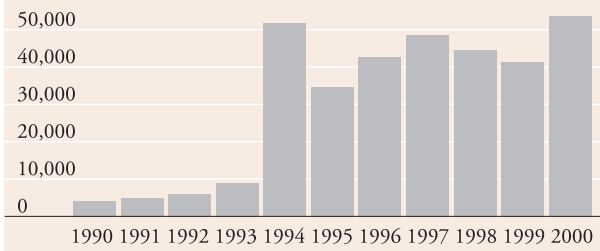


Crime indicators



■	Total registered crimes
■	Crimes solved
■	Number of suspects
■	Number of convicts
■	Registered serious crimes
■	Registered crimes per 100,000 population

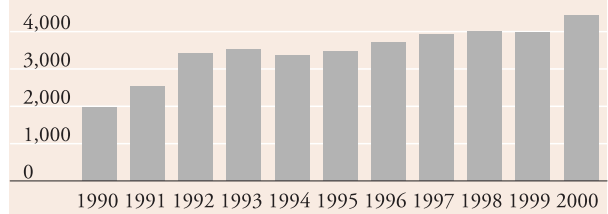
Theft



committed as well as bodily harm and even murder could be related to drug addiction, and not be recorded by statistics.

Latent crime and crime victim survey. Analysis of the key statistical crime indicators leads to the conclusion that registered crime in Lithuania will increase gradually over time. However, registered crime only partly reflects the real crime situation. Research into latent crime along with an analysis of statistics based on sociological surveys of offenders and crime victims may complement the real picture. There has been no national sociological survey of latent crime offenders conducted in Lithuania (except those focusing on specific types of crime like abuse of power or violence among children). Similar surveys abroad show that, depending on the country and type of crime, actual crime is bigger than that recorded.

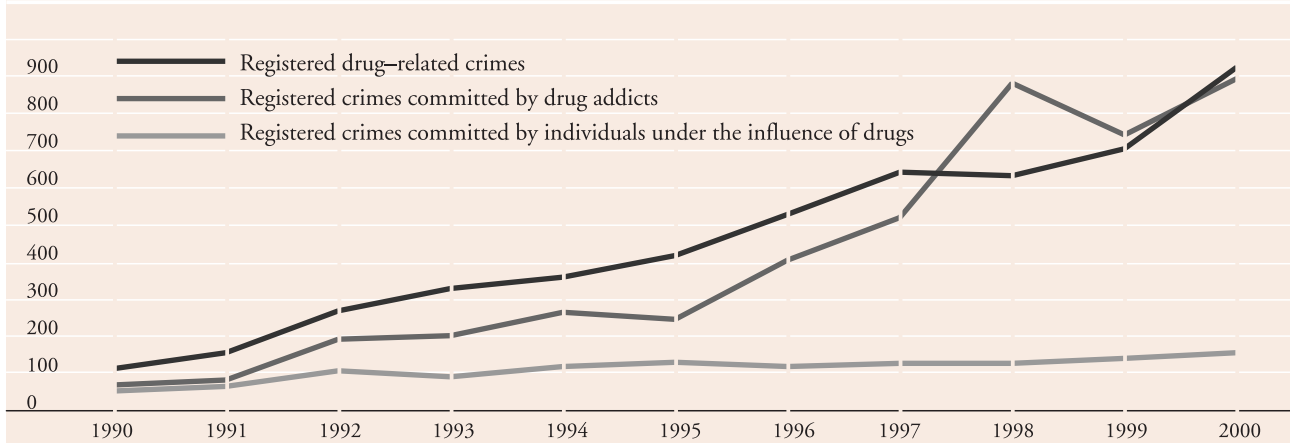
Robbery



In 2000, the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI, Italy) conducted a crime victim survey within the framework of the interregional project on the evaluation of violence, corruption and organised crime in the countries of Central and Eastern Europe. In Lithuania, this survey was conducted only in the capital Vilnius. It consisted of two parts: a survey of 15,260 individuals and a survey of 525 enterprises, and was made by Baltijos tyrimai on the basis of special questionnaires and general methodology provided by UNICRI. The results of the survey were summarised and evaluated, and the final report was prepared by a task force from the Lithuanian Institute of Law.

The survey revealed that 70% of respondents indicated that during the last five years (1996 to 2000) they had become a victim of crime against their property or themselves personally at least once. In 1999, 30% of respondents fell victim to such crimes. In the last five years, 28% of respondents suffered thefts from cars and were robbed, 21% were burgled, 19% had their

Crimes related to drugs and psychotropic substances



cars vandalised, 17% were victims of attempted robbery, and 13% experienced attempted assault or were assaulted. Sexual crimes were committed against 7% of respondents.³ The survey showed that 41% of respondents representing enterprises indicated that they were victims of crime; theft accounted for more than a half of all crimes committed against enterprises.

The survey also showed a marked critical attitude of respondents to the performance of police in investigating and controlling crime. More than half of respondents did not report crimes to the police, and the majority of those who did assessed the police work that was done negatively. In the respondents' opinion, police either failed to detain offenders or return property or were not diligent enough.

The crime victim surveys led to the conclusion that latent crime in Lithuania (as in many industrialised countries) is several times larger than that registered, and that its trends do not necessarily coincide with the trends of registered crime.

Juvenile crime. It can be stated that general crime trends in Lithuania are similar to those of the majority of countries in Europe. One of the key factors behind the growth in crime is an increase in juvenile crime. Juvenile crime accounts for a significant part of total crime figures. There is a high probability that some young offenders, particularly those who have experienced incarceration, will commit crimes in the future.

According to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child and national legislation adopted by Lithuania a 'child' is usually defined as a person under 18 years of age. However, the Criminal Code and the Code of Criminal Procedure of the Republic of Lithuania single out the age category of 14-17, which is subject to a special legal regulation and is defined as that of 'juveniles' or under-age. 'Youth' in Lithuania is generally the age group between 16-29⁴. People of up to 14 years of age (generally referred to as 'minors') are not accountable according to the Criminal Code, which means that in the

formal legal sense they cannot commit a crime. But the study of their criminal behaviour is particularly important.

Registered minor and under-age delinquency. Every year juveniles commit 14-16% of the total crime committed by all age groups (14.3% in 2000, though as a group they constitute only about 6% of the total population) and the number of crimes they commit that are solved accounts for 16-19% of the total (16.7% in 2000).

In 2000, the 14-15 age group accounted for 28.9% of all juvenile crime offenders, while the 16-17 age group accounted for 71.1% (30.4% and 69.6% in 1999, respectively). Among juvenile crime offenders, 5% were female and 95% male. Schoolchildren made up 60% of under-age crime offenders (56.8% in 1999, 41.1% in 1996); those who neither study nor work made up 38.1% (40.2% in 1999, 51.5% in 1996); and 52.5% had neither worked nor studied for more than six months. It should be noted that people who neither work nor study committed 54.4% of all solved crimes in 2000 (53.3% in 1999 and 55.1% in 1996).

In 2000, 37.6% of all solved juvenile crimes were registered in Lithuania's five largest cities (Vilnius, Kaunas, Klaipėda, Šiauliai and Panevėžys), compared to 40% in 1999 and 41.4% in 1998.

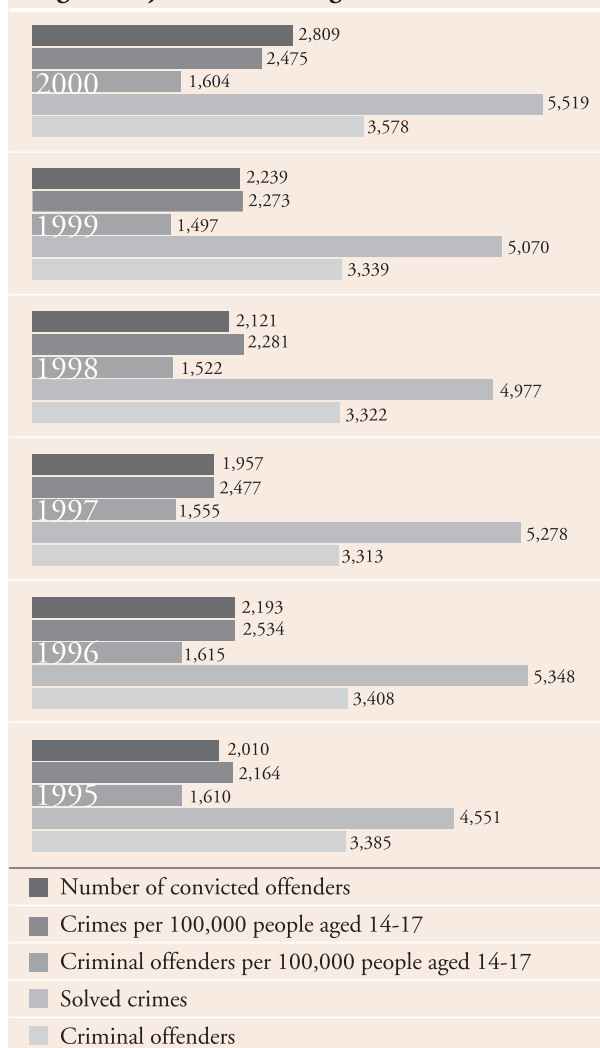
A total of 77.5% of solved crime committed by juveniles were property-related (theft, robbery and property extortion). Almost two-thirds of juvenile offenders acted in groups.

Each year approximately 1,000-1,200 minors break the law. However, they do not fall under criminal responsibility as they have not reached the age (14) for criminal prosecution. This is why older juveniles and adults are engaging minors in

³See K. Alešiūnaitė, A. Dapšys, [...]. Tarptautinis nusikaltimų aukų tyrimas Lietuvoje (Vilnius, 2000). Teisės problemos 2001. No. 2. p. 21-37.

⁴Decision of the Seimas of the Republic of Lithuania of 27 June 1996: On the State Youth Policy Concept ("Valstybės žinios", 10 July 1996, No. 65, Publication No. 1537).

Registered juvenile crime, aged 14-17



criminal activity more and more often (although in such cases they are held accountable as the perpetrators of the crime themselves according to the Criminal Code).

A minor who has committed an offence can be sent to a special correctional or care establishment on the grounds of data provided by the police. The existing procedure, when a child can be deprived of liberty on the grounds of an executive au-

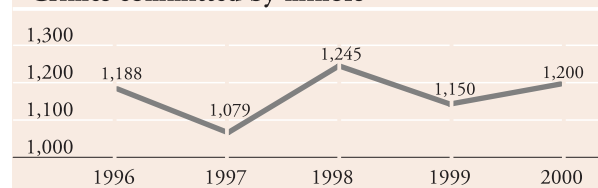
thority decision but not the court's, clearly violates the rights of the child declared in the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania and the European Convention of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms. Despite that, this procedure was established albeit as provisional and temporary, and has been in force already for seven years. A regional report prepared by the UNICEF Research Centre on the situation of children indicates that Lithuania is likely to be the only country in Central and Eastern Europe where children can be detained in specialised educational establishments upon the decision of the Children Rights' Protection Agency and a school.⁵

Trends in juvenile delinquency. The following trends in registered juvenile delinquency were noted between 1999 and 2000:

- the number of juveniles accused of a crime and convicted, as well as the number and the rate of crime committed by juveniles, have increased; this trend also stayed its course for the first six months of 2001;
- more crimes have been solved that were committed by: repeat offenders (by 33.3%); groups of offenders (9.4%), including crimes committed by groups including adults (55.7%); and offenders under the influence of alcohol (16.5%) or illegal narcotic substances (90.9%), or by drug addicts (52.4%). The number of crimes committed by drug addicts leapt up by 130% during the first six months of 2001.
- the number of solved crimes that were committed by juveniles who dropped out of school rose from 5% to 33%. Crimes committed by pupils were up 13.2%, and crimes committed by pupils of secondary schools were up 33.7%. These

⁵ UNICEF (2000), "Young People in Changing Societies". Regional Monitoring Reports, No. 7. Florence: UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, p. 100.

Crimes committed by minors

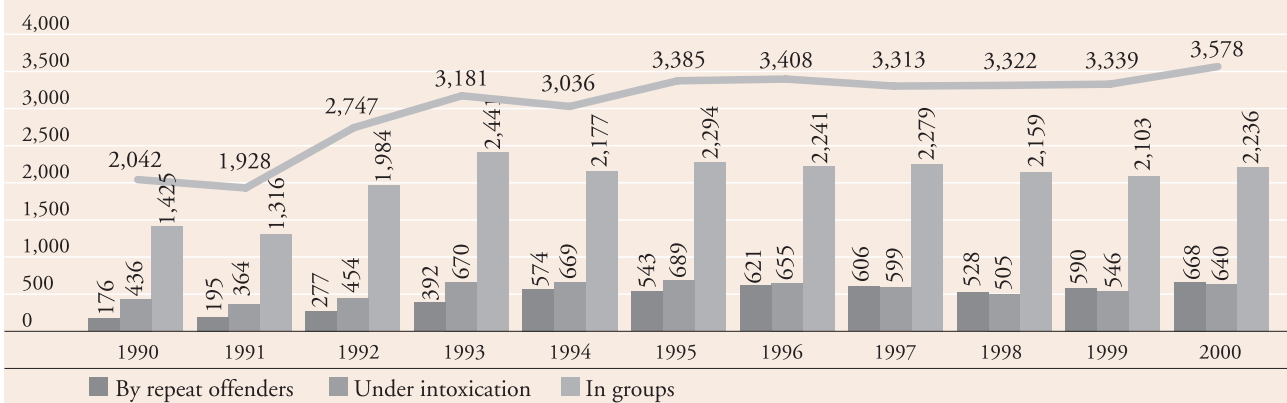


Crimes committed by under-age

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001(06)*
Total	2,506	2,702	3,555	4,297	4,433	4,551	5,348	5,278	4,977	5,070	5,519	3,069
Premeditated murder (including attempted)	2	7	11	14	22	30	28	27	23	20	23	15
Premeditated serious bodily harm	9	3	3	13	12	12	15	16	16	15	17	19
Rape (including attempted)	40	26	22	29	28	33	29	16	21	28	27	13
Robbery	46	37	47	89	123	286	296	347	333	361	363	225
Theft	1,643	1,963	2,702	3,330	3,157	3,455	3,736	3,539	3,383	3,414	3,869	2,082
Hooliganism	164	100	146	137	216	389	432	420	350	362	349	188
Crimes committed by those who neither study or work					2,666	2,945	3,125	2,711	2,702	3,003	1,534	

* By June 2001

Juveniles who committed crimes



The issue of age in criminal responsibility. Establishing a minimum age for criminal responsibility is hotly debated in society, particularly when minors commit a large number of crimes or when the mass media exaggerate juvenile criminality. The new Criminal Code of the Republic of Lithuania (adopted on 26 September 2000), which comes into force no earlier than 2003, in fact refers to the same threshold age of criminal responsibility as provided in the existing Code. So people older than 16 years can be responsible for any crime committed and people aged above 14 years are held responsible only for serious crimes.

The minimum age of criminal responsibility depends on a number of historical, cultural, religious and economic factors, as well as the legal and penal systems of the country. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child obliges countries to establish a minimum age below which children cannot be considered as having the ability to infringe the penal law. The 1985 UN Standard Minimum Rules for the Administration of Juvenile Justice (the Beijing Rules) state that “the beginning of that age shall not be fixed at too low an age level, bearing in mind the facts of emotional, mental and intellectual maturity.” The UN Committee on the Rights of the Child, which carries out monitoring of the implementation of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child, considers that the limit of 10 years is too low for criminal responsibility despite the fact that this or a lower limit has been enforced in some industrialised countries.

Although minors commit a considerable number of crimes in Lithuania that would make them subject to punishment, establishing a lower limit of criminal responsibility would be a mistake that may lead to growth in repeat offending. Juveniles who have committed a crime are subject to punishment that is totally ineffective, as is the overall system of correctional measures in Lithuania. This situation preconditions the steady rise of criminality in juveniles. Even in those countries where criminal responsibility is set at a relatively low age (in Ireland and Switzerland from 7 years of age, in England from 10

years, in the Netherlands from 12 years), minors who have committed a crime are subject to a qualitatively different system of punishments and correctional measures.

Minimum age of criminal responsibility in Europe and the CIS

Country	Age of criminal responsibility	Age for optional/mandatory administration of criminal responsibility set with regard to adults
Austria	14	19
Belgium	16***/18	16/18
Czech Republic	15	18
Denmark*	15	15/18/21
Estonia	13****/15	18
Finland	15	15/18
France	13	18
Germany	14	18/21
Greece	13	18/21
Hungary	14	18
Ireland	7/15**	18
Italy	14	18/21
Latvia	14****/16	14/16
Lithuania	14****/16	14/16
The Netherlands	12	16/18/21
Norway*	15	18
Poland	13	15/17/18
Russia	14****/16	14/16
Spain	16	16
Sweden*	15	15/18/21
Switzerland	7/15**	15/18
Turkey	11	15

Data according to: Dünkel.F./Kalmthout.A./Schüler.H. Entwicklungstendenzen und Reformstrategien im Jugendstrafrecht im europäischen Vergleich. Mönchengladbach, 1997. S. 583 and UNICEF (2000), “Young People in Changing Societies”. Regional Monitoring Reports, No. 7. Florence: UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre. p. 86.

* only exceptions provided in general criminal law

** criminal responsibility - deprivation of liberty

*** only for violation of traffic rules

**** only for certain particularly serious crime

trends remained throughout 2001. The fact that pupils commit an increasing number of crimes leads to the premise that a growing number of children of school age are listed at school but do not attend it, while in criminal statistics this group is identified as pupils.

- violent crime, which causes a particularly negative reaction in society, accounts for 1.2% of total juvenile crime. Sociological surveys, meanwhile, show that the media offer a disproportionate number of descriptions of violent crimes by juveniles in comparison to other crimes⁶. Since 1995, the number of these crimes has not been increasing and remains fairly stable (23 in 2001⁷). During the first six months of 2001 juveniles were more often accused of serious bodily harm (19) than throughout 2000 (17).

Registered juvenile crime is increasing in almost all the countries of Central and Eastern Europe and the CIS. This is predetermined by a set of reasons:

- *Change in societal values.* In times of abrupt and deep social change and instability society adjusts itself to the new reality by challenging those social values that were previously prevalent. This process undoubtedly directly or indirectly affects young people. Sociological surveys reveal that societal values are still in a state of flux. Negative attitudes to political and law and order institutions are common. Many people are not satisfied with their lives and do not know how to change them. Crimes against state, such as tax evasion and bribery, are not considered an offence by a considerable part of society. Bribery is justified by 67% of respondents.⁸

- *Global influences play a role.* International drug-related crime influences the growth of similar crime in Lithuania. This trend is clear in all the countries of Central and Eastern Europe.

Features of juvenile crime. In 2000, people aged 18-29 constituted 47% of all people accused of crimes committed in Lithuania, although this group made up only 17% of the population. From the age group of 18-24, which makes up 10% of the total population, the number of those accused of theft was much larger than that within the age group of 30 and older (4,422 and 3,338, respectively). Moreover, this group accounts for half of all offenders of robbery and hooliganism (598 out of 1,384 and 800 out of 1,834, respectively). The general crime rate in the country increases due to the increase in the rate of solved crimes committed by young people.

While crimes committed by people who do not work or attend school continue to grow, crimes committed by those who do fell dramatically from 6,964 (56% of total crime) to 1,304 (5%) in 1990 and 2000. This leads to the conclusion that a lack of something to do is an important factor that influences criminal behaviour.

Children and young people as victims of crime. Children and young people constitute the biggest proportion not only

of the perpetrators of crime but also its victims. This has been revealed by both criminological surveys in other countries and crime victim surveys in Lithuania. Regular statistics on crime victims have until this point not been collected in Lithuania. In 1998 a 'statistical crime victim card' aimed at the accumulation of information on crime victims was developed at the Ministry of the Interior. Its launch was planned for 1999, but the card has not yet been implemented.⁹

Criminological research led to the conclusion that children who fell victim to crime tended to commit a crime later, particularly those who experienced physical violence and sexual abuse. Sociological surveys of children and parents in Lithuania reveal that a large number of very young children experience the violence of adults (approximately half of them). This has attracted the attention of the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child, which was concerned about the physical punishment of children that has become widespread in families and institutions and which society itself tolerates. The committee is concerned by the fact that there is no sufficient information available on the issue."¹¹

The sexual abuse of children, which causes a particularly negative effect on their personalities, is a very latent phenomenon. A very small number of sexual crimes against children are registered in Lithuania in comparison to countries in Western Europe. So a hypothesis may be raised that, along with the fact that there may be more such crime in the West, the protection of children's rights and law enforcement systems func-

⁶A. Dobryninas. *Nepilnamečių justicija Lietuvos žiniasklaidoje*. Lithuanian Centre for Human Rights. Vilnius: 2000. p. 37.

⁷In Lithuania, 12 crimes of this type per 100,000 juveniles in comparison to seven in Germany (1993), and 52 in the USA (in 1993). (Cf. Walter. M. *Jugendkriminalität*. Stuttgart: 1995. S. 140 and UNICEF (2000), "Young People in Changing Societies". Regional Monitoring Reports, No. 7. Florence: UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, p. 90).

⁸Cf. "Lietuvos rytas" daily. 18 November 2000, No. 271, p. 7.

⁹More information is available at the CCPL web site: http://www.nplc.lt/stat/auk/auk1_kort1.htm

¹¹Conclusions by the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child on the inception report of the Republic of Lithuania. UNICEF/Ministry of Social Security and Labour: 2001.

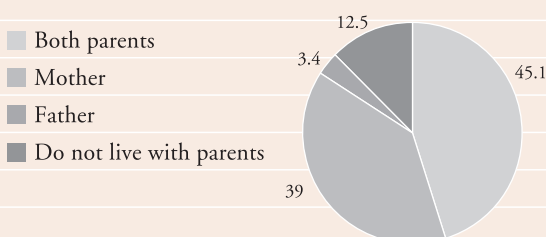
In June 2001, UNICEF conducted a sociological survey of children aged 9-17 in Central and Eastern Europe and the CIS. In Lithuania, out of 400 respondents polled, 5% indicated that their relationship with their parents was bad or very bad; 8% had no parents; 64% suffered violence at home or said that their family members or friends were victims of crime; 10% were victims of crime themselves; and 43% of respondents wanted to live in another country.

UNICEF. Young Voices. The CEE, CIS and the Baltic states. Subregional report. June 2001.

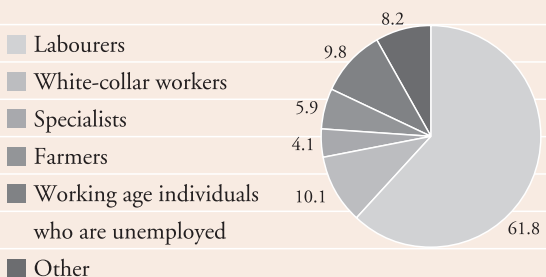
In 2000, an analysis of data obtained from a survey of how children spend their time and crime levels conducted between 1997 and 1998 was completed. The survey was initiated by the Police Department under the Ministry of the Interior, the Children Rights Protection Agency under the Ministry of Social Security and Labour and the Institute of Law. The survey was aimed at accumulating information on children who were not occupied and who committed crimes, and finding out the causes and circumstances of these negative phenomena.

Analysis of the survey data showed that 54.9% of respondents live in incomplete families or without both parents. The majority of the parents of the interviewed children are either labourers or farmers, or do not work at all. A third (33.4%) of the families of the interviewed children have three or more children.¹⁰

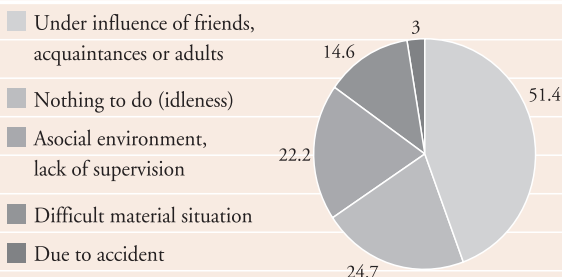
Household composition of respondents, %



Parents' occupations, %



Causes of crime, %



tion much more effectively there. Moreover, Western society is better informed about this phenomenon and more readily takes measures against it. For instance, in 2000 there were 36

incidents of sexual exploitation of under-aged people registered in Lithuania. In Germany¹² by comparison, in 1997, 16,888¹³ similar crimes were registered.

The young criminal offenders often become victimised themselves. This is especially characteristic of violent crimes that are frequently related to the aggressive behaviour of both the perpetrator and the victim.

Correctional measures and the punishment of juveniles.

In 2000, 47% of all convicted people were imprisoned. For 33.7% punishment was delayed, 2.4% were fined, and 14% were released (mainly due to amnesties). According to criminological studies, imprisonment may influence the rise in repeat crime. Attempts to improve penal practice by the application of amnesty to resolve the problem of overcrowded confinement institutions often cause a negative effect. This happens because a considerable proportion of released convicts do not receive the assistance necessary for social integration and go on to commit crime again.

A large proportion of the convicts are young people, mainly young men who spend four or five years in confinement on average. They often fail to get an education or employment, develop social relationships or create a family. Obviously, most of them will join the ranks of the unemployed and socially excluded people unable to adjust themselves to the changing socio-economic environment and may commit a crime again.

In 2000, almost 1,000 juveniles (35%) received prison sentences in Lithuania. According to the data of Kaunas Correctional Labour Colony, the average sentence imposed by the court to the juveniles who were confined there in 2000 was three years and three months, while actual average imprisonment extended only to eight months.¹⁴ Most often, juveniles are sentenced to imprisonment for between one and five years. Maintenance for a convict at the Kaunas Pre-Trial Detention Establishment for Juveniles/Corrective Labour Colony costs 2,500 LTL per month. Perhaps some juveniles, particularly those who have committed minor property-related crimes or who have been committed for the first time, should not be sentenced to imprisonment at all.

The excessive application of imprisonment violates the provisions of the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, as well as the principles of criminal policy for children

¹⁰For more information see "Vaikų ir jaunimo neužimtumo ir nusikaltimų prevencija." Centre for Crime Prevention in Lithuania (CCPL). Vilnius: 2000.

¹²Bundeskriminalamt, 1997

¹³Noted here is the fact that in Germany, as in many other countries in Western Europe, there are many more defined types of sexual crimes against children.

¹⁴Materials of the conference "Specifinės nusikaltusių nepilnamečių socialinės adaptacijos problemos". Kaunas: 19 April 2001. Compiled by Kaunas Pre-Trial Detention Establishment for Juveniles/Correctional Labour Colony.

In October 1999, an educational and public information campaign within the framework of the Juvenile Justice Programme was launched, and the Lithuanian Centre for Human Rights initiated a complex sociological survey that primarily aimed at analysing how the Lithuanian mass media, first of all the press and television, presented the problems of juvenile criminal justice and what effect it had on society. One of the goals of the survey was also to establish the scope of violent information broadcast by television channels in Lithuania, which could have a negative effect on juveniles and stimulate unlawful activity.

The distribution of violent scenes in terms of number and duration in the films broadcast through the Lithuanian television channels was as follows:

Analysis of the survey data revealed that each channel has its own 'violence grid' of entertainment films. Most violent scenes were in films broadcast by BTV that were shown from 9 p.m. to 9.30 p.m. (both on weekdays and weekends); LNK from 9 p.m. to 9.30 p.m. and 10 p.m. to 10.30 p.m. on weekdays and from 11 p.m. to 11.30 p.m. at weekends;

TV3 from 8.30 p.m. to 9 p.m. and 10 p.m. to 10.30 p.m. on weekdays and from 5.30 p.m. to 6 p.m. at weekends; and LTV from 10 p.m. to 10.30 p.m. on weekdays and from 10.30 p.m. to 11 p.m. on weekends. Taking into account that the period from 7 p.m. to 9.30 p.m. is prime-time, it is not difficult to establish that out of the listed channels only LTV consciously or unconsciously tried to protect its audience from the wave of virtual violence.

It is evident that scenes of a violent nature appear during the most watched periods. Consequently, they can potentially influence those social groups that are constant viewers of television and whose socialisation habits are in the process of development. Considering that juveniles also fall under this social group, the author of the survey raises a hypothesis about the negative influence of Lithuanian TV channels on juveniles, although he notes that the imitation of violent acts by juvenile viewers that result from intensive virtual violence in TV films must also be investigated.

From A. Dobryninas. Nepilnamečių justicija Lietuvos žiniasklaidoje. Lithuanian Centre for Human Rights. Vilnius: 2000. p. 37.

TV channel	Share of violent scenes in all films broadcast, %		Duration of violent scenes in total duration of films broadcast, %	
	weekdays	weekends	weekdays	weekends
TV 3	3.4	5.0	0.7	0.9
LNK	6.3	11.3	0.9	2.1
LTV	2.0	3.0	0.5	0.4
BTV	9.8	23.8	1.2	1.8

TV channel	Use of weapon	Fights	Torture	Sexual violence	Explosions	Murders
TV 3	528	389	75	12	46	86
LNK	1,197	603	216	23	138	167
LTV	125	88	4	5	7	39
BTV	2,054	1,148	179	39	201	327

and young people in the European Union member states. In Lithuania the excessive application of prison sentences to juveniles is mostly preconditioned by legal and administrative factors rather than by any increase in juvenile crime or its patterns. There is no system of effective correctional measures alternative to imprisonment that has long and successfully been applied in developed countries (like public works, probation, different forms of care, social training, procedures for reconciliation between perpetrator and victim). The new Criminal Code opens up greater possibilities for the administration of alternative correctional measures. However, organisational decisions and means

In 2000, people aged 18-29 constituted 47% of all people accused of crimes committed in Lithuania, although this group made up only 17% of the population.

are insufficient to apply them in practice.

As juveniles reach the age of 18, they are transferred to the adult penitentiary system (since 1995 almost half of convicted juveniles annually), which allows them to continue pursuing their criminal 'careers'. Such a practice is not conducive to the education and social integration of juveniles into society and contradicts EU practice

where confinement establishments for juveniles pursue a targeted education and social integration and where the confined juveniles serve their entire sentences. For example, in Austria young people aged up to 27 are confined in juvenile confinement institutions until their sentences are over.

Juvenile crime prevention. One of the key programmes for child and youth crime prevention is the National Programme for Child and Juvenile Delinquency Prevention, which was approved by the government in 1997. However, its budget funding has steadily decreased year by year, i.e., from 5,851,000 LTL in 1998 to 950,000 LTL in 2001.¹⁵

Out of 1,001 respondents of a sociological survey conducted within the framework of the Juvenile Justice Programme, 87% noted that attention by Lithuanian society to juvenile problems is insufficient; in the opinion of 43%, the key cause of juvenile delinquency is the difficult socio-economic situation in the country; 30% noted that the most efficient measure for cutting the levels of juvenile delinquency is to improve the socio-economic situation in the country; 34% said that tightening penalties for juveniles is likely to be an ineffective measure.¹⁶

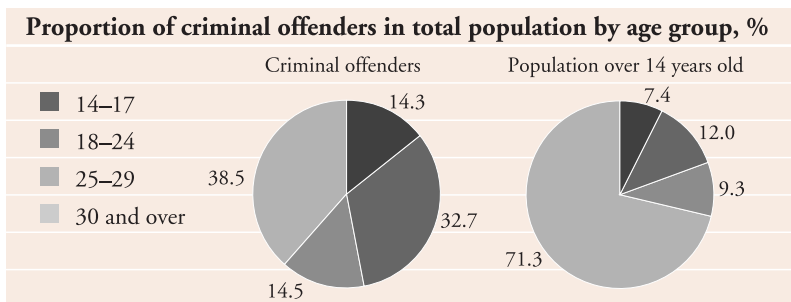
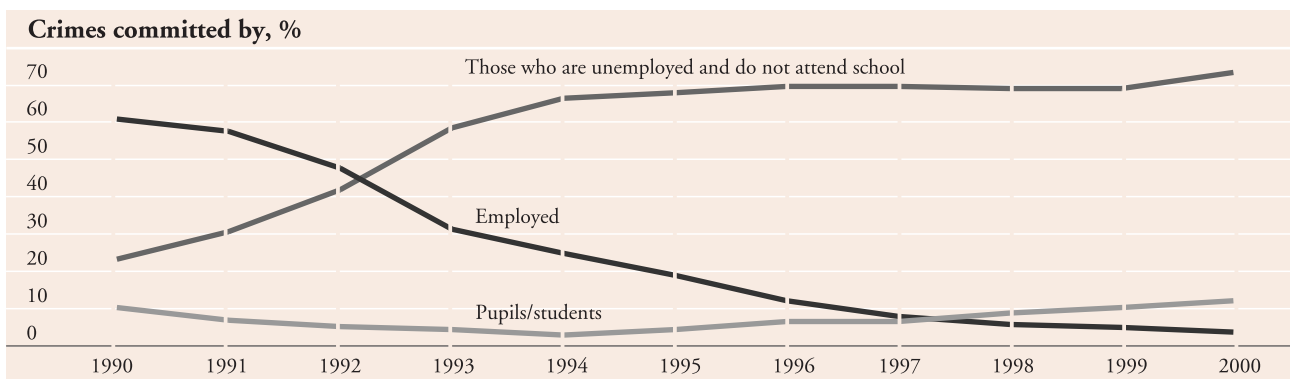
Children and young people constitute the biggest proportion not only of the perpetrators of crime but also its victims.

In 2000, 47% of all convicted people were imprisoned.

and 58% of pupils as the prime cause of crime. A total of 29% of the offenders and 22% of the pupils finished the sentence “I wish my father did not...” with the word “drink”. Physical punishment was inflicted on 54% of the offenders.

Two thirds of the offenders could not say anything good about their schools, but only 17% of the current pupils shared this view; 87% of the pupils and 35% of the offenders indicated that they had never played truant or missed their classes even on a rare occasion. Almost two-thirds of the offenders were often absentees or did not attend school at all. Meanwhile, 52% of the offenders and 13% of the pupils indicated that they had tried drugs.

A total of 73% of the pupils noted that they were happy with their lives and that they did not want to change them, while 65% of the offenders said they would like to change lives and



In the process of the implementation of the Juvenile Justice Programme, the Lithuanian Centre for Human Rights initiated a survey of psycho-social characteristics of juveniles who have committed serious crimes. This survey was aimed at finding out what circumstances could serve as “preventive” factors. The survey was conducted in two groups: juvenile offenders from Kaunas Juvenile Prison/Correctional Labour Colony and pupils from the secondary schools of Vilnius.

A lack of social contact was specified by 74% of offenders

82% of them did not exclude the probability that they would either return to the colony or to prison. Half of the offenders stated that they would find it difficult to adjust to life when released from the colony.

Referring to the crimes they had committed, the juveniles often stated that they were pushed into crime because they needed money (63%). They placed the responsibility for the crime on themselves (70%), shared their guilt with friends or the victim, or dismissed it as the result of alcoholic intoxication (30%).¹⁷

¹⁵“Vaikų ir paauglių nusikalstamumo prevencijos nacionalinės programos vykdymas”. The service for the co-ordination of socio-economic programmes at the Ministry of Education and Science of the Republic of Lithuania. Vilnius: 2000, p. 43.

¹⁶A. Dobryninas. Nepilnamečių justicija Lietuvos žiniasklaidoje. Lithuanian Centre for Human Rights. Vilnius: 2000, p. 57-60.

¹⁷Nepilnamečiai, padarę sunkius nusikaltimus: psichologiniai ir socialiniai ypatumai. The Lithuanian Centre for Human Rights. Vilnius: 2000.

According to data from 1 March 2001 by the Prisons Department under the Ministry of Justice, out of 186 juveniles detained at the Kaunas Pre-Trial Detention Establishment for Juveniles/Correctional Labour Colony, 5.9% were drug addicts, 17.2% had mental disorders, 3.2% had no education, and only 14.7% were actually employed.

Juvenile criminal justice reform in Lithuania. Since 1998, Lithuania has been in the process of implementing reform in the juvenile criminal justice system. The 1998 resolution of the government on the reform's guidelines, its legal framework and implementation approved new principles for the legal system.¹⁸

The common goal of the juvenile criminal justice reform was to cut back on repeat crime among juveniles by setting up a humane and efficient juvenile criminal justice system. The programme also aimed at improving the legal framework regulating juvenile justice. According to the programme, juvenile (family) courts and a network of special departments within the criminal police and the Prosecutor's Office will be established.

The programme seeks to establish a consistent juvenile criminal justice strategy based on respect for human rights and emphasising correction, rehabilitation and social inclusion for offenders. Introducing alternative measures to imprisonment is reforming the system of penalties applicable to juvenile offenders.

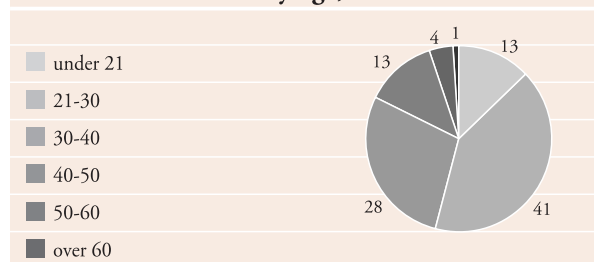
Additional goals of the programme include establishing conditions for the co-operation of non-governmental organisations and enhancing the role of Children's Rights Protection Agencies within the juvenile criminal justice system. Building a civil society has always been an important precondition in changing the approach of society towards the offender and the work of law enforcement institutions in establishing and implementing alternatives to imprisonment. Attention should be paid to the fact that most of society learns about crime as a phenom-

Since 1998, Lithuania has been in the process of implementing reform in the juvenile criminal justice system.

A large proportion of convicts are young people, mainly young men.

The common goal of the juvenile criminal justice reform was to cut back on repeat crime among juveniles by setting up a humane and efficient juvenile criminal justice system.

Convicted offenders by age, %



enon from the mass media, which in turn shapes public opinion (and rarely informs the public about crime objectively or analyses it more deeply), as those who have never dealt with law enforcement institutions have less trust in them than those who

have appealed to them. However, it is evident that the promotion of non-governmental organisations and co-operation with them – including the implementation of measures of punishment – could bring positive results within a few years.

The programme has been implemented for two years; a considerable amount of research was conducted to become the basis for concrete reform; specialist training is underway, and so is a public information campaign.¹⁹ The Juvenile Justice Programme

is only one of numerous programmes that have been successfully implemented and based on inter-departmental co-operation and responsibility. It was positively evaluated by the committee of experts dealing with juvenile justice in the Council of Europe,²⁰ as well as the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child, by emphasising that it “positively evaluates the reform of juvenile criminal justice, which aims to decrease juvenile crime, the implementation of which inspired the juvenile justice programme.”²¹ The key problems in implementing this programme are its further financing, which will be undertaken by the Government of the Republic of Lithuania from 2002, and administration, which is related to changes in the composition of the steering committee.

¹⁸“Valstybės žinios,” 8 July 1998, No. 61-1736.

¹⁹For more information on the programme and its implementation, see the website at www.nplc.lt/nj

²⁰European Committee on the Problems of Crime/Committee of Experts on New Ways of Dealing with Juvenile Delinquency and the Role of Juvenile Justice (PC-JU).

²¹Conclusions by the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child on the inception report of the Republic of Lithuania. UNICEF/Ministry of Social Security and Labour: 2001.

Correctional measures and punishments imposed on juvenile convicts, %

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Release from punishment	28.9	46.9	41.2	31.4	22.2	35.1
Delayed punishment	0.7	0.7	1.6	1	0.7	0.0
Fine	1.3	6.2	6.1	3.5	0.5	0.6
Correctional works	67.3	37.4	46.6	62	74.6	41.7
Imprisonment	1.8	8.8	4.5	2.0	2.0	22.6

Rights of children and youth

Gintautas Sakalauskas

The rights of the child are an indispensable part of the overall system of human rights. The assurance and the implementation of the rights of the child (up to 18 years of age)¹ and young person (up to 29 years of age)², however, have specific characteristics that are important from the point of view of the well-being of society:

- Children and young people are one of the most vulnerable groups in society. During the period of intensive political, social and economic change the interest of children and young people in making decisions about resource distribution, investment and the development of infrastructure are often inadequately taken into account. Even though the rights of children are often used as tools for political contention, in reality their importance fades in the face of the grand vision of economic, financial, political, state security, foreign affairs and other 'macro-interests'. In other words, at a time when the most vulnerable groups of society are confronted with new challenges and most require attention and support, the country's political attentions are elsewhere. This attitude is not unique to Lithuania.

- Children are perhaps the only age group in society whose rights, in their content and actual implementation, completely depend on another social group - adults. From this point of view the rights of children as a component of the overall system of human rights differ, for example, from the rights of women, ethnic minority groups, prisoners, people with disabilities, and other social groups in terms of implementation. The members of the majority of these groups can represent and advocate their own rights, and reproach decision makers and society when their rights are not heeded. They can also draw on political measures to independently implement their interests. The rights of children and young people are dependent only on the understanding and 'mercy' of adults.

Children and young people are one of the most vulnerable groups in society.

Lithuania acceded to the 1989 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child on 5 January 1992.

- Guaranteeing that the rights of children and young people are met is related to the particular experience of human dignity, which if a young person has lost will not be recognised by him/her in relation to other people.

- Children and youth make up a considerable part of society (43.2% at the start of 2001). So based on the quality of life of this social group, much can be said about society as a whole and in particular its future prospects.

Guaranteeing the rights of children and young people. The rights of children and young people are consolidated in special international and national legal acts, as well as in legal acts regulating broad-based legal relations (such as civil, criminal, labour, social security and other laws).

Lithuania acceded to the 1989 United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child on 5 January 1992, and on 3 July 1995 the Seimas ratified it. At the same time, Lithuania joined the United Nations Declaration on the Rights of the Child, adopted in 1959. In March 1996 the Law on Fundamentals on Protection of the Rights of the Child was adopted. In joining the convention, Lithuania was obliged to take on all the necessary legal and administrative measures for its implementation and show respect for every child, regardless of her or his parents' or legal guardian's race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other beliefs, nationality, ethnic or social origin, health, wealth, or any other circumstances.

The main legal act that 'represents' the state's position in

¹ According to the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child, 1989

² According to a Republic of Lithuania Parliament decision regarding the concept of the state policy on young people 27 June 1996 (Valstybes Zinios "State News", 1996.07.10, No. 65, Publication No. 1537)

implementing youth policy is the concept on state policy adopted by the Seimas (Parliament) in June 1996. Its preamble emphasised that during youth, people face many problems they are not able to overcome themselves. Society through its institutions should help to address issues of concern to young people, making a positive impact on the formation of the individuality of young people and their socialisation.

Institutions responsible for implementing the rights of children and young people. In Lithuania, responsibility for the implementation of the rights of children is distributed among various institutions. In March 2001, the Children's Rights Agency at the Ministry of Social Security and Labour was abolished. Its functions were in part as-

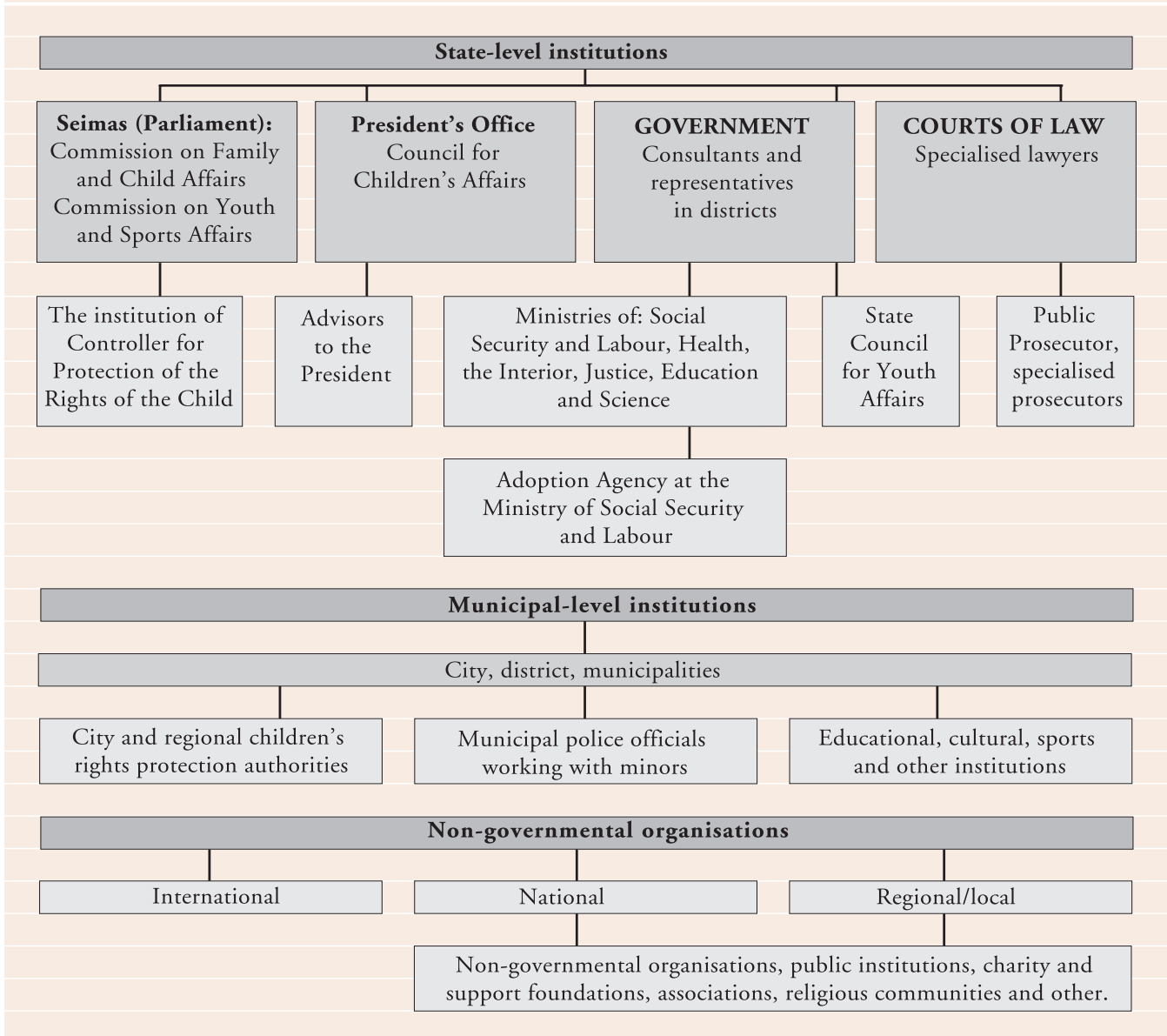
signed to departments and divisions within the ministry. Therefore, at the highest governmental level there are no institutions left that are directly responsible for the formation and implementation of children's rights policy. This came to the attention of the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child.

The newly established institution of the Controller for Protection of the Rights of the Child plays a very important role in the field of the protection of children's rights. Nevertheless, it does not and cannot formulate state policy in this field. The

main function of the Controller for Protection of the Rights of the Child is to oversee how the rights of the child are implemented throughout the country and suggest improvements,

The newly established institution of the Controller for Protection of the Rights of the Child plays a very important role in the field of the protection of children's rights.

Institutions responsible for the protection of children's and young people's rights in Lithuania



The mandate of the State Council for Youth Affairs is to implement measures to strengthen the motivation of young people and to improve their opportunities to acquire an education and find employment, and to actively participate in community life.

The main areas of activity for 2001 are:

1. Developing civil and democratic skills for young people in youth organisations - organising elections, planning organisations' activities, advocacy, constructive lobbying and other skills necessary for participation in democratic life;
2. Informal teaching of civil and social skills for young people - responsibility, initiatives, creativity, project management, teamwork and similar skills, all of which are necessary in seeking an education and searching for a job;
3. Providing social assistance - consultations and active social integration initiatives, particularly for young people with social problems (drug abuse, psychological crises and so on) are supported;
4. Support for initiatives by young people in rural areas and the expansion of leisure-time activities - additional and separately funded support to meet the needs of young people living in rural areas, as well as initiatives designed to address community needs (teaching, leisure time, cultural, sport and so on).

Adapted from the State Council for Youth Affairs website www.jaunas.lt/vrjt

of the rights of young people, however, is in fact the responsibility of many different institutions. One of the most important tasks that needs to be addressed, therefore, is to separate spheres and functions and assign responsibility to one or another institution, while at the same time ensuring a co-ordinated implementation of policy on youth affairs.

The Minister of Social Security and Labour has confirmed the composition of the State Council for Youth Affairs (term of office 2001-2003).

Fundamental rights of children and youth. Children and youth have the majority of rights that are assigned to all people irrespective of their age. Nevertheless, they also have some specific rights, which take on additional aspects and nuances. The United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child contains approximately 50 children's rights. The most important of these, which play a key role in the social development of children and youth, are: the right to life, liberty and personal security, and the right to education.

The right to life. Every person's right to life is the fundamental right upon which all other rights, freedoms and duties are based. Article 19 of the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania states that a person's right to life is safeguarded by legislation. A person's life and dignity are qualities you cannot take away from a person and therefore they cannot be discussed separately. A person's life and dignity are higher than the law. Taking this into account a person's life and dignity

are regarded as particular values. In this case, the purpose of the Constitution is to ensure the protection of and respect for these values. These requirements apply

³"Valstybės Žinios", 1998.12.11, No. 109-3004.

but not to formulate policy.

The State Council for Youth Affairs is the main institution at the governmental level responsible for the implementation of policy on youth affairs. The protection

Every person's right to life is the fundamental right upon which all other rights, freedoms and duties are based.

The Minister of Social Security and Labour has confirmed the composition of the State Council for Youth Affairs (term of office 2001-2003):

State Council for Youth Affairs (12 members)	
State sector	Non-governmental sector
Appointed by respective institutions	Elected by the Assembly of the Council of Lithuanian Youth Organisations
Ministry of Culture	Lithuanian Centrist Youth
Government of the Republic of Lithuania	Council of Lithuanian Youth Organisations
Ministry of Social Security and Labour (Chairperson)	"Žingsnis", Society of Temperance Christian Youth of Lithuania
Ministry of Education and Science	"Ateitininkų", Federation
Ministry of Justice	Lithuanian Students' Union
Ministry of the Interior	"Round Table", Council of Vilnius Youth Organisations

The representative of the institution of Controller for Protection of the Rights of the Child, Grazina Imbrasiene, was shaken by the anti-sanitary living conditions, and particularly the strict, army-like regime and the habitual abuse of children by teachers of the Čiobiškis (Širvintos region) specialised children's education and care home. The residents of this home, who have carried out petty offences, were punished by being locked up in cells or punishment rooms. Those who were punished were fed only bread and water. People with mental illnesses were placed together with other children. Children who committed severe offences and those who committed petty offences were kept together. Following her visit, the institution of Controller for Protection of the Rights of the Child encouraged the Ministry of Education and Science to ensure that the rights of children raised in specialised educational or care institutions be protected.

Children held in punishment cells receive only bread and water. "Lietuvos Rytas", 6 October 2001, No. 234.

first and foremost to the state."³

The fact that child mortality is high and that it is dominated by non-medical deaths among which violent deaths are widespread, means that the right of young people to life is not sufficiently ensured. In this respect, suicide is most indicative of faults in society to protect fundamental rights. Lithuania has one of the highest suicide rates in Europe for young people. A high suicide rate, as well as an ongoing trend for it to increase still further, is being noted in many countries throughout Europe. This trend is linked to social and psychological problems, intense competition, a lack of communication skills, and intense economic, cultural and social change. Often suicide is inspired by the immediate social environment, and a lack of assistance and support. Based on the fact that the level of suicide in Lithuania is so high, suicide prevention should be one of the priority areas for state policy on young people.

The right to education. The law on education states that education is a priority area for state support and development. Education determines the country's cultural, social and economic development. It strengthens the solidarity, tolerance

Victims of crime, up to 18 years of age, 2000

	Total	Up to 14	14 to 17	Girls	Boys
Premeditated murder (including attempted murder)	13	6	7	4	9
Premeditated serious bodily harm	11	2	9	2	9
Sexual abuse	125	57	68	114	11

One aspect of ensuring the right of children to life is related to the right to abortion. In looking at this question from the perspective of protecting the rights of the child, abortion is a violation of the right to life. Opponents of this position stress the right of the mother to decide whether or not the child should be born. In Lithuania the termination of pregnancy (abortion) is considered legal if it is carried out by a doctor in a medical institution and does not contradict certain medical requirements. One of the requirements is that the duration of pregnancy should not exceed 12 weeks. Illegal abortion can be punishable according to Article 124 of the Criminal Code. Only those responsible for implementing the abortion, as well as those who assist, are punishable. The pregnant woman is not punishable. An illegal abortion is an offence against a person's health, and highlights the protection of the health of the mother, but not the right of the new life that has just begun.⁴

Statistics indicate that over the past few years in Lithuania, out of every 100 births approximately 70 abortions are performed.

and co-operation between people and the nation. The right to education is an important factor that impacts the human development of young people and their social integration. According to the Lithuanian Constitution, education is compulsory for people up to the age of 16. But in emphasising the constitutional duty to study, the right to education is often forgotten. The state has an obligation to establish an educational system that ensures that this right is implemented and that it takes into account the different interests and needs of children. The principle of the Constitution where it is stated that it is the duty of children to study to a certain age is questionable and ineffective. Often children who drop out of school before the

⁴For more information refer to G. Sakalauskas. Protection of Children's Rights in Lithuania. Vilnius 2000. p. 10-13.

Victims of road accidents, up to 18 years of age

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Fatalities	73	67	44	59	71	54

Suicide among children and young people

	Males		Females	
	10-17	18-29	10-17	18-29
1993	20	196	5	26
1994	17	225	11	30
1995	23	211	9	29
1996	23	223	6	24
1997	20	236	6	24
1998	13	205	12	21
1999	23	222	9	26
2000	18	214	14	25
Per 100,000 population				
1993	9.3	56.0	2.4	7.8
1994	7.9	65.3	5.3	9.1
1995	10.5	62.1	4.3	8.9
1996	10.3	66.4	2.8	7.4
1997	8.8	71.0	2.7	7.5
1998	5.7	62.1	5.4	6.6
1999	9.9	67.6	4.0	8.2
2000	7.7	65.6	6.2	7.9

age of 16 are no more subject to compulsory education when they become older than 16 despite the fact that they have not got any education. This duty should rather be linked to the actual acquisition of some level of education (for example, basic education) rather than to a certain age.

It is also important that education be a real value for society, accessible to everyone regardless of social or economic position. Sociological research initiated by the State Council for Youth Affairs and the Council for Lithuanian Youth Organisations in 2000 indicated that 93.4% of young people regarded education as being very important, and financial well-being was valued at 99%.⁵ After international research was carried out by UNICEF in 2000, it became clear from the responses to the question, "What is necessary to be successful?" that young people from Western Europe more frequently linked success to education. Young people from Eastern Europe (including Lithuania) linked success to contacts with important or influential people.⁶ This type of attitude diminishes the importance of education, and is more likely to be conducive to corruption.

The education system should bring up not only educated, but also free and democratic individuals. In other words, education should not only give knowledge. It should also empower young people. The advantages and disadvantages of education reform are difficult to evaluate now, but should become clearer in the immediate decade.

⁵ Refer to LIJOT Internet Website: http://www.lijot.lt/tyrimai_vertybes.htm
⁶ UNICEF (2000), "Young People in Changing Societies" Regional Monitoring Reports, No. 7. Florence. UNICEF Innocenti Research Centre, p. 42

The right to work. The aforementioned sociological survey revealed that 93.6% of young people valued the importance of work. More than half of employed respondents did not work according to their profession, however. More than 50% stated that the most realistic means of getting a job was through friends or relatives, or with the assistance of acquaintances and contacts. In the opinion of respondents, in wanting to secure a good job the most important factors were an education and contacts. The majority of employers stated that the most important criterion when selecting employees was competence, which was also indicated by 10% of young people. The absolute majority of young people would agree to move to another location if there were better employment opportunities there.⁷

It is probably not possible to overrate the importance of employment for human development in modern society. Its importance goes far beyond a source of living or supporting the family. It covers social relationships, possibilities for self-realisation, psychological comfort and many other factors. The right of youth to work has certain features. On the one hand, education and the development of skills should empower them with the knowledge and abilities necessary to engage in fulfilling a professional career. On the other, it is necessary to protect children from early work, which could harm their education and health. The UN Convention on the Rights of the Child ensures the right to be protected from exploitation and from being used in any type of work that could be dangerous from a physical, mental, moral or social perspective, or could become an obstacle to education.

Employment for young people is an important precondition for successful integration into society. It is alarming that in Lithuania, as in the majority of other countries, the level of unemployment among young people is higher than the national average. Unemployment usually affects young people more strongly and deeply than older people, who already have work experience.

In the field of the protection of children's rights, of particular importance is the complex of rights related to violence against children that is stipulated by the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. This includes the right to be protected against all forms of exploitation that can damage the well-being of a child, and the right to not experience torture or other cruel, brutal, inhumane behaviour and punishment. Children and young people also have the right to both physical and mental health assistance in recovering from the consequences of any type of neglect, exploitation and violence.

Implementation of the UN Convention on the Right of the Child: lessons learnt⁸. In January 2001, the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child presented its conclusions regarding the implementation of the principles of the UN Convention. The opinion of an authoritative and independent international institution on the current situation in the

field of children's rights is valuable since it presents an unbiased, competent and internationally compatible assessment. However, the committee expressed concern that there is a lack of systematic and comprehensive statistical data on children that could allow for the evaluation and monitoring of the implementation of children's rights.

The committee considered the adoption of new legislation that is more focused on the problems that face children and young people, an important achievement in the field of ensuring their rights. In July 2000, the Civil Code was adapted with a separate book, "The Rights of the Family". In September 2000, the Criminal Code, which contains a separate paragraph that foresees criminal responsibility for crimes against minors was adopted. In May 2000, legislation on the institution of Controller for Protection of the Rights of the Child was adopted. The committee also positively evaluated the fact that at the President's Office a Council for Children's Affairs was established, whose job it is to inform and advise the President about various institutions concerned with the rights of children and their activities. The committee particularly appreciated the creation of a Lithuanian School Students' Parliament in 2000. In the same year, the 'Year of Youth' was declared in Lithuania.

However, the committee acknowledges that the transition to a market economy is negatively affecting certain segments of society - mostly families raising children. This was one of the main reasons hampering the implementation of the principles of the UN Convention on the Right of the Child. The following problems were identified as those that should be at the focus of society's attention, which need targeted policy measures from the state:

- state budget funds allocated to policy in the field of children's rights are not based on clear principles or procedures. The priorities and targets of policy on children, both in state and local budgets, should clearly be defined, so it is possible to properly analyse the use of funds and their impact on the well-being of children;
- the physical punishment of children in both families and institutions is widespread and society tolerates it. Children are not sufficiently protected against the increased incidence of abuse, violence and pornography on television, video, the Internet and other sources of information;
- large numbers of foster children live in children's homes and institutions, and relatively few of them are cared for in

Unemployment usually affects young people more strongly and deeply than older people, who already have work experience.

families, which due to economic difficulties and insufficient support from the state cannot guarantee necessary care. Many children are adopted by families from foreign countries, and for some of them security is not guaranteed;

- morbidity among children is high, and the incidence of tuberculosis causes particular concern. A large number of children die as a result of trauma or accidents, in particular road accidents. The large number of suicides among children and young people in Lithuania is also reason for concern. Children with disabilities living in rural areas do not have access to the

same level of health care services and medication as children living in other locations do;

- in the past few years the number of children and young people using narcotics has increased.

The committee further encourages the reform of national legislation so that the legal system conforms to the principles of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child. It stipulates

Over the last few years, a negative trend has emerged in the mass media - to advertise information that might be harmful to children and teenagers' ethical, moral and spiritual development. For example, in the event of a child or teenage suicide, the media use sensation for publicity. Tragic events are often reported in great detail, with surnames and intimate descriptions of the family situation, and the words of children are cited including their reactions to the tragedy. In some newspapers, and also on television programmes, people - sometimes minors - who are suspected of committing crimes are portrayed as criminals whose guilt is unquestionable. This is based on information received from police during the investigation, long before any trial. Often, without waiting for the end of an investigation or a trial, there is a rush to present sensational data about crimes committed by suspected minors. Information is published about the health of the children and their parents. More and more often we are seeing interviews in the press and on television where children are questioned about private information about their parents and teachers. Unfortunately, nobody takes into account the potential harm to the child's or teenager's psychological state and the negative impact on his or her life in the future.

Decision no. 5 of the Journalists' Ethics Inspector regarding the rights of children and teenagers, as well as the protection of their legal interests from harmful mental, ethical and moral developments through the use of different types of media, 22 May 2001.

⁷ Refer to LIJOT website: http://www.lijot.lt/-tyrimai_vertybes.htm

⁸ The conclusions of the United Nations Committee on the Rights of the Child, UNICEF/Ministry of Social Security and Labour, 2001.

that the government should be the central institution responsible for issues pertaining to children. Both at the national and local levels there is a lack of mechanisms that can co-ordinate policy relating to children's issues, which would be responsible for ensuring the implementation of the Convention.

Main challenges for the protection of the rights of children and young people.

It is essential to develop an effective system for the protection of children's and young persons' rights and one that would ensure the implementation of these rights.

First of all, the institutional structure of the system for the protection of children's rights is not sufficiently effective. At the governmental level there are no institutions that formulate, implement and co-ordinate policy on such

rights. Many institutions involved in activities related to the rights of children and young people are not sufficiently funded to carry out their tasks. There is also a shortage of professionals in the field.

There is a lack of legislation that clearly defines the specific tools, measures and forms of support of the state in implementing policy on youth.

Overall state social policy on the protection of children's rights is not sufficiently balanced. This is particularly the case when talking about balance and co-ordination between social assistance for children being raised in families and for those being raised by guardians, and when speaking about the type and forms of care and the issue of adoption.

There is a lack of legislation that clearly defines the specific tools, measures and forms of support of the state in implementing policy on children and young people.

Conclusions

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“Young people are the future of society and the state.” This widely used phrase contains a very strong message and merits serious consideration. A state that does not provide young people with essential human development choices or support them on their way to adulthood will inevitably face socio-economic problems in the future. Despite varying economic, cultural and social contexts, young people all over Europe face common problems and challenges. The most important of these are job insecurity, inaccessibility to education in the broadest sense, a lack of participation and empowerment, the prevalence of extremism and crime. Most youth-related problems are deeply rooted in societal and intergenerational relations and in the transition from education and training to the labour market. Young Lithuanians, a majority of whom associate Europe with their future, in addition to the common problems they share with their contemporaries in the EU, are facing difficulties common to any transitional society and economy. For example, in the opinion of the UN Committee on the Rights of the Child, one of the main obstacles to the implementation of the principles of the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in Lithuania was socio-economic change related to market reforms and economic restructuring.

Objectively the Lithuanian economy is giving fewer opportunities for a sustainable livelihood for young people compared to the economies of the countries of the EU. In Lithuania GDP per capita had barely reached 35% of the EU average by 2000. If Lithuania has succeeded in building a market economy, it still lags behind EU countries in transition to a ‘knowledge economy’ and investment in social capital. For example, in 2000, funds allocated to health care stood at 4.4% of GDP, which is half the EU average. In Lithuania research- and technology-intensive industry is responsible for 5.9% of the total value added produced in industry, while in the EU it exceeds 20%. While in the EU youth employment in agriculture does not exceed 3%, in Lithuania 17.3% of the young labour force works in agri-

culture. So the demand for highly skilled labour, which is extremely valuable for young people - and consequently the demand for quality education - is insufficient. Expenditure on education in Lithuania was 6.64% of GDP in 2000, lagging behind Poland and Latvia (above 7% of GDP). Numerous sociological surveys have revealed that more than half of young respondents have the intention to emigrate or seek employment abroad.

In 2000, the Lithuanian economy overcame the impact of the Russian crisis. However, economic growth had no noticeable positive effect on the average standard of living of the population. In fact, monthly disposable income per household member in 2000 fell below the level of 1998 and reached 415 LTL. Real wages fell by 1.9%. The proportion of young people’s incomes from business and freelance activities almost halved. Income from social benefits, on the contrary, grew significantly. Young people are becoming more and more dependent on social and private support.

In 2000, 31% of children under 18 were below the poverty line. More than 20% of children of pre-school age are in poverty. Young people and children (particularly of a pre-school age) are more vulnerable to poverty than other age groups.

Young people spend a high proportion of their lives in full-time education and training, so this should be a significant and productive element of their life experience. But despite the obvious success of educational reforms, the content and quality of education still do not provide the modern knowledge and communication skills necessary for an information society. Territorial disparities in quality and access to education have also not yet been solved. In Lithuania, as elsewhere, poor education presents a risk of poverty and social exclusion, but good education and skills are no guarantee of economic and social inclusion. Although the correlation between qualification levels and employment chances has tightened, one can find such professionals as doctors, teachers, university lecturers and scientists among the ‘work-

ing poor'. One cannot predict exactly which qualifications people will need several decades hence, but what is known for sure is that the capacity and the motivation to learn on a continuous basis will become something like a basic skill for everybody.

Society is insufficiently aware of the problem of children dropping out of school. There are no reliable data on the number of drop-outs to allow for comprehensive targeted measures to combat the problem. The common conclusion is to bring them back to the formal education system. But in our opinion, no less important is to search within the education system itself for the reasons why children leave school.

Young Lithuanians rank job security highly and they particularly lack labour competitiveness and stability. According to the labour exchange, the number of unemployed young people is increasing every year. The level of unemployment among young people reached 18.9% (total 12.0%) on 1 November 2001. Young people account for approximately a third of all long-term unemployed. Despite the fact that they have significantly contributed to the qualification level of the labour force in Lithuania in the past 10 years, their earnings are disproportionately low relative to those of adult workers (40% of the national average).

Young people are increasingly trying to combine different areas of life. People's lives are no longer divided up into clear-cut categories as obviously as they were in previous generations. Perhaps the common concept of youth as a separate stage between childhood and adulthood should be revised. Childhood and adulthood have been 'penetrated' by this intermediary stage. Some 'young' people depend on their parents into their late thirties, while others earn more as teenagers than their parents do. While 10 years ago the majority of students did not work, today about a third of bachelor's students and approximately 80% of master's students work and study at the same time.

Family and work are difficult to combine in Lithuania. This is one of the reasons why women who on average are better educated than men dominate in lower-paid activities and among those who accept precarious forms of employment (part-time, shortened day). Social assistance for families raising children continues to be oriented mostly towards the payment of cash benefits, rather than to the provision of social services or addressing employment and housing needs. In the end the response of young women is clear - to postpone having children or reject the idea of children altogether.

The number of socially disadvantaged and problematic families is growing from year to year. On average only about 9% of foster children have lost their parents and become real orphans, while 30% of foster children are removed from socially disadvantaged families. The large number of sui-

cides among children and young people in Lithuania is also reason for concern.

One of the key factors behind the growth in crime is the increase in juvenile crime. In 2000, almost 1,000 juveniles (35%) received prison sentences in Lithuania. There is no system of effective correctional measures alternative to imprisonment. However, the new Criminal Code opens up greater possibilities for the administration of alternative correctional measures.

Generally, young people are more liberal, more supportive of economic reforms and cultural change and more tolerant of new ways of thinking. The most important issues facing Lithuanian society, according to young people, are related to economic, physical and psychological security. This means that young Lithuanians feel that they are poorly integrated into society. They often feel ignored or unprepared to compete on the labour market. However, they do not show a great deal of interest in overcoming this social alienation. For example, more than half of young people in a survey in 2000 said that they had not heard of any organisations for young people.

The future pattern of intergenerational relations has been influenced by income and social disparities. Under these circumstances society can hardly expect young people to develop a sense of intergenerational solidarity. In seeking to better integrate them into society, political and economic measures are necessary, targeted towards different groups of young people. More attention should be paid to young people who neither study nor work. They are the group most vulnerable to social exclusion and so are the most difficult to reach. Young people who study are the most active, both from a political point of view and from the view of the labour market. They should therefore be encouraged to take part in decision making. However, no less important is to pay attention to outstanding and gifted young people who often are 'neglected' by the education system itself.

The formulation and approval of a concept on state policy for young people was the first step in addressing young people's problems. The state policy on young people seeks to create favourable conditions for the formation of the personalities of young people and for their integration into political, civil, economic, social and cultural life. It could be stated, however, that a comprehensive and coherent approach to youth problems has not yet been developed and there is a lack of legislation that clearly defines the specific tools, measures and forms of support from the state in implementing youth policy. In this respect Lithuania is far behind the countries of the EU, where tackling youth problems has gained significance and a constructive response from society. On 21 November 2001,

for example, the European Commission adopted its White Paper 'A New Impetus for European Youth'. The White Paper seeks to better address the specific needs of young people in the EU and national policies and to encourage young people to participate in the process of European integration. Funding for the new initiatives proposed by the White Paper will mainly come from the EU's 'Youth' programme, which has a total budget of EUR 520 million over the period 2000-2006. After enlargement to a total of 27 countries, the European Union will have some 75 million people aged between 15 and 25.

On the whole, Europe is a rapidly ageing continent. Economists emphasise that under such circumstances

Lithuania can no longer afford to under-use or waste its youthful resources. From the sustainable human development standpoint, however, the personal qualities and knowledge that today's young people are developing are not only the most important 'resource' on which Lithuania will rely in the coming decades, they are a chance for people to lead meaningful lives within the larger European family. On the other hand, the unaddressed problems young people face today may become a source of problems for the whole of society in the future. The purpose of this report was to bring out some important features of the current situation facing young Lithuanians with respect to essential human development issues.

The principal human development indicators

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Measuring human development.

The human development embraces many sides of development. On the one hand it is a conceptual advantage, but on the other it makes the measurability of human development problematic. In addition, human development contains crucial but not easily quantifiable factors related to empowerment, human rights and freedoms. The UNDP tried to advance the dialogue with the construction of a Political Freedom Index (PFI). It was suggested that the following clusters be combined: political participation; rule of law; freedom of expression. Each cluster was assessed using data obtained from respected international human rights organisations - Amnesty International, Freedom House, Human Rights Watch, the Inter-Parliamentary Union and other bodies. On the basis of this data an illustrative PFI was designed, ranking 100 nations in 1994 (88 in 1991). With time, the methodology of the PFI should evolve. Although, the human development concept is much broader than its quantitative measurement. Yet simple tools are needed to monitor progress in human development.

The UNDP has constructed a composite Human Development Index (HDI) which was used in the first ever *Human Development Report 1990 (Global Report)* for the international ranking of countries. The basic idea behind the HDI was to incorporate social choices beside income into a single and relatively simple indicator. The HDI is calculated using international data available at the time the *Global Report* is presented. The experience of the HDI calculation reflect the continuous effort to improve data.

Life expectancy at birth was therefore chosen as a proxy for many important choices since longevity closely correlates with the quality of life (adequate nutrition, good health, education).

Education attainment measures a country's relative achievement in both adult literacy and combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment (ratio of enrolled to the total population aged between 7 and 24).

As a measure of the *standard of living* and as an indicator of access to important economic choices GDP per capita was chosen, adjusted for purchasing power parity (PPP US\$).

Human development index (HDI)

DIMENSION	A long and healthy life	Knowledge		A decent standard of living
INDICATOR	Life expectancy at birth	Adult literacy rate	Gross enrolment ratio (GER)	GDP per capita (PPP US\$)
	↓			↓
DIMENSION INDEX	Life expectancy index	Adult literacy index	GER index	GDP index
		↓	↓	
		Education index		
	↓	↓	↓	↓
	Human development index (HDI)			

Human development index, 1999

	Life expectancy at birth	Adult literacy rate, % aged 15 and above	Gross enrolment, %	GDP per capita, PPP US\$	HDI
<i>World</i>	66.7	79.2	65	6,980	0.716
<i>OECD</i>	76.6	97.5	87	22,020	0.900
<i>Eastern Europe and the CIS</i>	68.5	98.6	77	6,290	0.777
<i>Developing countries</i>	64.5	72.9	61	3,530	0.647
High human development	77.3	98.5	91	23,410	0.914
Norway(1)*	78.4	99.0	97	28,433	0.939
Australia (2)	78.8	99.0	116	24,574	0.936
Canada (3)	78.7	99.0	97	26,251	0.936
Sweden (4)	79.6	99.0	101	22,636	0.936
Belgium (5)	78.2	99.0	109	25,443	0.935
United States (6)	76.8	99.0	95	31,872	0.934
Finland(10)	77.4	99.0	103	23,096	0.925
Hungary (36)	71.1	99.3	81	11,430	0.829
Poland (38)	73.1	99.7	84	8,450	0.828
Estonia (44)	70.3	98.0	86	8,355	0.812
United Arab Emirates (45)	74.8	75.1	68	18,162	0.809
Croatia (46)	73.6	98.2	68	7,387	0.803
Lithuania (47)	71.8	99.5	80	6,656	0.803
Qatar (48)	69.3	80.8	75	18,789	0.801
Medium human development	66.8	78.5	67	3,850	0.684
Trinidad and Tobago (49)	74.1	93.5	65	8,176	0.798
Latvia (50)	70.1	99.8	82	6,264	0.791
Belarus (53)	68.5	99.5	77	6,876	0.782
Russian Federation (55)	66.1	99.5	78	7,473	0.775
Bulgaria (57)	70.8	98.3	72	5,071	0.772
Brazil (69)	67.5	84.9	80	7,037	0.750
Armenia (72)	72.7	98.3	80	2,215	0.745
Ukraine (74)	68.1	99.6	77	3,458	0.742
Jamaica (78)	75.1	86.4	62	3,561	0.738
Sri Lanka (81)	71.9	91.4	70	3,279	0.735
Viet Nam (101)	67.8	93.1	67	1,860	0.682
Cameroon (125)	50.0	74.8	43	1,573	0.506
Congo (126)	51.1	79.5	63	727	0.502
Low human development	52.6	48.9	38	1,200	0.442
Pakistan (127)	59.6	45.0	40	1,834	0.498
Togo (128)	51.6	56.3	62	1,410	0.489
Nepal (129)	58.1	40.4	60	1,237	0.480
Yemen (133)	60.1	45.2	51	806	0.468
Mauritania (139)	51.1	41.6	41	1609	0.437
Burundi (160)	40.6	46.9	19	578	0.309
Niger (161)	44.8	15.3	16	753	0.274
Sierra Leone (162)	38.3	32.0	27	448	0.258

* In brackets HDI rank.

With normalisation of the values of the variables, that make up HDI, its value ranges from 0 to 1. The HDI value for a country shows the distance that it had to overcome to reach the maximum possible value of 1.

From: UNDP Human Development Report 2001, Oxford University Press, New-York, 2001,

Human Development: concepts and trends, SPU/UNDP, Vilnius, 1999

Demographic profile, 2000

Population*	3,491.0 thous.			Life expectancy at birth:		Migration:	
Youth (15-29)	811.6 thous.	Birth rate per 1,000 population	9.2	Average	72.87	Arrived	1,510
Were born	34.1 thous.	Mortality rate per 1,000 population	10.5	Women	77.93	Departed	2,616
Died	38.9 thous.	Natural growth of population	- 4,770	Men	67.62	Migration saldo	-1,106

* Preliminary population census 2001 data

Health

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Morbidity, per 100,000 population							
Malignant tumours	1,241.3	1,266.2	1,322.5	1,393.5	1,465.7	1,552.4	1,631.8
Active tuberculosis	240.0	250.2	268.0	288.5	308.0	318.3	290.3
Syphilis	57.6	90.8	101.4	84.9	62.8	45.3	31.7
Non-cumulative registered HIV/AIDS*							
HIV-carriers	10	10	12	31	52	66	65
AIDS	1	1	5	3	8	5	7
Mortality by cause, per 100,000							
Cardiovascular diseases	654.4	654.3	633.2	613.9	602.0	592.0	566.4
Malignant tumours	200.7	203.2	202.6	199.7	204.9	209.5	209.0
External causes	185.9	176.0	157.6	146.9	144.7	142.4	138.1
Suicide	45.8	45.6	46.4	44.0	42.0	41.9	44.1
Men	81.9	79.1	79.3	77.1	73.6	73.8	75.6
Women	13.4	15.6	17.1	14.5	13.7	13.6	16.1
Infant (0-1) mortality, per 1,000 population	14.2	12.5	10.1	10.3	9.2	8.6	8.5

*Corrected data from the AIDS Centre

Suicide among children and young people

	Per 100,000 population							
	Males		Females		Males		Females	
	10-17	18-29	10-17	18-29	10-17	18-29	10-17	18-29
1993	20	196	5	26	9.3	56.0	2.4	7.8
1994	17	225	11	30	7.9	65.3	5.3	9.1
1995	23	211	9	29	10.5	62.1	4.3	8.9
1996	23	223	6	24	10.3	66.4	2.8	7.4
1997	20	236	6	24	8.8	71.0	2.7	7.5
1998	13	205	12	21	5.7	62.1	5.4	6.6
1999	23	222	9	26	9.9	67.6	4.0	8.2
2000	18	214	14	25	7.7	65.6	6.2	7.9

Employment, unemployment, wage

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Employment level, %	56.1	55.2	54.6	52.6	53.5	53.2	51.2
Unemployment level, %							
Labour force survey data	17.4	17.1	16.4	14.1	13.5	14.1	15.4
Labour Exchange data	3.8	6.1	7.1	5.9	6.4	8.4	11.5
Youth, %, labour force survey data				25.2	22.2	26.5	29.0
Average monthly gross wage, LTL	325.4	480.9	618.2	778.1	929.8	987.4*	1,007.9**
Minimum wage, LTL	56.5	134.6	240	374.2	417.5	430.0	430.0

* Corrected data

**Preliminary data

Average state insurance pension, LTL

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Old age pension	108.31	147.04	188.97	239.86	286.15	309.06	312.54
Disability pension	104.31	139.34	176.82	221.86	260.91	278.94	279.63
Widower's/widow's	-	91.96	92.56	71.25	58.10	60.49	60.20
Of which for those who lost spouse before 1 January 1995*	-	-	-	31.10	34.43	35.13	34.57
Loss of breadwinner	96.02	102.62	122.66	149.96	174.60	183.11	183.32
Seniority	111.88	125.81	149.93	179.67	208.27	216.24	212.72

* Paid since 1 July 1997

Education

	1994/95	1995/96	1996/97	1997/98	1998/99	1999/00	2000/01
Total enrolment	644	665	688	717	746	774	787
Drop-outs, % of total enrolment	1.2	1.3	1.2	0.9	0.9	0.9	-

Crime

	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Registered crime	58,634	60,819	68,053	75,816	78,149	77,108	82,370
Juvenile crime	3,036	3,385	3,408	3,313	3,322	3,339	3,578
Solved crime, %	41	40	41	43	40.3	41	40

Gender profile

Average gross monthly wage, LTL

	All employed		Workers		Employees	
	Women	Men	Women	Men	Women	Men
1996 04	534	709	339	560	628	915
1997 04	685	920	546	765	782	1,197
1998 04	886	1,152	643	902	1,044	1,587
1999 04	968	1,182	660	909	1,152	1,615
2000 1 quarter	930	1,143	654	861	1,092	1,551
2001 1 quarter	964.3	1,180.8	671.7	891.4	1,135.7	1,617.5

Results of Parliamentary (Seimas) elections

	Women	%	Men	%
VII Seimas, 1992	10	7.1	131	92.9
VIII Seimas, 1996	25	18.0	114	82.0
IX Seimas, 2000	15	10.6	126	89.4

Members of municipal councils

	Women	%	Men	%
1995	289	19.4	1,199	80.6
1997	326	22.0	1,158	78.0
2000	275	17.6	1,287	82.4

Cabinet of Ministers

	Total	Women	Men
VI Cabinet of Ministers	20	-	20
VII Cabinet of Ministers	20	1	19
VIII Cabinet of Ministers	18	2	16
VIII Cabinet of Ministers	15	1	14
IX Cabinet of Ministers	15	1	14
X Cabinet of Ministers	15	1	14
XI Cabinet of Ministers	13	1	12
XII Cabinet of Ministers	13	3	10

Enrolment, %, beginning of academic year

	Specialised secondary education		Higher education	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
1990/91	50.8	49.2	51.9	48.1
1995/96	64.3	35.7	56.2	43.8
1999/00	64.6	35.4	57.9	42.1
2000/01	64.0	36.0	58.1	41.9

Scientists, 2000

	Women	Men
Scientists	1,822	3,511
Habilitated doctors	110	685
Professors	62	547
Docents	20	67
Doctors	1,664	2,683
Professors	6	37
Docents	741	1,493

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