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DEVELOPMENT OF SUSTAINABILITY COMMUNICATION IN EFL CLASSROOM AT HIGHER EDUCATION

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Abstract. The article aims to introduce the role of foreign language teaching in fostering sustainability communication (SC) in higher education (HE) institution. Foreign language learning enable students to analyze actual topics about sustainable development, to discuss problems, to share personal emotions and experiences. On one hand, English as a foreign language (EFL) curriculum aims to build students' basic language communicative skills with the focus on sustainability communication when students recall gained information. The present paper analyzes the problems of SC development in EFL studies in the system of HE. The article overviews the importance of the SC development on the theoretical level as well as introduces the challenges of SC development in foreign language classes on the empirical level. The research was planned and performed in 5 universities of Lithuania, in which the respondents studying English (average age of participants was 22 years old) expressed their opinions on the SC ideas and usefulness of SC. The results of the research demonstrate that students are more engaged in topics and materials on SC and it is challenging for pedagogues to constantly update their materials, to apply innovative EFL teaching strategies related to SC in foreign language classroom. Therefore, the research findings with the embedded elements for SC development encourage educators to search for innovative ways of EFL teaching in HE.

Keywords: Sustainability communication (SC), English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching; Higher Education, development.

INTRODUCTION

The aim to introduce the role of foreign language teaching in fostering sustainability communication (SC) to analyze the challenges the EFL teachers face for the development of SC in higher education institution.

Methodology of the Research. The research was planned and performed in 5 universities of Lithuania, in which the 185 respondents studying English (average age of participants was 22 years old) in various levels (A1 – C1) of English expressed their opinions on the SC ideas, topics and their usefulness for their linguistic and personal development.

Higher education institutions play a significant role in the attainment and demonstration of SC in which proficiency in a foreign language is an essential prerequisite for acquiring desired results for sustainability communication competence development. In today's globalised world there is an increasing need for students to improve foreign language

competences at university. There has been an ongoing discussion on how to help students be more adaptable to the new environment and more focused on SC. Drawing on literature analysis of various authors (Godemann, 2011, Tilbury, 2011; Wiek et al, 2014) the four dimensional (economical, environmental, social and institutional) concept of sustainable development has been determined. Furthermore, the fourth SDC dimension, which is related to the complex challenges of contemporary society, has modified the SDC structure including institutional dimension and emphasizing an autonomous activity, the use of interactive foreign language through participation in dialogues for the present and future of global society. These constructs are thought to be used in different environment and contexts as they are assumed to be significant elements of communication. Highlighting the place of EFL in achieving this goal Sterling (2014)¹ points out that ‘EFL requires an understanding of the role that language² and culture play in the construction of environmental, social, economic, institutional, cultural and religious systems, the impact of these systems which support life’. Therefore, it could be stated that EFL might ensure students to become more motivated to develop their SDC through English learning activities. The problem is how to foster the development of SDC through the EFL curriculum within the context of tertiary level. In the system of higher education of Lithuania the EFL curriculum, which is based on Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (2001)² aims to build students’ language skills, to improve their knowledge about SC and to enable them to apply sustainable development ideas with respect for the environment, in which cultural reproductions have major implications not just for the content of the curriculum, but for forms of pedagogic interactions. For this reason, it is challenging for pedagogues to believe that EFL will improve students’ SC. Thus, the aim of the paper is to analyze the development of SC strategies and EFL studies in the system of HEI in Lithuania.

The variety of dimensions can suggest that sustainability communication is a wide and complex interdisciplinary phenomenon and covers many social, economic, environmental, institutional, emotional and spiritual spheres of human life. Moreover, the internal structure of SC (knowledge, talents, abilities, skills, moral values, attitudes, behavioral intentions and their interrelations) is profound as well as external elements - institutional, social, economic and environmental dimensions – emphasizing their role which they play in designing the needs to

¹ Sterling, S. (2014). *An Analysis of the Development of Sustainability Education Internationally: Evolution, Interpretation and Transformative Potential*, In Blewit.

² Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment (2001). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

be acquired by students in HEI. However, researchers have not accepted the SC definition or unifying SC theory and concept. For this reason interpretations are different, based on ideological and educational perspectives involving aims related to the application of the concept both in scientific and policy making discussions. Therefore, a rather pragmatic approach drawing on Godemann (2011)³ who defined the SC as a complex process of information and knowledge exchange between sender and receiver. Its structure comprises language, knowledge, abilities, skills, moral values, potential, and talents, all of which allow learners to achieve mutual understanding in communication and undertake various activities or tasks (which is referred to as competency) related to challenges of sustainable development and education. What is more, the notion of the SC might be referred to the necessity and desire to fulfill the needs of leadership, professional career, social status, and/or other personal achievements. Drawing on this definition of SC, which is based on the concept of the needs, facing the challenges in the professional and personal life and highlighting the fact what are individuals' aims, as well as on how learners act to reach their foreseen goals. Furthermore, it is also significant to figure out if learners, who have some targets, are able to establish a possession of certain level of competences to overcome obstacles in order to reach their goals. This need, ability and activity could be related to an inner part of the SC as well as moral values are essential components which combined together could enable a successful performance and communication possible. Therefore, it is important not to limit the development of competences to their cognitive elements and learners should be informed about internal elements of a desired competence, too. This conceptualization is essential for SC as it is based on holistic and humanistic philosophy combining all necessary elements such as moral attitudes, internal and external motivation, learning environment and mentors' support that are significant for an effective performance. Therefore, pedagogues have a very important mission in empowering students to contribute to a more sustainable world while equipping them with the ideas of SC as a forceful and useful tool. The sustainable development paradigm ensures a concrete context of university mission and vision signifying a new stage of study quality achievement. Following Talloires' Declaration in 1990⁴ a sustainable university was defined, and since 1990 several declarations and innovations on the conception of a sustainable university in which a sustainable development curriculum (Common European Framework of Reference for Languages: Learning, teaching, assessment. 2001) and sustainable HE system have been

³ Godemann, J. (2011) *Sustainability Communication*. Nottingham: Springer

⁴Talloires Declaration (1990). 21/04/2019 [ulsf.org/wpcontent/uploads/2015/06/TD.pdf](https://www.ulsf.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/06/TD.pdf)

formulated and agreed. Moreover, based on Bologna Declaration on the European Space for Higher Education (1999)⁵ and developments by European Commission (2017)⁶ researchers of the institutionalism (Filho et al, 2013)⁷ and social constructivism theories Tilbury (2011)⁸ analyzed activities of institutions, their structure, formal rules and informal rituals as well as relationships between HEIs and their importance. A university is an organizational unit which foresees and ensures university sustainable development and sustainability communication at all institutional levels. The university carries out social, economical, environmental politics: uses energy, transport and performs other activities related to infrastructure. In order to improve the learning environment of students, the university infrastructure is constantly renewed

THEORETICAL FRAMING OF SUSTAINABILITY COMMUNICATION

Aiming to equip students with the possibility to develop their SC competence is a big challenge of HEIs. When presenting the study programmes it is important to introduce students with the concept of SC, its elements, teaching methods and learning strategies that could be used to provide effective SC competence development through EFL learning processes. Drawing on Godemann (2011)⁹, Flowerdew (2013)¹⁰ and Wiek, et al. (2014)¹¹. it could be claimed that the content of sustainable development is connected with communicative (native and foreign language skills), cross-cultural (foreign language skills and knowledge about different cultures) personal (ability to manage internal and external elements), methodological – instrumental (knowledge and skills of a particular profession), social (demonstrating ability of environment protection), transformative (demonstrating ability of positive change) as well as core competences (IT, mother tongue, mathematics and etc.). Similarly to sustainable development competence and its components, SC is strongly influenced by social and mass media and therefore has a variety of characteristics which are shown in Figure 1.

⁵ Bologna Declaration on the European Space for Higher Education (1999). Association of European Universities. 21/04/2019 <http://www.unige.ch/cre>

⁶ European Commission (2017). Recent Developments in European Higher Education Systems. European Commission staff working documents (SEC, 1063 final). Retrieved 21/04/2019 from <http://ec.europa.eu/education/pub/df/higher/modernisation.pdf>

⁷ Filho, L.W.; Caeiro, S.; Jabbour, Ch.; Azeiteiro, U., M. (2013). *Sustainability Assessment Tools in Higher Education Institutions*. Springer International Publishing.

⁸ Tilbury, D. (2011). Are We Learning to Change? Mapping Global Progress in Education for Sustainable Development in the Lead up to „Rio Plus 20“. *In Global Environmental Research. Education for Sustainable Development: Promises and Challenges*, 14 (2), 101- 107.

⁹ Godemann, J. (2011) *Sustainability Communication*. Nottingham: Springer

¹⁰ Flowerdew, J. (2013). *Discourse in English Language Education*. NY: Routledge.

¹¹ Wiek, A.; et al. (2014). Studying, teaching and applying sustainability visions using systems modelling. *Sustainability*. ISSN 2071 – 1050, No. 6, 4452-44695 doi:10.3390/su6074452.

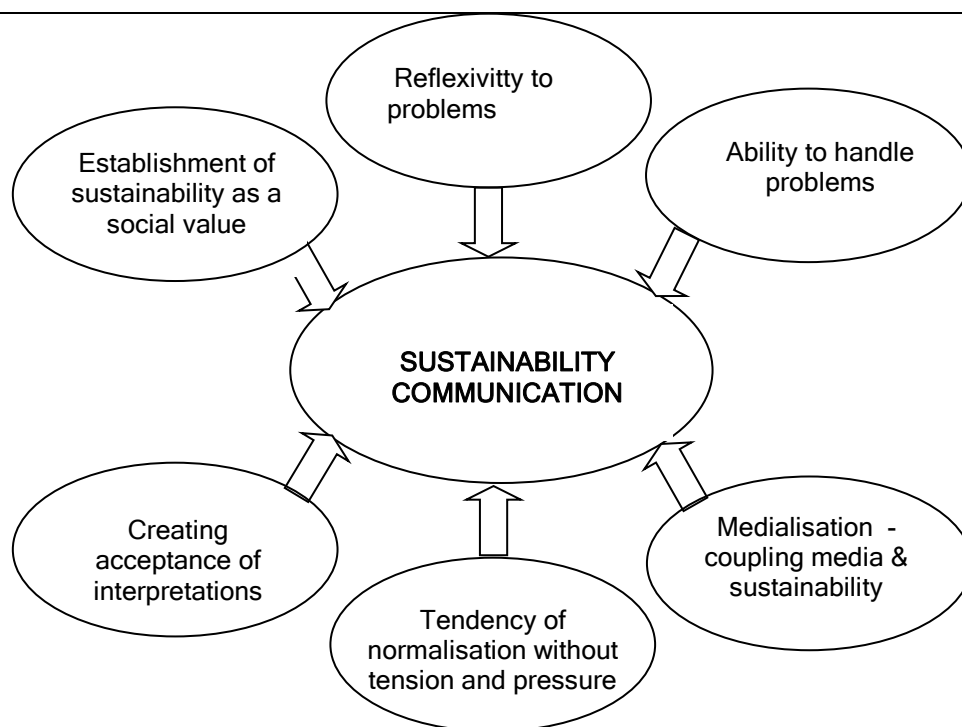


Figure 1. Sustainability communication characteristics according to Godemann (2011)

The characteristics of sustainability communication encompass:

Reflexivity in relation with various problems;

Successful ability to deal with difficult situations;

Medialisation as an effort to counter the tendency to normalization in sustainability discourse by matching it with the forms of mass media;

Tendencies to normalization with the possibility that the more sustainability becomes a topic and norm, the less stress and pressure there is to reach mutual understanding;

Establishment of sustainability as an intrinsic social value and the related issue of creating agreement, the possibility of various interpretations of sustainability have significant influence and should be taken into considerations when curriculum development processes are made and EFL teaching processes are designed. Moreover, social networks, made up of individual and group actors with their “bridges”, are increasing. The examples in the mediated forms of communication and social interaction processes are part of these ties with their own specific online practices, rules, network relationships and technical possibilities. Therefore, handling this complexity of interdisciplinarity plays a crucial role in the discussion about sustainability. Moreover, communication about sustainable development is sustainability communication about sustainable development knowledge and experiences. However, simply emphasizing the importance of the concept of sustainability is not enough to raise students awareness about

sustainable development. Knowledge needs a practical value, for this reason systemic knowledge must be acquired, i.e. the knowledge of functions, processes and interrelationships. Sustainable development knowledge needs to be assimilated with values, ethical orientations towards the links between humans and nature, with direct experiences that involve emotionality and meaningfulness. EFL teaching has the medium and a long-term goal to assist students not only to improve their foreign language skills, but also to acquire basic knowledge about sustainability to actively communicate its ideas and link them with actions. Teaching EFL at HE aims at developing and enhancing communication about sustainability that allow students to sharpen their awareness in both private and working life of what is ecologically responsible, economically feasible, socially acceptable as well as enabling them to discuss their ideas in classroom, social media, home and etc. SC is classified as a “soft” tool, and is one of a number of popular instruments, therefore, involving students in the solution of their own problems opens up opportunities for them making corresponding changes in their behavior for influencing the present and future life.

METHODOLOGY OF RESEARCH

In order to analyze the correlations of SC between EFL studies in HE quantitative research methodology was used. Based on scientific literature the research instrument – a questionnaire was designed and applied to identify the SC tendencies and students opinions about SC. Questionnaire survey was disseminated among students of VMU, VU, KTU, KU and MRU. The questionnaire was used to identify challenges of English (A1 – C1/C2 levels) learning with the structure (which is based on theoretical background) of SC.

Table 1. Disclosure of Block Content of Questionnaire

Blocks	Number of questions	Disclosure of Block Content
I block	8	Demographic data of respondents
II block	11	Statements which disclose reflexivity to problems
III block	14	Statements which disclose ability to handle problems
IV block	16	Statements which disclose medialisation
V block	12	Statements which disclose tendency of normalisation
VI block	12	Statements which disclose acceptance of interpretations
VII block	18	Statements which disclose establishment of sustainability as a social value

The structure of the questionnaire comprises instructions, demographic data statements and 6 diagnostic blocks of questions disclosed in Table 1.

All blocks of the questionnaire (I block demographic data) correspond with characteristics of sustainability communication, shown in figure 1: reflexivity to problem solutions, demonstrating problems management skills, showing normalization that sustainability becomes a popular topic of communication, medialisation which is the tendency in sustainability discourse by coupling it to the forms of social media, approval of the possibility of different interpretations of sustainability and sustainable development, the establishment of sustainability communication as a 'soft' tool and an intrinsic social value which is related to personal development. The questionnaire consists of 91 statements/questions, the first 8 statements of I block are designed to analyze students' demographic data. The statements of II block aim to reveal the students' ability to react and reflect about their problems, the statements of III block – the students ability to handle problems, the statements of IV block – the students ability to medialisation, the statements of V block – the tendency of normalisation, the statements of VI block – the acceptance of interpretations, and the statements of VII block – the establishment of sustainability as a social value. The statements/questions in all diagnostic blocks were orientated towards the elements of sustainability communication, which have been measured according to a Likert-type scale where students expressed their opinions by choosing *strongly agree; agree; neither agree, nor disagree; disagree; strongly disagree* options.

Aiming to find out more about the respondents' viewpoint on the relationships of English studies and SC characteristics, quantitative research was performed at the five main universities of Lithuania. The data obtained from the questionnaire survey was made using SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) statistical methods. Descriptive statistics, Chi – square distribution, Kendall tau, Fisher's criterion were used to compare the data obtained direct Oblimin with Kaizer normalization as well as Spearman and Pearson's correlation coefficients to evaluate relations between variables and statistical significance. The internal consistency and reliability of the questionnaire was tested by Cronbach alpha which is $R^2 = 0.046$, $p=0.025$. Following the statistical analysis, the findings of the study were investigated, synthesized and summarized.

Quantitative (questionnaire survey) research was performed in 2017. The respondents were students, who were learning the English language in the bachelor study programs in five main universities in Lithuania. The aim of the quantitative (questionnaire survey) research was

to find out students' opinions and knowledge about SC, its characteristics and to express their ideas about the usefulness of SC development during the EFL studies at HE..

Totally, 177 respondents were first year students, 21 – second year students, and 6 – were in the third or fourth year of their studies. The distribution of respondents according to the level of English achieved is displayed in Figure 2.

The majority of students (87%) who took part in the survey were in the first year of their studies, the smallest number were in their third year (0.5%). The students were classified according to their level of English – A1, A2, B1, B2. Altogether 53.7% of students were at a B2 level or less; B1 (10,80 %), and the least amount – C1/C2 English level. (See Figure 2).

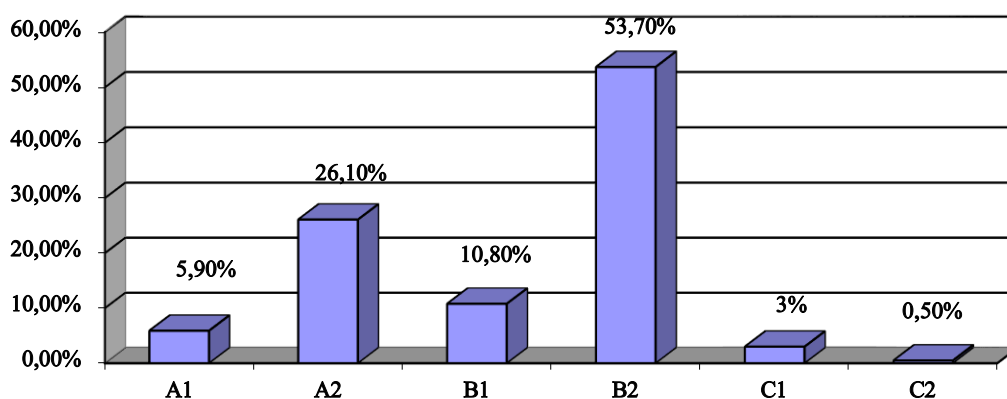


Figure 2. Students' distribution in English levels (A1-C2)

A total number of 109 students who achieved a B2 level (53.7 %), with less percentage of students achieving A1 (5.90 %) and A2 (26,10), demonstrates a high level of students' language proficiency.

INTERPRETATION OF FINDINGS

Those most important findings, which were defined by factors analysis, revealed that education of SC is not the phenomenon which is taken for granted, but on the contrary, has to be developed by pedagogues and supported by students at HE. Moreover, the acquisition of SC through English language learning is the privileged experience gained while studying at universities. The impact of the research is manifested in the comprehensive analysis of sustainable communication concept towards its characteristics, the visualization of the model of SC, and students' opinions for the development of SC within the context of English learning at HE. Therefore, a favourable impact of foreign language learning with integrated content into English A1 – C1/C2 level curriculum could be signified.

The theoretical significance of the study lies in that the education of SC expands the spectrum of foreign (English) language teaching and promotes students' opportunities of foreign language learning at all stages at HE. The practical significance of the research is that it addresses students needs for the education of sustainability communication and sustainable development that affects students' efficacy of acquisition of SC knowledge and skills. The results obtained during the research treatment of the integrated SC instruction into the syllabus of English A1 –C1/C2 level at VMU validate the necessity of knowledge and understanding of SC concept. Embedding SC content and innovative methods of teaching into foreign language (English) classes, pedagogues are encouraged to update their teaching strategies with innovative approach to discuss SC. The possibility to apply this novelty for foreign (English) language learning is estimated on empirical study results and such practice is proved to be successful for the development of students' linguistic skills and knowledge about SC.

CONCLUSIONS

The findings of the conducted research reveal the complexity, diversity and multidisciplinary of the SC conception. Therefore SC challenges could be analyzed emphasizing the involvement of all language pedagogues for the implementation of SC at university.

1. The findings of the research show language teachers involvement in SC problems solutions.
2. The findings of the study demonstrate university important impact on planning, coordinating and performing activities. for the development of SC.
3. The findings demonstrate the necessity of the development of SC.
4. The findings of the statistical data have revealed that English language learning makes a positive impact on students' knowledge and skills about SC.
5. The findings of the research show that students comprehend the significance of SC development as a valuable tool for their personal and career development.

The results of statistical analysis show that the respondents who are the first level study program students at university have mostly enhanced their cognitive element of competence – they attained knowledge, experience about SC as well as they improved their sustainability communication skills. The students raised awareness and perception about the significance of sustainability communication while discussing about sustainable development issues.

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PILOT STUDY ON SOCIAL MEDIA'S ROLE IN EXPATRIATES' ADJUSTMENT USING BLACK'S MODEL

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Abstract: Movement of significant number of expatriates from country to country has been increased with globalization. Every year expatriates face various challenges related to their individual characteristics, jobs and organizations where foreign assignment is major goal. It has become very easy for expatriates to socialize and meet with the other people of same culture and community in the host country with help of different social media. The paper seeks to reveal if social media could support expatriates' adjustment. Black's (1991) adjustment model is used for the pilot study. Results give primary insights of social media's usefulness in adjustment process.

Keywords: Expatriates' Adjustment; Social Media; Black's model.

INTRODUCTION

Today's modern world is considered as a global village. In this newly developed village full of technology and innovations, the global business expansions have shifted from domestic to global human resource practices. The diversity of professions coupled with advancement of technologies has started attracting candidates from all over the world to work in international organizations. According to a survey report published by Finaccord, there are total of 50.5 million expatriates, as of 2013, in all continents.¹

Expatriates' adjustment has always been an important topic of research and discussion in all communities. The failure rate of international assignments in many countries is increased without proper adjustment of expatriates. After moving from the home country to the host country, expatriates face numerous adjustment related factors. While various researchers have stated different models comprising of several factors on which the complete adjustment process of expatriates depends. The most common and frequently stated factors are individual factors, organizational factors, job-related factors, and non-work-related factors. Each factor has its own importance when it comes to expatriates' adjustment.

¹ Abdel-Rahman, G. M., Subramaniam, A., Ramalu, L. S., Chandrakantan, A., & Subramaniam, L. (2017). The Impact of Cultural Similarity and Social Network Characteristics on Re-Expatriation Intention Among Self-Initiated Academic Expatriates. *International Journal of Business and Social Research*, 7(9), 01-09.

In the last decade, a lot of scholars have worked on the role of organizations in expatriates' development. The term "perceived organizational support" is not considered as new day anymore.² Organizations have been known to play a vital role in the adjustment of expatriates. Initially, these roles were limited to providing logistic assistance and healthcare facilities. The demands of expatriates have been changed with time. The concept of "virtual communities" has also been introduced in societies. Expats have been known to use various virtual communities to meet and interact with each other of same origin or genre. The introduction of smartphones and social media platforms has completely changed the way expatriates socialize with each other. A variety of social media platforms such as *Facebook*, *WhatsApp* etc. are available to use for them. They have been making different virtual groups and pages in social media for socializing and connecting with each other. Their thought, experiences and characteristics are being shared in those social media.

As of now, decent amount of works has been directed towards the organizational roles leading expatriates' adjustment while giving importance to logistic support and workplace guidance support. Similarly, very less research works has been accomplished on social media platforms and networks that affect the way of expatriates' adjustment for making new environment. Till date, no study has been done on assessing the role of organizations to adjust expatriate through social media. Therefore, this **paper aims** to provide primary insights if social media could be useful in expatriates' adjustment process.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Defining Expatriates

McNulty and Brewster (2017)³ define expatriates as individuals who reside temporarily in a country of which they are not a citizen in order to accomplish a career-related goal, being relocated abroad either by an organization, by self-initiation or directly employed within the host-country. This definition advances the existing definitions by Edstrom and Galbraith (1977)⁴ on individual who are transferred from home country to another country especially for employment purposes.

² Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002). Perceived organizational support: a review of the literature. *Journal of applied psychology*, 87(4), 698.

³ McNulty, Y., & Brewster, C. (2017). Theorising the meaning(s) of 'expatriate': Establishing boundary conditions for business expatriates. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 28(1), 27–61.

⁴ Edstrom, A. & Galbraith, J. R. (1977). Transfer of Managers as a Coordination and Control Strategy in Multinational Organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. 22.

Cohen (1977) defined expatriate as temporary migrant who is sent to stay in foreign country for successful completion of a project before returning to their home country.⁵ There is at least one common understanding about expatriate adjustment: an individual enters completely new setting which is quite unknown and unfamiliar and leaves behind his native environment. The access in new place may make a psychological uncertainty for an expatriate.

It has been either argued or implied that an expatriate always wants to adjust him/her with new workplace to reduce psychological stress, especially new behavior can be expected or required, on the other hand old behavior could be considered as unsuitable or offensive, if these problems are already solved in new environment for an expatriate, expected adjustment can easily be issued.⁶ If it is not possible for expatriates to adjust in host country, is called common reason for failed international assignments.^{7, 8}

Most studies seem to agree that attention has been paid toward expatriate adjustment processes from late 1970s.⁹ However, most of them were unable to account for the social, psychological and behavioral aspects which play a vital role in the expatriates' adjustment process. Therefore, it is important to conduct more necessary research in this field to better understand expatriate adjustment process.

The process of Expatriates Adjustment

The expatriate adjustment process is defined by Torbiorn having four stages that are known as a U-curve.¹⁰ The process is sequential and includes honeymoon, culture shock, adjustment and mastery. The adjustment rises during honeymoon phase, decreases as the cultural shock settles in, and starts rising again as the adjusting takes place; finally, it culminates with mastery. According to Torbiorn, the first phase takes places in the first few weeks of the expatriate's arrival in the host country.¹¹ This is a relatively stable phase because the expat finds the new culture fascinating. Once they start to understand the characteristics of the new country, the expats go through cultural shock, often categorized by negative feelings towards the host

⁵ Cohen, E. (1977). Expatriate communities. *Current Sociology*, Vol. 24 No. 3, 5-90.

⁶ Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. (1991). Toward a comprehensive model of international adjustment: An integration of multiple theoretical perspectives. *Academy of management review*, 16(2): 291-317.

⁷ Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., & Gilley, K. M. (1999). Dimensions, determinants, and differences in the expatriate adjustment process. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30(3), 557-581.

⁸ Okpara, J. O., & Kabongo, J. D. (2011). Cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment: A study of western expatriates in Nigeria. *Journal of World Business*, 46(1), 22-30.

⁹ Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. *op. cit.*

¹⁰ Torbiorn, I. (1988). Culture barriers as a social psychological construct: An empirical validation. *Cross-cultural adaptation: Current approaches*, 168-190.

¹¹ *Ibid.*

country; this happens because the expats learn that their behaviors and attitudes are not appropriate for the new country, but, in this stage, they do not know how to replace them. In adjustment stage, the expats start to develop their adaptability skills, they start to learn new appropriate behaviors; lastly, in the mastery phase, the expats are proficient in performing the appropriate activities, their negative feelings of hostility and anxiety towards the new country disappear and they can function appropriately in the host country.^{12, 13}

The adjustment composed as the personal and work-role changes which are utilized during an expatriate's adjustment process. Every year, millions of people go through international assignments from home country to host country. A solid adjustment with work and non-work conditions in host country is mandatory for every expatriate to be successful on new project in host country which shows that expatriates' adjustment is not involved with only work-related adjustment, but also involved with foreign culture. Many researchers have found that the expatriates' adjustment starts in the home country, prior to moving host country. The process of expatriates' adjustment depends on multiple factors. Organizational support and social support are two of the important factors which have a significant impact on expats. The importance of research on expatriates' adjustment is evident from the fact that solely the adjustment issues are responsible for countless international employee turnover and failure of international assignments.

Social Media and Expatriates' Adjustment

Social interaction has been proven to be the primary predictor of expatriate change. However, the effect of cultural action on expatriate change may differ for those in other cultures. Contextual factors, e.g., geographical proximity and ethnic differences between the home nation and the host nation, may have a substantial effect on the expatriate change process.

There will be more than 5 billion users of smartphones in 2025.¹⁴ Researches show that with the aid of smartphones and social media platforms, it has become even easier for people to get to know each other hence socialize in a better way. It would not be wrong to say that social media platforms have completely changed the way communities used to socialize. It is casual of expatriates to interact with people from diversified communities. Social media

¹² Black, J. (1988). Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of international business studies*, 19(2): 277-294.

¹³ Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Luk, D. M. (2005). Input-based and time-based models of international adjustment: Meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. *Academy of management Journal*, 48(2), 257-281.

¹⁴ Miller, G. (2012). The smartphone psychology manifesto. *Perspectives on psychological science*, 7(3): 221-237.

platforms assist expats in staying in touch with co-workers, customers, partners, and business processes. It keeps them connected, responsive and efficient.¹⁵ When expatriates are transferred for their overseas assignment they need to deal with a new environment and a foreign culture. In order to get support they start to access new social networks through interacting with the local society and by obtaining social capital.¹⁶ Through this social capital individuals can for example receive economic resources and contact with experts¹⁷, or it could be used to create socialites of for example a friendship character, which could be used in work settings as well¹⁸.

In many cases, socializing with co-workers outside of business and engaging in employer-organized events has had a significant effect on expatriates' adjustment process. These findings are consistent with past discoveries which indicate that socio-cultural interaction with co-workers does expatriates think that their existence is respected and outcomes in a way of tolerance, belonging, and satisfaction, which ultimately serves to facilitate cross-cultural adjustment.^{19, 20}

Research on Expatriates Adjustment Process

Research work done in past on expatriates' adjustment shows that social networks are of critical importance in controlling the pace of adjustment process. Social networking is defined as social relationships which link an individual or group with another individual or group.²¹ According to Wang and Rabindra (2004), social networks in any form comprises of relationships between the expatriates and host country nationals and friends.²² It was also found out that by obtaining information related to the job and culture of the host country through social media networks, the process of expatriates' adjustment became faster.²³ In short, all the

¹⁵ Forbush, E., & Foucault-Welles, B. (2016). Social media use and adaptation among Chinese students beginning to study in the United States. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 50, 1-12.

¹⁶ Wang, X., & Nayir, D. Z. (2006). How and when is social networking important? Comparing European expatriate adjustment in China and Turkey. *Journal of International Management*, 12(4), 449-472.

¹⁷ Portes, A. (1998). Social capital: Its origins and applications in modern sociology. *Annual review of sociology*, 24(1), 1-24.

¹⁸ Adler, P. S., & Kwon, S. W. (2002). Social capital: Prospects for a new concept. *Academy of management review*, 27(1), 17-40.

¹⁹ Aycan, Z. (1997). Expatriate adjustment as a multifaceted phenomenon: Individual and organizational level predictors. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(4), 434-456.

²⁰ Stroppa, C., & Spieß, E. (2010). Expatriates social networks: The role of company size. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(13), 2306-2322.

²¹ Hwang, K.-K. G. (1998). Conflict resolution in Chinese society. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 7(1): 17-38.

²² Chiu, Y. P., Wu, M., Zhuang, W. L., & Hsu, Y. Y. (2009). Influences on expatriate social networks in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(4): 790-809.

²³ Van Vianen, A. E., De Pater, I. E., Kristof-Brown, A. L., & Johnson, E. C. (2004). Fitting in: Surface-and deep-level cultural differences and expatriates' adjustment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 47(5), 697-709.

researchers have proved that the presence of social networks and social media platforms induce a positive impact on expatriates' adjustment and boost it.

In 2006, Erbacher et al. showed that organizational support in form of the parent and the local company providing assistance in different forms, to expatriates, played an important role in the adjustment of expatriates in host country.²⁴ This support can be in form of financial assistance, general assistance, and family support. Providing organizational support to the expatriates can reduce the level of stress and facilitate the process of interaction adjustment among expatriates.²⁵ Kaimer (2001) has described about towards the fact that to enhance the level of organizational support being provided to expatriates, the organizations should provide language training and social networking opportunities to expats.²⁶

Torbiorn showed expatriate adjustment process consists of four stages arranged in U-curve.²⁷ These four stages are honeymoon, culture shock, adjustment and mastery. The adjustment rises during honeymoon phase, decreases as the cultural shock settles in, and starts rising again as the adjusting takes place; finally, it culminates with mastery. According to Torbiorn the first phase takes places in the first few weeks of the expatriate's arrival in the host country.²⁸ This is a relatively stable phase because the expat finds the new culture fascinating. Once they start to understand the characteristics of the new country, the expats go through cultural shock, often categorized by negative feelings towards the host country; this happens because the expats learn that their behaviors and attitudes are not appropriate for the new country, but, in this stage, they do now know how to replace them. In adjustment stage, the expats start to develop their adaptability skills, they start to learn new appropriate behaviors; lastly, in the mastery phase, the expats are proficient in performing the appropriate activities, their negative feelings of hostility and anxiety towards the new country disappear and they can function appropriately in the host country.^{29, 30}

²⁴ Carraher, S. M., Sullivan, S. E., & Crocitto, M. M. (2008). Mentoring across global boundaries: An empirical examination of home-and host-country mentors on expatriate career outcomes. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39(8), 1310-1326.

²⁵ Toh, S. M., & DeNisi, A. S. (2005). A local perspective to expatriate success. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 19(1), 132-146.

²⁶ Andreason, A. (2003). Direct and indirect forms of in-country support for expatriates and their families as a means of reducing premature returns and improving job performance. *International Journal of Management*, 20(4): 548.

²⁷ Torbiorn, I.

²⁸ *Ibid.*

²⁹ Black, J.

³⁰ Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Luk, D. M.

In the past decade, there have been numerous studies carried out on various factors related to expatriate's adjustment^{31, 32} Among these studies, one of the most influential and frequently cited theoretical treatments of expatriates' adjustment is Black's model.³³ Different researchers have proposed different factors related to expatriates' adjustment process. Black and Stephens (1989) proposed three genres of such factors i.e. general, work and interaction.³⁴ Bhasker (2005) also proposed his model which summarized five such factors i.e. anticipatory, individual, job, organization and non-work related. Hechanova, Beehr and Christiansen (2003) classified it as four such factors namely individual related, work related, environmental and family related.³⁵ In the same way, tremendous studies have been carried in past which relate expatriates' adjustment to different models. For this study, conventional and most influential Black's model has been adopted.

This shows that a significant amount of research work has been done on the role of organizational support and social media networks in facilitating the process of expatriates' adjustment but as such, no study has been carried out relating these two i.e. the role of organizations in expatriates' adjustment with social media platforms. This research study will fill the aforementioned gap in order to link the organizational role and social media platforms for expatriates' adjustment.

The most popular model for expatriation's adjustment was proposed by Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991)³⁶ and will be presented in the next subsection.

Black's Model of Expatriates' Adjustment Process

Black's model is considered as the most significant and commonly used theoretical model in expatriates' adjustment related research. Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991)³⁷ proposed a major framework indicating two components of expatriates' adjustment, as shown in the Figure 1. The model is divided into two parts. The first part, anticipatory adjustment, identifies topics that exist before expatriates leave their home country; the second part, in-country adjustment, deals with topics that turn into crucial after the expatriates arrive at their foreign assignments.

³¹ Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., Gregersen, H., Black, J. S., & Ferzandi, L. A. (2006). You can take it with you: Individual differences and expatriate effectiveness. *Journal of Applied psychology*, 91(1), 109.

³² Van Vianen, A. E., De Pater, I. E., Kristof-Brown, A. L., & Johnson, E. C.

³³ Black, J. *op. cit.*

³⁴ Black, J. S., & Stephens, G. K. (1989). The influence of the spouse on American expatriate adjustment and intent to stay in Pacific Rim overseas assignments. *Journal of management*, 15(4), 529-544.

³⁵ Hechanova, R., Beehr, T. A., & Christiansen, N. D. (2003). Antecedents and consequences of employees' adjustment to overseas assignment: a meta-analytic review. *Applied psychology*, 52(2), 213-236.

³⁶ Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G.

³⁷ *Ibid.*

Anticipatory adjustment consists of three important elements such as pre-departure education, past overseas experience, and organizational choice mechanisms. In-country adjustment includes four dimensions: personal skills, job-related factors, organizational factors, and non-work components.

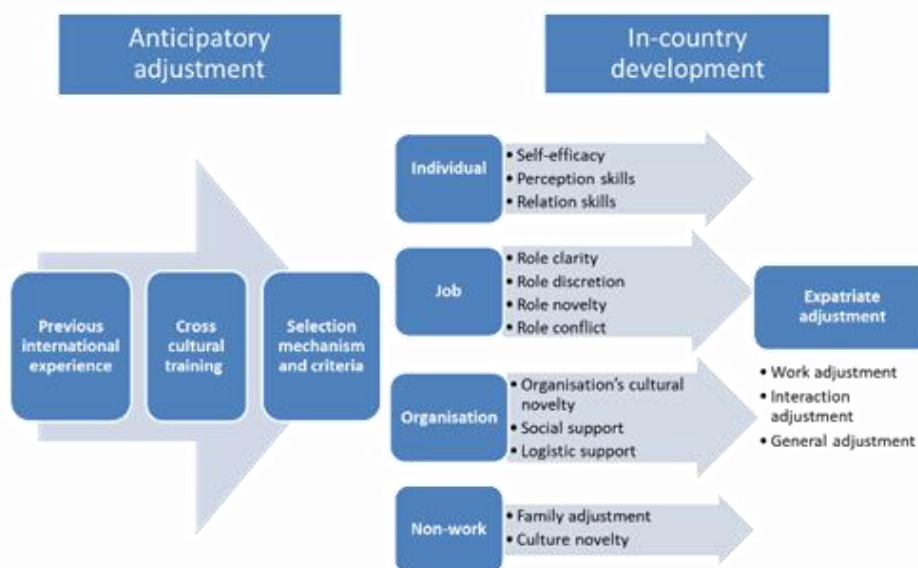


Figure 1. Black's Model for Expatriates' Adjustment

Individual Factors

Technical, managerial competence, social relations skills, open-mindedness and expats' desire are considered as individual factors to adjust in new country.³⁸ Recent studies have shown that the five big personality traits which are predictive for the adjustment of expatriates include openness, neuroticism, agreeableness, extraversion, and conscientiousness.³⁹ Another important factor is emotional intelligence as defined by Tan et al. (2005), which contributes to adjustment based on the fact that expat's emotion has a significant impact on international experience.⁴⁰ Apart from that, other researchers like Okpara and Kabongo (2011) suggested that further individual factors can be added to Black's model.

Job-Related Factors

According to Black (1988)⁴¹, job-related factors are responsible for either easing or constraining the expatriates' adjustment process. One of the dominant factors in this regard is

³⁸ Goldberg, L. (1993). The structure of phenotypic personality traits. *American psychologist*, 48(1): 26.

³⁹ Osman-Gani, A. M., & Tan, W. L. (2005). Expatriate development for Asia-Pacific: A study of training contents and methods. *International Journal of Human Resources Development and Management*, 5(1), 41-56.

⁴⁰ Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M. A., & Luk, D. M.

⁴¹ Black, J.

“role novelty”. It is defined as the difference between the previous job role and the current job role. Job ambiguity also plays an important role, role conflict and role overload. Black also proposed three more additional factors such as sole discretion, previous work experience and previous knowledge.

Organization Related Factors

Organization related factors also play a vital role in the adjustment process.⁴² The better expatriates match the organizational needs, the easier it is for them to adjust. Black (1991) stated that it was the duty of organizations to offer logistical support such as assistance in schooling, housing etc. to expats. Those will ease the process of expatriates’ adjustment by meeting their demands that arise in a foreign environment and supply them with necessary resources when they need them. Simply, organizational support acts as a stress buffer for the expatriates and increases their job satisfaction by providing them with high-quality assistance when required.

Non-Work-Related Factors

Tung (1982) found out that one of the leading factors which controls the negative or positive progress of expatriates’ adjustment was family adjustment. He carried out a study on American Expatriates and concluded that the primary cause of expats’ failure was the fact that their spouses was unable to adapt in new environment of host country. There is a strong and positive relationship between spouse adjustment and expatriates’ adjustment.⁴³ Culture novelty shows that some countries are harder to adjust in, as compared to others. In other words, it will be very easier for expatriates’ to adjust in a host country if there is similar environment and culture between host and home country.⁴⁴

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The objective of this study was to find out if respondents see social media’s usefulness in adjustment process. The research survey has been carried out with a formal questionnaire prepared in relation with Black’s (1991) adjustment model comprising of structured and closed questions.

As shown in Black’s (1991) model, four genres of expatriates’ adjustment factors i.e. individual, organization related, job-based, and non-work related, were linked to the corresponding key performance indicators with the help of two to four questions each. From

⁴² Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G.

⁴³ Black, J. S., & Stephens, G. K.

⁴⁴ Selmer, J., Torbiorn, I., & de Leon, C. T. (1998). Sequential cross-cultural training for expatriate business managers: predeparture and post-arrival. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 9(5): 831-840.

literature, Black's model provides various key performance measures to assess factors related to four main categories based on which the expatriate's adjustment in a certain country is affected. These four factors include individual factors, job related factors, organizational factors and non-work-related factors. The key performance measures of individual factors include self-efficacy, perception skills and relation skills. The KPI's of job-related factors include role clarity, role discretion, role novelty and role conflict. Those of organizational factors include organizational novelty, social support and logistic support. Finally; the KPI's of non-work-related factors include family adjustment and culture novelty. With help of questions in questionnaire form, each KPI is assessed to check whether it has direct impact on expatriate's adjustment or not. The only difference is that the questions have been asked with reference to expatriates' adjustment using social media platforms. So, this shows that the same practice has been used by other researchers before in various contexts. All these determinants based on which questionnaire is developed (attached in the end), are taken out from Black's model (1991).

The questionnaire comprised of six demographic questions and 12 questions related to the role of organizations in expatriate's adjustment using social media platforms. 5 point Likert scale was used for answers, where 1 is strongly disagree and 5 strongly agree (Annex 1). Descriptive statistics was used for analysis of data.

The questionnaire was distributed to an online company Glassdoor having more than 500 employees. Glassdoor is one of the world's largest job and recruiting online sites with Subsidiaries all over the world. The company was selected for the survey since it is known for its diversified work environment which attracts expatriates from all around the world.

The response of the 30 expatriates was collected, organized and analyzed. According to Isaac and Michael (1995)⁴⁵, "samples with N's between 10 and 30 have many practical advantages, including simplicity, easy calculation, and the ability to test hypotheses" shows that the sample size of 30 is sufficient for research survey on subject research statement.

RESULTS

General information about respondents is presented in Table 1. Of all the 30 respondents, 57% expatriates were male while 43% of the respondents were female. 47% of the participants

⁴⁵ Isaac, S., & Michael, W. B. (1995). *Handbook in research and evaluation: A collection of principles, methods, and strategies useful in the planning, design, and evaluation of studies in education and the behavioral sciences*. Edits publishers.

are belonged to the age group of 26-35 years. This finding is of critical importance because the most dominant group of individuals in utilizing social media platforms are in the same age group. 33% of the respondents belonged to the 36-45 years age group. The 18-25 years age group represented 10% of the total respondents. The 46-55 years age group also comprises of 10% of the total respondents. 10% of the respondents earn a salary of below \$20,000, 40% earn between \$21,000 and \$30,000, 37% earn between \$31,000 and \$40,000, 10% earn between \$41,000 and \$50,000 and 3% earn above \$51,000.

Table 1. General information about respondents

			Gender		Total
			Male	Female	
Age	18-25 years	Count	1	2	3
		% of Total	3.3	6.7	10
	26-35 years	Count	8	6	14
		% of Total	26.6	20	46.6
	36-45 years	Count	7	3	10
		% of Total	23.3	10	33.3
	46-55 years	Count	1	2	3
		% of Total	3.3	6.7	10
Annual Income	Below \$20,000	Count	0	3	3
		% of Total	0	10	10
	\$21,000-\$30,000	Count	7	5	12
		% of Total	23.3	16.7	40
	\$31,000-\$40,000	Count	7	4	11
		% of Total	23.3	13.3	36.6
	\$41,000-\$50,000	Count	2	1	3
		% of Total	6.7	3.3	10
	Above \$51,000	Count	1	0	1
		% of Total	3.3	0	3.3
Education	College	Count	1	4	5
		% of Total	3.3	13.3	16.6
	University	Count	12	8	20
		% of Total	40	26.7	66.7
	Postgraduate	Count	4	1	5
		% of Total	13.3	3.3	16.6
Total	Count	17	13	30	
	% of Total	56.7	43.3	100	

66% of the respondents have attained an education up to university level while 17% have attained up to college level and the other 17% is covered by those who have attained post-graduate level education.

Figure 2 presents means of every of adjustment factor. Results revealed that respondents found the highest social media usefulness supporting role conflict. Social support, perception skills and self-efficacy are on the second place. Respondents noted the least social media

usefulness on role clarity. However, it could be noted that all factors were evaluated more than average, varying from 3.5 up to 4.0 from 5 available points.

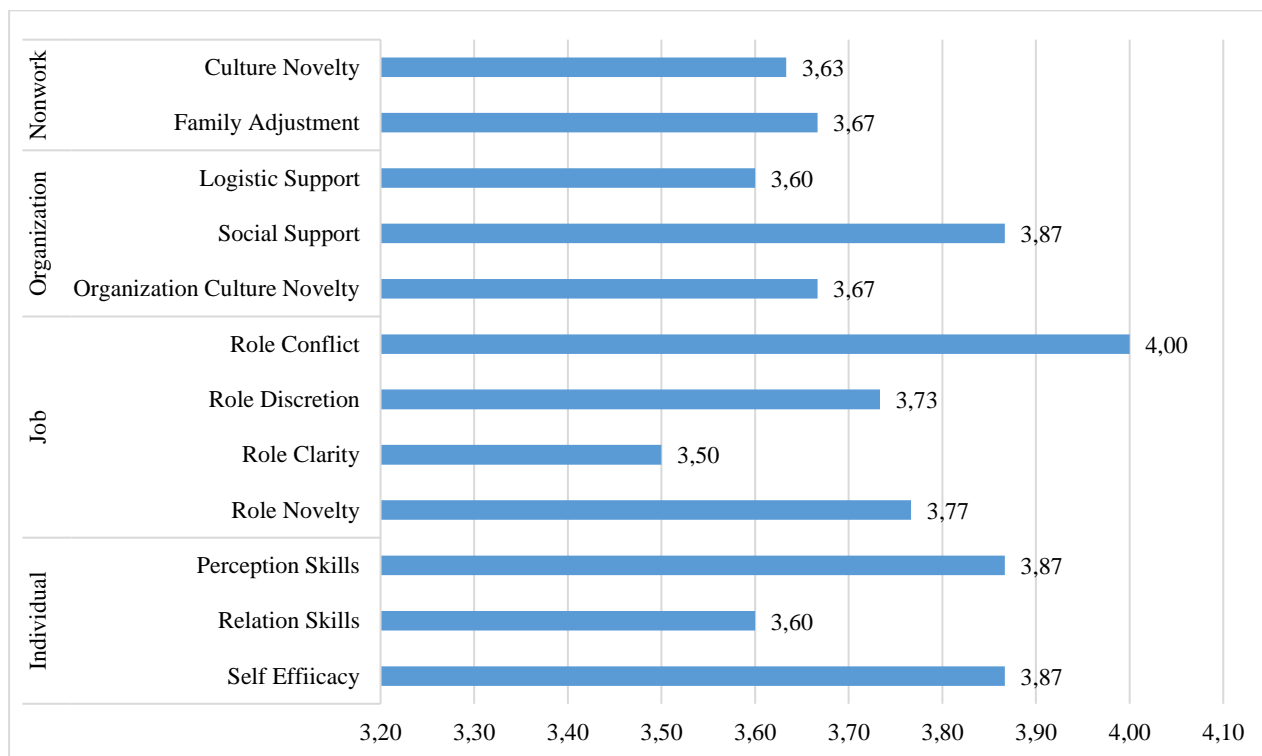


Figure 2. Means of adjustment factors

Results in relation with comparison with gender and education are presented in Table 2. According to Table 2 in relation with gender, we could see, the preferences of four factors of in-country development are different. Total 30 respondents consist of 17 males and 13 females are surveyed to better extract the information related to the importance of four in-country development factors for expatriates to better adjust in the host country through social media platform. Table 2 shows the result taken out of survey.

For males, the job-related factors have more important for adjustment of expatriates in the host country in the presence of social media platform as compared to other three factors as the mean value is the highest among all four which is 3.84. In other words, the male respondents selected the job-related factors in Black's model to help the expatriates to adjust in host country by using social media platforms. After that, the individual factors (mean value 3.80), non-work related factors (mean value 3.79), and organisation related factors (mean value 3.69) are ranked respectively as per the mean values of the responses. In case of females, as per Black's model, the individual factors organization related factors are more important among all four factors with mean value 3.74. Unlike males, females prefer individual factors to better adjust in the

host country by using social media platforms. The cumulative result of both genders validates the opinion of the females in which the individual factors with mean value 3.78 are the most important factors among the four which help the most to the expatriates for adjustment in the host country followed by job related factors (mean value 3.75), organisation related factors (mean value 3.71) and non-work related factors (mean value 3.65).

Table 2. Results comparison in relation with gender and age

			Individual Factors	Job Related Factors	Organization Related Factors	Non-Work Related Factors
Gender	Male	Mean	3,80	3,84	3,69	3,79
		N	17	17	17	17
		Std. Deviation	0,62426	0,45878	0,67155	0,75122
	Female	Mean	3,74	3,63	3,74	3,46
		N	13	13	13	13
		Std. Deviation	0,62589	0,56472	0,73477	1,18078
	Total	Mean	3,78	3,75	3,71	3,65
		N	30	30	30	30
		Std. Deviation	0,61484	0,50855	0,68779	0,95728
Age	18-25 years	Mean	3,67	3,75	3,78	4,17
		N	3	3	3	3
		Std. Deviation	0,33333	0,43301	0,69389	0,57735
	26-35 years	Mean	3,55	3,70	3,71	3,50
		N	14	14	14	14
		Std. Deviation	0,71141	0,54753	0,72627	1,09193
	36-45 years	Mean	4,07	3,78	3,57	3,60
		N	10	10	10	10
		Std. Deviation	0,51640	0,55840	0,75441	0,96609
	46-55 years	Mean	4,00	3,92	4,11	4,00
		N	3	3	3	3
		Std. Deviation	0,00000	0,38188	0,19245	0,50000
	Total	Mean	3,78	3,75	3,71	3,65
		N	30	30	30	30
		Std. Deviation	0,61484	0,50855	0,68779	0,95728

There is also the difference of perception of the respondents based upon their age group. The survey consists of four different age groups and asked about the factors highlighted in the Black's model. Each age group has different opinion regarding the significance of four factors for the adjustment of the expatriates in the host country through social media platforms. The age group of 18-25 years perceived that the non-work related factors are the most important for the adjustment of the expatriated in the host country with the highest mean value of 4.17 followed by organisation related factors (mean value 3.78), job related factors (mean value 3.75) and then individual factors (mean value 3.67). Second age group is having people from 26 to 35 years. 14 respondents are surveyed in this group and the result shows that the organisation related factors with the mean value 3.71 are more important for the successful

adjustment in the host country through the social media platforms. After this, job related factors (mean value 3.70), individual factors (mean value 3.55) and non-work-related factors (mean value 3.50) are important respectively in the Black's model. Third age group consists of age from 36 to 45 years. This group responded that the most important factors are individual with the highest mean value of 4.07 which play significant role in the adjustment of expatriates through social media platforms. Last but not least, the last group of 46 to 55 years has different opinion which responded that the organization related factors with the mean value 4.11 are the most important factors among others to have a significant role in the adjustment of expatriates. When the results are combined of the age group then it will be inferred that the most important factors in Black's model are individual factors having mean value 3.78 in the in-country development which support the expatriates to better adjust through social media platforms. This result also validates the result inferred from the gender-based responses.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Primary insights of this study concludes that if organizations will provide social media network support, such as the development of virtual communities, *Facebook* pages, and *WhatsApp* groups then it will should help for better adjustment of expatriates'.

The results also show that socializing in lieu of social media platforms, with other expatriates of the same origin, will increase the likelihood of the success of the employees sent to other countries on international assignments. The absence of social networks is one of the primary reasons for the failure of international assignment.⁴⁶

A lot of work has been done on expatriates' adjustment while keeping the focus on the various individuals, cultural, work-related and organization related factors. Although many researchers have highlighted the importance of organizational support and social media networks in assisting the process of expatriates' adjustment, non-relates to the relationship between these two. Organizations should play an important role by providing necessary support and mentoring their employees on international assignment. It is also important for the organizations to further strengthen the expatriates' adjustment process with the help of social media networks.

⁴⁶ Stahl, G. K., Miller, E. L., & Tung, R. L. (2002). Toward the boundaryless career: A closer look at the expatriate career concept and the perceived implications of an international assignment. *Journal of World Business*, 37(3): 216-227.

The usage of smartphone and other electronic devices have increased for technological innovation, based on which it is very important for organizations to organize, arrange various opportunities and welcome expatriates to become members of available social media platforms matchable to their respective cultures. This will not only provide a necessary answer to the social media related awareness and eagerness found in expatriates, but it will also contribute towards the success of international assignments.

Since most of youth is used to be hired on international assignments that's why organizations must target young generation for better adaptability to a new environment with the help of social media platforms i.e. *Facebook*, *WhatsApp* etc. While planning for initiatives to be taken with respect to the introduction of social media platforms, the organizations based on their development on "non-work related" factors since expatriates are influenced by these factors the most, apart from individual and job-related factors. Examples of non-work-related factors include the logistic assistance and importance of family adjustment.

Lastly, the introduction of social media platforms will impart positive effects on the adjustment process of expatriates. If the string of social media platforms in introduced in all the factors influencing expatriates' adjustment, such as organizational factors, individual factors, job-related and non-work-related factors, the process of their adjustment will gain more pace. Also, the socialization of expatriates with other members of community sharing same language or culture will increase the success rate of international assignment on which companies spend a significant amount of resources each year.

Future recommendations

This research shows how organizations can play their role in understanding and improving the process of expatriates' adjustment with the help of social media platforms. Following are the research areas in which researchers can be extended this research:

- To conduct future studies of social media's impact of expatriate's adjustment.
- To reveal what kind of support using social media organizations could provide for their employees. Different ways and practical methods by which organizations can actually provide opportunities to expatriates regarding adjustment including social media are still to be discovered.
- Nowadays different social media platforms have different influences on the lives of the users. It is important to find out that which social media platform is most suitable in aiding expatriates when it comes to their adjustment through organizational support.

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Annex 1

“QUESTIONNAIRE”

I am a student of (Name of Degree), from (Name of University). Currently, I am carrying out a research on the role of organizations in expatriates' adjustment using social media platforms. The main objective of this questionnaire is to obtain your response in order to access the ways in which organizations can contribute towards expatriate's adjustment in host country with the help of social media platforms. The information obtained from you will be confidential and will only be used for academic purpose only. I therefore kindly request you to answer the following questions

*Please note that this questionnaire to be filled by expatriates only.

A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION:

1. Please specify your gender:

(a) Male

(b) Female

2. What is your age?

(a) 18-25 years

(b) 26-35 years

(c) 36-45 years

(d) 45-55 years

(e) Above 55 years

3. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed? (please check one)

- (a) High School (b) College
(c) University (d) Postgraduate

4. What is your total annual income?

- (a) Below \$ 20,000 (b) \$ 21,000 – \$ 30,000
(c) \$ 31,000 – \$ 40,000 (d) \$ 41,000 – \$ 50,000
(e) Above \$51,000

5. From which country you belong?

6. Please mention your host country.

B: Role of Social Media Platforms in Expatriates Adjustment

Please answer the following questions as per the scale defined below:

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	2	3	4	5

1.	Individual Related Factors					
1.a	Presence of social media networks in an organization will help you in adjusting to new environment.	1	2	3	4	5
1.b	Availability of virtual communities in workplace will enable most of the expatriates to socialize in a better way.	1	2	3	4	5
1.c	Organizational support in form of enhanced social media awareness will make you more open minded towards making new social relationships	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Job Related Factors					
2.a	The guidance and trainings obtained through social media platforms will help you in resolving job novelty (i.e. what you used to do in past and what you will have to do now)	1	2	3	4	5
2.b	The information exchanged through virtual communities (Facebook & WhatsApp groups etc.) will play an important role in clarifying job ambiguity in new workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
2.c	Social networking groups will enable you to use previously employed behavioral mechanism to minimize ambiguity in job role.	1	2	3	4	5
2.d	By completely understanding your job role through organizational support in aforementioned ways, you will be able to manage workload in better way.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Organization Related Factors					
3.a	Not being a part of any social platform in new workplace will make it difficult for you to perceive new organizational environment.	1	2	3	4	5
3.b	Social support from social media platforms will enable overcoming new workplace barriers.	1	2	3	4	5
3.c	Logistic tips and assistance provided by virtual communities at organizational level will help you in adjusting to new place.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Non-Work-Related Factors					
4.a	Social networking groups at organizational level, based on country of origin or language, having the ability to provide adjustment related guidance to your family members, will contribute towards your overall adjustment in host country.	1	2	3	4	5
4.b	By joining social platforms, it would be easy for you to adjust your attitude, reduce anxiety, uncertainty and learn accepted behaviors of the host country.	1	2	3	4	5

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READINESS OF LITHUANIAN CHRISTIAN ORGANIZATIONS TO PROVIDE ASSISTANCE TO PERSONS SUFFERING FROM MOBBING: IS THE POTENTIAL EXPLOITED?

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Abstract. Research conducted in different parts of the world shows that mobbing is a relevant organizational and social problem, which can be also addressed by religious organizations. Inspirations of Christian values, combined with organisational management, become the outcome of potentially significant decisions. However, the analysis of scientific publications using keywords “religious organizations”, “Christian organizations”, “Christianity”, “mobbing”, “assistance”, “values”, “value congruence” shows that there is a lack of such type of research both in Lithuania and abroad, which underpins the novelty, originality and demand for the research not only in Lithuania’s but also in the international context. Therefore, the aim of this research is to investigate the potential exploited by Lithuanian Christian organizations, providing assistance to persons suffering from mobbing. To achieve this aim, three objectives were formulated: (1) to analyze religious organizations’ possibilities to recognize workplace mobbing; (2) to discuss the circumstances determining value congruence/incongruity in religious organizations; (3) to identify strengths and weaknesses of organizations, which can help or hinder assistance provision to the victims of mobbing. The study involved 9 persons working in Christian organizations. The survey was conducted using the semi-structured interview method. The research results demonstrate that religious organizations perform spiritual assistance, counselling, and charitable activities but lack knowledge of the phenomenon of workplace mobbing and the possibilities of helping the victims. Poor efforts of the religious organizations in staff training, narrow activity specialisations and value incongruity not only limit the possibilities to help the victims of mobbing but also reduce the initiative of employees themselves.

Keywords: religious organizations, Christian organizations, Christianity, workplace mobbing, assistance, values, value congruence, Lithuania.

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INTRODUCTION

Relevance of the research. Speaking metaphorically, the phenomenon of workplace mobbing, identified and described by H. Leymann (1990, 1993), became a peculiar “Pandora’s Box”, the content of which has been inexhaustible in the last three decades, going deep into the tragic consequences for victims (Leymann, Gustafsson, 1996; Duffy, Sperry, 2012) and the scale of this phenomenon, encompassing different professional activity areas (e.g., Rissi et al.,

2016; Picakciefė et al., 2017; Erdis et al., 2019; etc.). In the context of these studies, focusing on ways whose application could prevent the mobbing process and/or solve the already existing conflicts, several trends receiving the attention of the researchers of this phenomenon come to prominence. On the one hand, preventive and intervention measures applied in the organization, which include changes in management, employee training, etc., can be quite efficient (Kolodej, 2005; Asi, Okanli, 2015). On the other hand, organizations not always accentuate the problem and take adequate actions, especially when the leaders themselves are involved in the mobbing process (Vveinhardt, Žukauskas, 2012; Erdis et al., 2019). Therefore, the possibilities of external assistance for the victims of mobbing, encompassing psychotherapy (Rissi et al., 2016), counselling or legal assistance (Vveinhardt, 2009; Vveinhardt, Žukauskas, 2012) and the like, are analyzed in parallel. However, it is noted that the victims of mobbing do not receive adequate assistance from specialists (psychologists, lawyers, etc.) (Vveinhardt, Žukauskas, 2012). In addition, legal aid possibilities vary from country to country, protection against mobbing is ambiguous (Lippel, 2011; Petrylaitė, 2011; Stephen, Sasi, 2017), and persons who have become victims are no longer able to make use of existing legal possibilities (Kolodej, 2005; Duffy, Sperry, 2007). Therefore, it is not a coincidence that research on assistance to the victim of mobbing highlights the importance of moral assistance of the closest environment (Kolodej, 2005). Based on the ecological model, several authors have pointed out that several layers ranging from the microsystem to the macrosystem interact in mobbing processes (Johnson, 2011; Lee, 2011). However, these ideas are not developed sufficiently widely, particularly with regard to the role performed by religious communities in assistance provision. Involvement of religious communities in the assistance to the victims of mobbing can be relevant in several respects. *First*, participation of clergy and laity in spiritual assistance provision has long been recognized as practice that has served the purpose (Bullis, 1996; Zenkert et al., 2014; Benson et al., 2016; etc.). *Second*, Christian organizations have a wide traditionally formed network. For example, in Lithuania alone, there are 1155 Christian religious organizations, of which 896 are Roman Catholics (The Lithuanian Department of Statistics, 2017). *Third*, Christian organizations follow traditionally defined value principles that are orientated to assistance to suffering persons (Lenzenweger et al., 1989; Ratzinger, 2000; Giussani, 2007; etc.). And *fourth*, employees and volunteers of these organizations should foster the same values, which increases the effectiveness of activities (Arruñada, 2010; Vveinhardt, Gulbovaite, 2017). However, having entered keywords “religious organizations”, “Christian organizations”, “Christianity”, “mobbing”, “assistance”, “values”, “value

congruence” into Web of Science Core Collection (Clarivate Analytics), SCOPUS, and other databases, no research covering these aspects was found; only several indirectly related studies were detected. Therefore, the **research problem** is formulated by the question: How do Lithuanian Christian organizations use their potential, providing assistance to the victims of workplace mobbing?

The research aim is to investigate the potential exploited by Lithuanian Christian organizations, providing assistance to persons suffering from mobbing.

To achieve this aim, three **objectives** were formulated: (1) to analyze religious organizations’ possibilities to recognize workplace mobbing; (2) to discuss the circumstances determining value congruence/incongruity in religious organizations; (3) to identify strengths and weaknesses of organizations, which can help or hinder assistance provision to the victims of mobbing.

Research methods. The theoretical part of the research was prepared by analyzing research in the areas of social sciences, humanities, the fields of management, psychology, theology and other sciences, mainly published in peer reviewed journals in Web of Science Core Collection (Clarivate Analytics) and/or SCOPUS databases. To conduct the empirical research; i.e., the semi-structured interview, based on the scientific literature analysis, questions for prospective research participants were prepared. Data collected during the interviews were analyzed based on *Emic* and *Etic* perspectives approach proposed by J. L. Krysik and J. Finn (2010).

THEORETICAL REVIEW

The conception of spiritual assistance arises from the religious context but is not limited to it (Dyson et al., 1997; Newman, 2004; Lazenby, 2010; White et al., 2011; etc.). Its content consists of compassion, selfless service, work as a form of mediation (McCormick, 1994), God as a system of faith, and the relation with other persons (Dyson et al., 1997). In this context, J. Fisher (2011) distinguished several integrally related areas: personal, in which the person is related to himself; the community area based on close interpersonal relationships; the environment area, including nature; and the transcendental area related to something beyond human boundaries. In addition, as J. Jones et al. (2016) emphasize, spirituality is associated with a holistic, person-centred approach, seeking to restore the sense of well-being, recognize individual problem coping strategies, restoring the perception of meaning and aim. This is relevant in case of marginal experiences of personal existence while the person is searching for

meaning (Cotton et al., 2009), but in practice, providing assistance, this often remains a challenge that is difficult to cope with (Jones et al., 2016) when the person experiences physical and spiritual suffering. Therefore, scholars studying spiritual assistance possibilities often focus on mortally ill and hospitalized persons (McBrien, 2006; Lazenby, 2010; Sadat et al., 2017) as well as on social work practice (Tigchelaar et al., 2016; Moffatt, Oxhandler, 2018), highlighting the person's spiritual growth integrating biological, psychological, social, and interpersonal human relationship links (Carroll, 2001). In addition, attention was drawn to the fact that religious spirituality can help coping with anxiety (Rowell et al., 2019), various psychological traumas (Zenkert et al., 2014; Benson et al., 2016). Although spiritual assistance strategies are applied by both lay professionals and clerics, consultants of religious organizations (Bullis, 1996; Ruth-Sahd et al., 2018), it is noted that religious faith and the sense of identity related to it as well as perceived transcendental significance have a peculiar effect (Dyson et al., 1997; Kiesling et al., 2006; White et al., 2011), especially for persons who experienced psychological traumas (Vis, Boynton, 2008). It is urged to consider this aspect in assistance provision and alongside with integration of psychological and religious interventions, the identity of the assistance provider's and the client's worldviews is emphasized (Utsch, 2007). In other words, there is a necessity for congruence of attitudes and values, which creates a favourable medium for interpersonal understanding, interaction and effective assistance.

Congruence of organizational and employee values determines that employees favourably assess performed work, which ultimately determines the effectiveness of the whole organization's activities (Posner, 1992; Vveinhardt, Gulbovaitė, 2016; 2017). This stems from positive relationships based on shared values and promotes mutual trust and positive communication (Edwards, Cable, 2009), job satisfaction while taking care of others (Verplanken, 2004), reduces the risk of burnout (Veage et al., 2014), which is particularly relevant in the activity areas in which employees have frequent intense direct contacts with customers. Besides, a number of studies show that another factor determining better quality of activity is job satisfaction (Kalliath et al., 1999; Edwards, Cable, 2009; Spanjol et al., 2015), which simultaneously promotes engagement in voluntary activities, providing assistance to others (Schaubroeck, Ganster, 1991). This is relevant to the quality of activities of both profit-seeking and non-profit organizations' employees. Research shows that in non-profit organizations, value congruence is positively related to organizational change and its support (Lamm et al., 2010), information sharing (Cazier et al., 2007), etc. On the other hand, it is noted that non-conformity of values has a negative impact on volunteers working in the organization

(Newton, Mazur, 2016), and employees can save energy when their goals are not harmonized with organizational goals (Jensen et al., 2019). In other words, non-profit organisations and organisations performing social missions should ensure that the values they foster correspond to traditional values of culture represented by employees, as this will affect not only the organisation's internal environment but also customer relationships (Vveinhardt, Gulbovaitė, 2012). Other research shows that traditional values fostered by religion, such as love, justice, respect for the individual, make a positive impact on the organisation's human resources and their work quality (Koys, 2001; Arruñada, 2010) as well as influence coping with stressful situations (Ano, Vasconcelles, 2005) that are often encountered by persons volunteering in organizations (Jenkinson et al., 2013; Claxton-Oldfield, 2016; Kaveh et al., 2017). In this context, religiosity, religious practice can also help to overcome stress (Choo, Smith, 2016).

Analyzing links how values influence antisocial behaviour, R. P. Monteiro et al. (2017) concluded that human values were an important variable, seeking to understand young people's aggressive behaviour and bullying. Another study (Menesini et al., 2013) showed that, irrespective of gender, moral values had led to manifestation of both traditional and cyber bullying in interpersonal relationships. The role of values has also been confirmed in studies investigating aggressive behaviour manifesting itself by bullying among adults; i.e., at the workplace (Cowie et al., 2002; Yamada, 2008). In this context, the significant role is played not only by clashes of different values, the value environment within the organization itself but also by the social assistance to the victim who is not always successfully applying conflict resolution strategies. For example, D. Zapf and C. Gross (2010) argue that bullying means an unresolved social conflict that has reached a high level of escalation and increased power imbalance. Their research shows that victims did not always use constructive ways of solution and were forced to leave the job. Therefore, assistance of the social environment is often named as one of the ways of assistance to the victim (Zapf, Gross, 2010; Carroll, Lauzier, 2014). Although the importance of legal assistance to victims is often emphasized, according to S. L. Johnson (2009), legal aid is not the only way, although it provides certain protection. Victims experiencing intense attack find it difficult to adequately assess the situation and independently resolve the conflict, therefore, they need more extensive assistance. Thus, several research results emphasize the importance of supervision and counselling (Greene, 2003; Drüge et al., 2013; Drüge et al., 2015); however, victims' testimonies show that they find it difficult to find colleagues, friends, consultants or doctors (Vveinhardt, Žukauskas, 2012; Acquadro Maran et al., 2018). G. Namie et al. (2009) name such assistance measures in the USA as toll-free

telephone crisis line, the society's education, counselling, training, etc., although acknowledge that they are insufficient. This calls for greater involvement of communities and non-governmental organizations.

Research Methodology. The analysis of scientific literature and systematisation of research were followed by preparation of research methodology and development of the research instrument consisting of the following three main parts: (1) *perception of the problem in religious organizations*; (2) *value congruence of religious organizations and their members*; (3) *readiness of the members of the organization to provide assistance to the victims of mobbing* (Table 1).

Table 1. Parts of the research instrument and the context for categories and subcategories

Parts	Context for categories and subcategories	Sources
Perception of the problem in religious organizations	Because there is a lack of research directly analyzing the perception of the workplace mobbing problem in religious organizations, the study is also based on the research considering how organizations respond to various challenges arising in their activity practice in the religious context.	Ano, Vasconcelles, 2005; Cotton et al., 2006; Vensel, 2012; Choo, Smith, 2016; Sadat et al., 2017; Moffatt, Oxhandler, 2018; etc.
Value congruence of religious organizations and their members	Attention is drawn to the way in which organizations solve problems caused by value congruence/incongruity, the impact of these decisions on the efficacy of employee activities, and the role of employee religiosity in this context.	Posner, 1992; Koys, 2001; Verplanken, 2004; Arruñada, 2010; Lazenby, 2010; Charbonnier-Voirin et al., 2016; Malbasic et al., 2018; etc.
Readiness of the members of the organization to provide assistance to the victims of mobbing	The study assesses the research analyzing the responses of the organisation's members, that is, the employees of the various levels of the organization, as well as the very organizations' responses to workplace mobbing. Alongside, the trajectories of spiritual assistance, investigated in the research, are taken into account.	Bullis, 1996; Posner, 1992; Kolodej, 2005; Lazenby, 2010; Vensel, 2012; Zenkert, et al., 2014; Carroll, Lauzier, 2014; Benson et al., 2016; etc.

Preparation of the basic interview questions was grounded on systematized research (Table 1), on the basis of which three categories were distinguished, detailing every category by two subcategories: 1) *provided spiritual assistance*: ways and accessibility of assistance; 2) *competencies of assistance providers*: human resources and competence development; 3) *practice of assistance provision to the victims of mobbing*: specialists' possessed knowledge of workplace mobbing and provided assistance (Table 2).

9 basic questions, which were further used as a basis for interviewing informants, were assigned to the distinguished categories and subcategories. Based on the topics discussed in the first two categories, the informants' and their organisations' experiences in providing spiritual assistance and organisation of that assistance are investigated. Afterwards, taking into account that informants may be unfamiliar with the workplace mobbing phenomenon, essential information is provided; later, the possessed experiences are detailed. The above-mentioned basic questions were supplemented with value congruence aspects, which were used to reveal value correspondence of both religious organizations and their members.

Table 2. Categories, subcategories of the research instrument and the context for interview questions

Categories	Subcategories	Context for interview questions	Sources
Provided spiritual assistance (PSA)	Ways of provided assistance	The type of spiritual assistance provided to applicants is investigated. It is examined in what ways persons seeking assistance find specialists providing assistance.	White et al., 2011; Tigchelaar et al., 2016; Wright, 2017; Moffatt, Oxhandler, 2018; etc.
	Accessibility of assistance		
Competencies of assistance providers (CAP)	Organisational human resources, providing the assistance	It is investigated what education professionals providing assistance have and how their competencies are developed: personally or through the efforts of the organization.	Namie, Namie, 2009; Vveinhardt, Žukauskas, 2012; Benson et al., 2016; Ruth-Sahd et al., 2018; etc.
	Competence development of specialists providing assistance		
Practice of assistance provision to the victims of mobbing (PAP)	Specialists' possessed knowledge of workplace mobbing	It is identified what professionals providing assistance know about workplace mobbing. Information is collected about experiences, having encountered victims of this phenomenon, and what measures were used to provide assistance.	Leymann, 1993; Kolodej, 2005; Ferris, 2009; Namie, Namie, 2009; Lee, 2011; Vveinhardt, Žukauskas, 2012; Vensel, 2012; etc.
	Provided assistance		

Source: Deikus, M. (2019). „Kiek kartų tai padarėte vienam iš šitų mažiausiųjų mano brolių, man padarėte” (Mt 25,40): pagalba nukentėjusiems nuo mobingo Lietuvos krikščioniškose organizacijose. *Iššūkiai ir socialinė atsakomybė versle-Challenges and Social Responsibility in Business* (in Press).

The data collected during the study were analyzed based on *Emic* and *Etic* perspectives approach proposed by J. L. Krysik and J. Finn (2010), when a quote reflecting the investigated person's attitude, thinking, which is significant in the researcher's opinion, is given (in the study, *in italics*) and a story is developed, the researcher's interpretations are presented. As stated by L. M. Given (2008), this approach is very important, seeking to understand how people perceive the world around them. Although this attitude is more subjective than objective, comparing it with the quantitative approach (Morey, Luthans, 1984), but it is widely used as a reliable method (Morris et al., 1999; Krysik, Finn, 2010).

RESEARCH ETHICS, ORGANIZATION AND RESULTS

Research ethics. The study is conducted in conformity with the Code of Academic Ethics (2012), which is based on fundamental values outlining the researcher's responsibility for the society and morality, both conducting the research and publishing its results. During the interviews, the following ethical principles were followed (Gurevičius et al., 2009): the principle of the right not to be offended; the principle of the right not to be exploited; the research utility principle; the principle of respect for the person's dignity; the principles of justice, privacy, confidentiality and anonymity.

Organization of the research. In the first stage of the organization of the research, Christian organizations registered in Lithuania, which in public space announce that they provide assistance, were selected, and 37 e-mails were sent out. The invitations to participate in the study, presenting its aim, course, guaranteeing anonymity and confidentiality of the

prospective research participants and highlighting the assistance to sufferers (i.e., focusing on Christian values), were sent out at the officially indicated e-mail addresses of these organisations. Since feedback was received only from two organizations (the refusals to take part in the research were submitted), *in the second stage of research organization* the organisations' representatives were addressed by telephone, asking to indicate concrete persons providing spiritual assistance. *In the third stage of the research organization*, the recommended persons were contacted, and upon informants' consent to participate in the research, the research aim was exhaustively presented and further use of data was explained. Upon the receipt of verbal voluntary consents to participate in the research and permissions to record interviews with the dictaphone, it was ensured that upon transcription, the electronic record media would be destroyed. The interviews lasted from 1 to 1,5 hours. When data saturation was reached, the survey was completed, having interviewed 9 informants. After transcribing records, the electronic media were destroyed.

Research participants. Interviews were conducted with 9 persons (hereinafter, informants) working in different Christian organizations, who hold a Master's degree in Social Work, Spiritual Counselling, Theology and a Bachelor's Degree in Social Work, Theology. The informants' (encoded as I1, I2 ... I9) demographic data are presented in Table 3.

Table 3. Summarized data of informants

Code	Age	Gender	Education	Activity
I1	48	Female	Master's degree in Social Work	Manager
I2	25	Female	Master's degree in Social Work	Counsellor
I3	34	Male	Master's degree in Theology	Manager
I4	26	Female	Master's degree in Social Work	Counsellor
I5	27	Male	Bachelor's degree in Theology	Cleric
I6	24	Female	Master's degree in Spiritual Counselling and Assistance	Counsellor
I7	26	Female	Master's degree in Spiritual Counselling and Assistance	Counsellor
I8	41	Male	Master's degree in Theology	Head of the department
I9	37	Female	Bachelor's degree in Social Work	Social worker

Informants' age ranged from 24 to 48 years; and responsibilities, from the ordinary employee to the manager, which shows that they cover different age groups and experiences. All the informants have acquired higher education, which by fields can be divided into three groups; the first, social work specialists; the second, theologians; and the third, the specialists of spiritual counselling and assistance.

Research results. Three sub-categories (*ways of assistance, accessibility of assistance and value congruence/incongruity*) are distinguished in the category of provided spiritual assistance (PSA), which in the analysis of informants' answers, are broken down into additional further subcategories (Fig. 1). Within the subcategory *ways of assistance*, three more further subcategories come to prominence, showing the trends of provided assistance. Although it is

not always possible to distinguish between spiritual assistance (compassion, support, faith strengthening by evangelizing) and psychological help, since interested persons need assistance solving emotional problems and conflicts, the informant representing a public institution tends to entrust spiritual matters to the ecclesiastical parish (for spiritualization), keeping himself aloof from their solution and focusing on psychological assistance and mediation. This way, a peculiar specialization comes to prominence, although the founder of the public institution is a religious institution. In this case, spiritual counsellors provide a more universal assistance, but their specialization, again, has limitations.

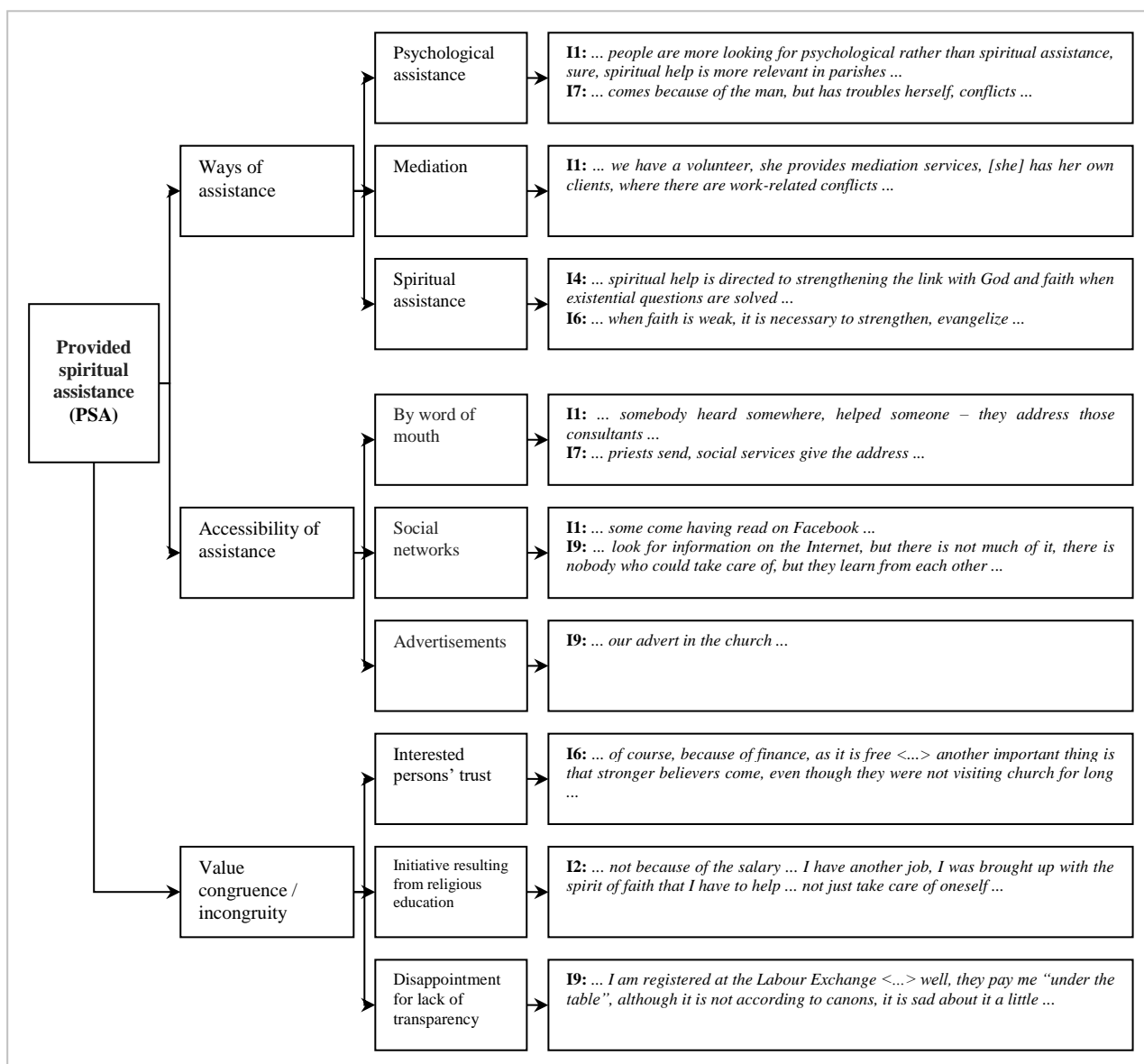
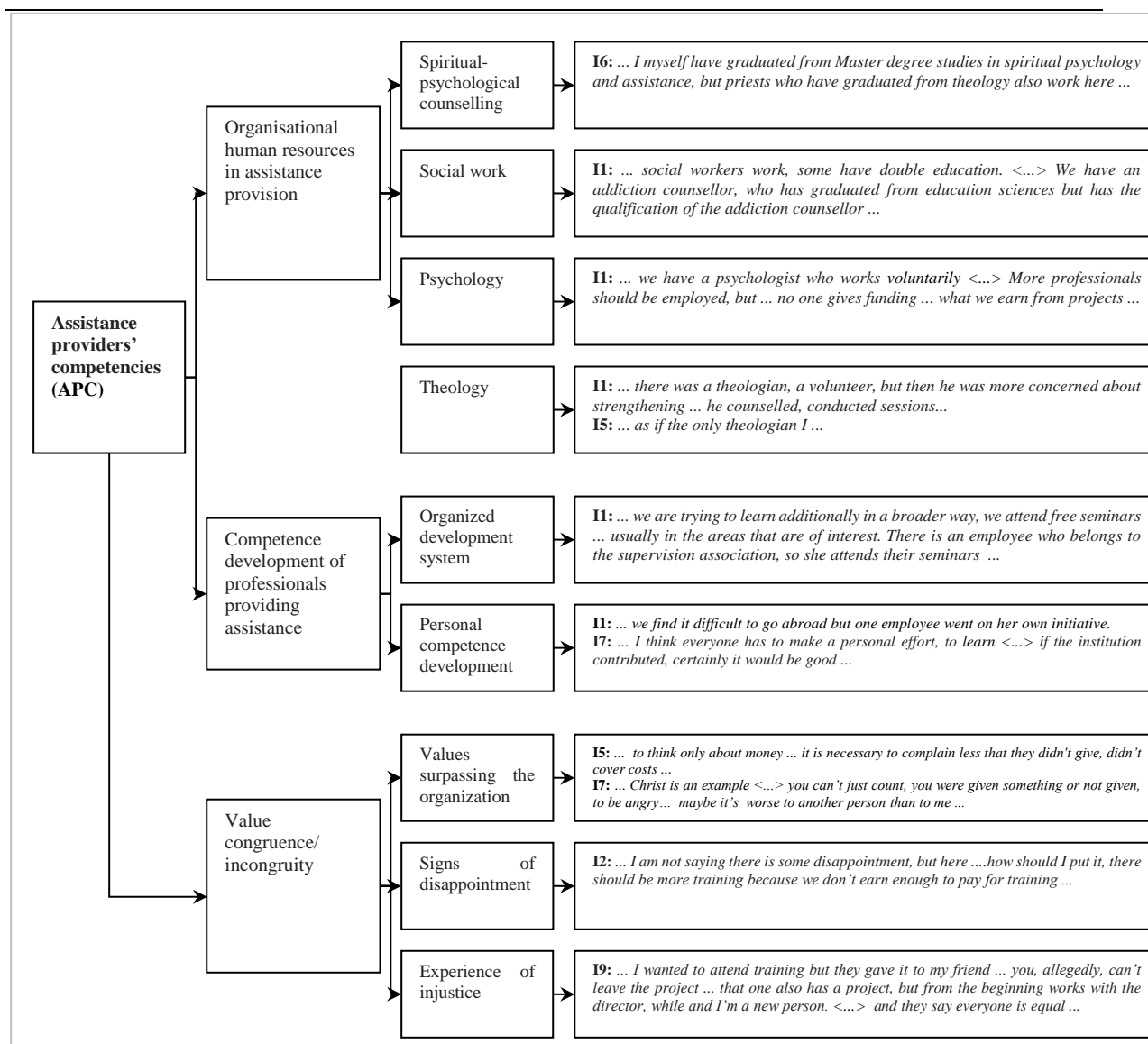


Fig. 1. Ways of spiritual assistance in the value congruence context

Three main information channels came to prominence in the assistance accessibility subcategory, such as written adverts in parishes, online announcements, and verbal information.

The latter consists of information provided to interested persons by state institutions and priests who are addressed. On the one hand, it is significant that employees of state institutions perceive the need for spiritual assistance, and on the other hand, this reveals certain ambiguity if the public religious institution keeps itself aloof from spiritual assistance that the informant needs alongside with psychological assistance. In this context, congruence of organizational and employee values positively influences employees' personal inspirations to help the person seeking assistance. At the same time, values declared by the organization are in line with the interested person's expectations, which promotes trust in the person providing assistance. However, incongruity of values of the religious organization and employees can manifest itself when the employee realizes that the declared high moral standards, based on faith in Christ, do not conform to the activity practice, particularly when injustice is experienced personally (Fig. 1).

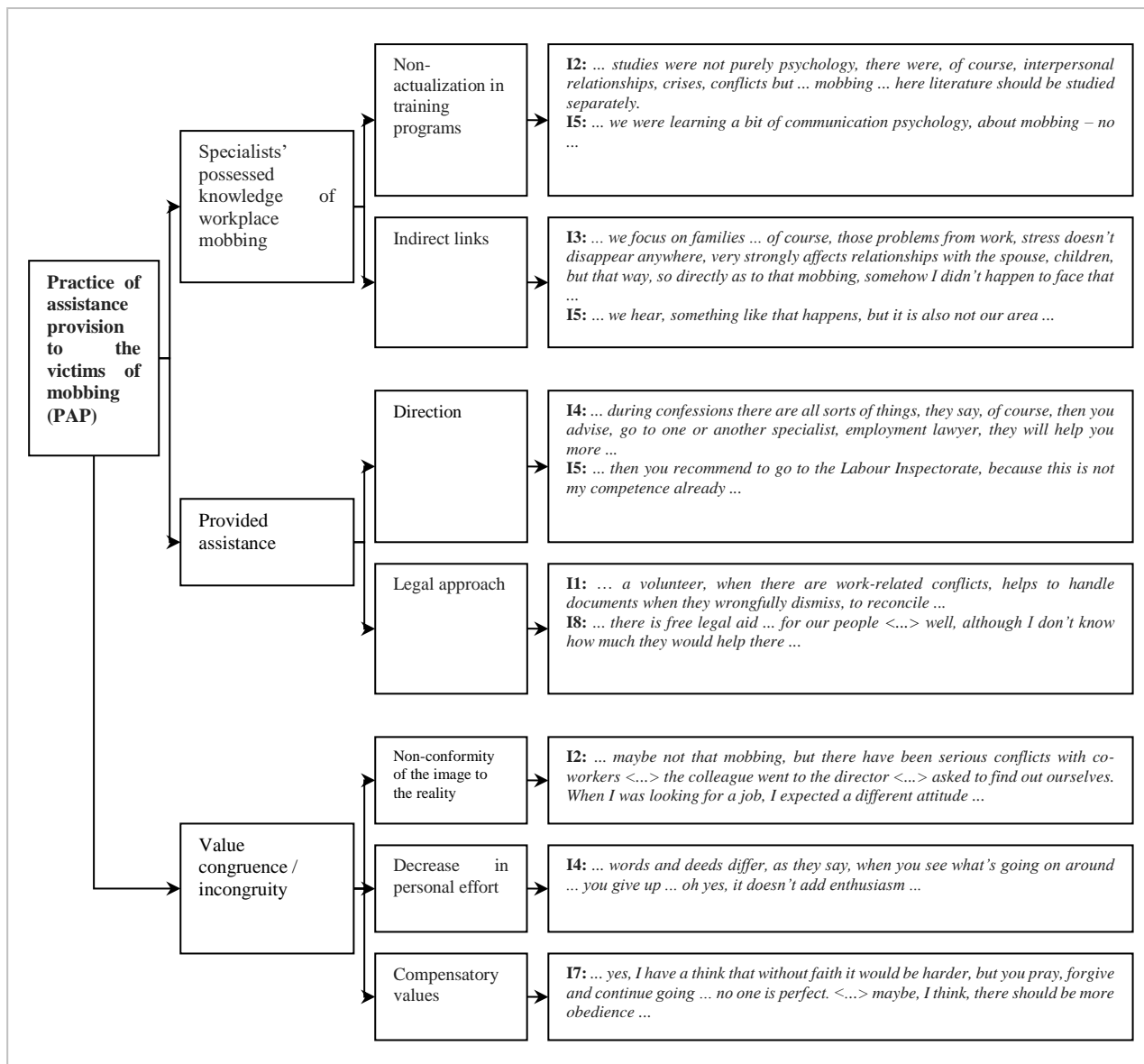
In the sub-category representing human resources, four fields of specialization came to prominence (two in the figure are named as further sub-categories), one of which – spiritual counsellors who have acquired joint education in theology and psychology – is overlapping. Given that assistance to the victims of workplace mobbing requires a broader range of competencies, the problem of the institution's *Organized competence development system* came to prominence in the sub-category *Competence development of professionals providing assistance*. That is, the institution focuses on free training, does not have a clear direction (free services are prioritized) and does not plan investments in employee training. Improvement is left for the personal initiative of employees themselves (further sub-category *Personal competence development*). Thus, in the context of identity of organizational and employee values, incongruity can emerge in two aspects. First, the employee realizing that the declared high moral values are inconsistent with their practical application (specifically, by allowing or forbidding to attend training) can suffer due to experienced injustice. Second, unsatisfied expectations can lead to disappointment. Alongside, the value aspect going beyond the organization's locus also becomes apparent. That is, religious values and a personally perceived mission can minimize the discontent experienced in the organization. However, there remains a risk that, employing religious inspirations, organizations saving money may opt out of employee competence development (Fig. 2).



2 Fig. Assistance providers' competencies and their development in the context of value congruence

In the category *Practice of assistance provision to the victims of mobbing* (PAP) (Fig. 3), three sub-categories are distinguished (*Specialists' possessed knowledge of workplace mobbing*, *Provided assistance*, and *Value congruence/incongruity*). Based on informants' answers, two further sub-categories are distinguished in the subcategory *Specialists' possessed knowledge of workplace mobbing* (*Non-actualization in training programs* and *Indirect links*). In the first case, the lack of basic knowledge about the phenomenon after finishing educational institutions is revealed; and in the second case, the possibilities to use knowledge acquired according to the training program. On the one hand, informants have certain knowledge of psychology and conflict management, acquired in the study process. On the other hand, clarifying questions reveal that the features of workplace mobbing are noticed both working

with interested persons and in the organization itself – in the relationships with co-workers. However, the possessed knowledge is insufficient to identify a specific conflict that is named as workplace mobbing. Therefore, the possibilities to help both victims as well as persons who happened to face such conflict themselves remain limited, preventing to make adequate decisions. This is related to the second sub-category (*Provided assistance*), which is divided into *Direction* and *Legal aid*. This can be described as a positive way of acting when the deficit of knowledge and abilities is perceived and the person is directed to other professionals. However, this is a formally functional solution, in a way opting out, because the informants' responses do not reveal any signs of spiritual support. In the sub-category Value congruence/ incongruity, three further sub-categories elaborating it are distinguished.



3 Fig. Practice of assistance provision to the victims of mobbing in the context of value congruence

On the one hand, value interactions between the organisational image and the future employee can be named as a certain pre-congruent stage. In this stage, the prospective employee detects identical values promoting the choice or non-selection of the organization. The second stage can be named as incongruity between expectations and reality or the stage determining disappointment, which can lead to reduction in the effort to do the job. On the other hand, Christian faith is not limited to the organizational context, and although religious values do not coincide with organizational ones, they carry out a specific compensatory function promoting performance of one's perceived duty (Fig. 3).

DISCUSSION

Based on the analysis of the content of interview transcripts, informants' answers are divided into 3 main categories, 7 subcategories and 25 further sub-categories, which reveal informants' opinion how Lithuanian Christian organizations use their potential, providing assistance to the victims of workplace mobbing in the context of value congruence. This shows a broad panorama of available and unused opportunities and elaborates on the advantages and disadvantages, expanding aspects of assistance for sufferers (Fig. 4).

First, it comes to prominence that the ways of assistance vary from mediation to psychological counselling. Persons practicing spiritual counselling do not apply mediation, while the latter help in a narrow area; therefore, only partial, scattered assistance can reach the victims of workplace mobbing, because, as stated by G. Namie and R. Namie (2009), it is necessary to know the overall aspects of the phenomenon, including not only psychological coping strategies but national law matters as well. *Second*, informants' responses demonstrate that three communication channels are used to inform about assistance opportunities; however, communication is passive, disorganized, and the activity does not show any features of active strategy. Professionals lack knowledge of mobbing because this is disregarded in training programs and organizational development programs, although this can be partly offset by employees' personal initiatives. In this context, religious organizations as peculiarly institutionally organised Christian communities focus on narrow, traditionally perceived ways of assistance and do not consider the broader aspect of the community (Vveinhardt, Žukauskas, 2012; Moon et al., 2016), which can generate a positive effect of informal community participation.

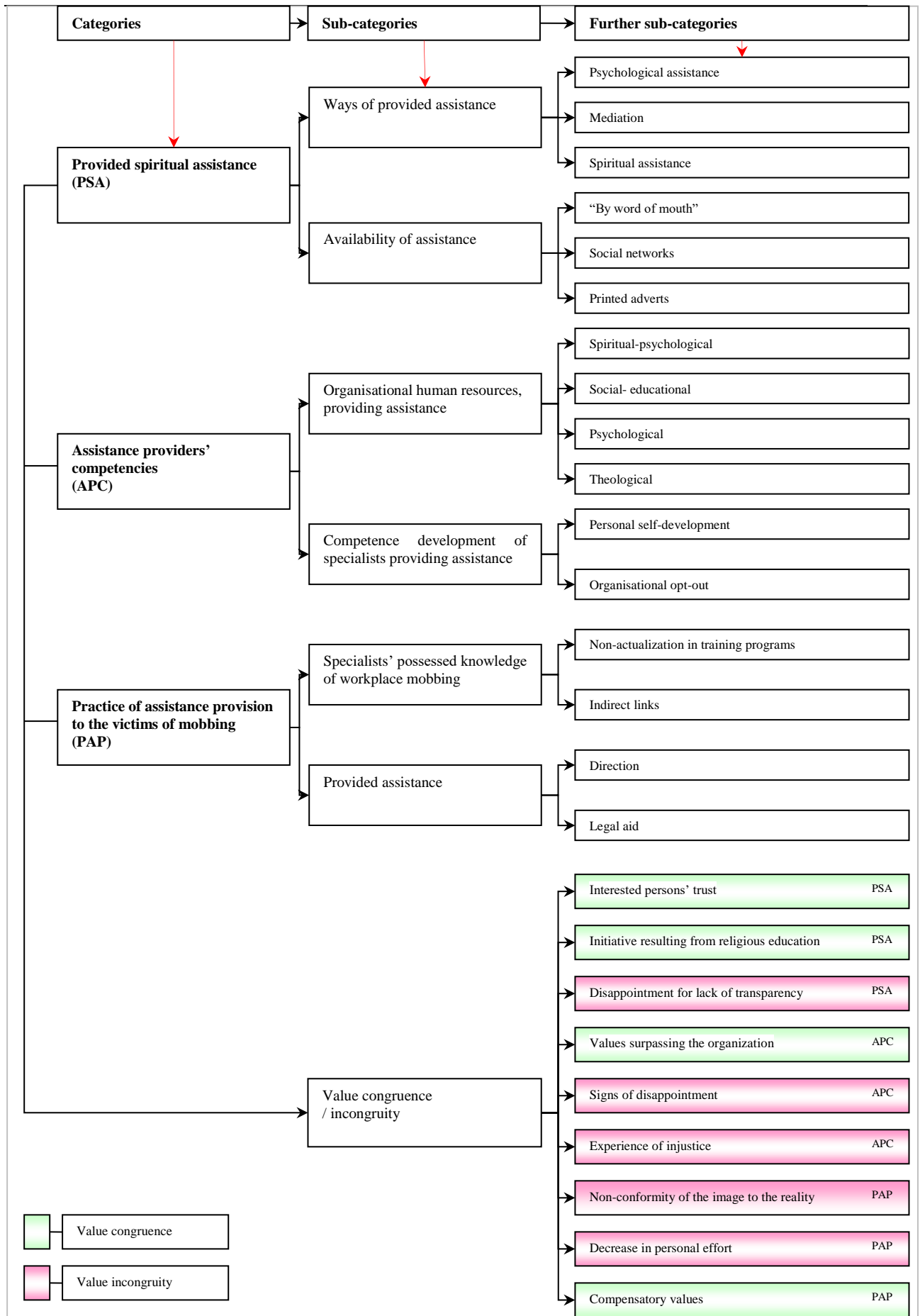


Fig. 4. The potential of Christian organizations, helping the victims of workplace mobbing in the context of value congruence

Besides, as far as it can be inferred within the scope of this study, Christian organizations skimp on funding for employee competence development, which, bearing in mind employees' limited basic training at educational institutions, limits further opportunities to encompass broader contexts of assistance, learning about the ways of coping with workplace mobbing and learning to cope with it. When assistance providers are unable to identify the problem due to the lack of competence (Namie, Namie, 2009), the victim does not have the opportunity to receive adequate help. The narrow, well-established activity specialization creates a formalized, closed "self-satisfied" bureaucratic structure, which is not open to new challenges. It may be difficult for such structure to include assistance for persons who have suffered from workplace mobbing into the list of its activities. The results of the study demonstrate that in the context of religious organizations' assistance to the victims of mobbing, it makes sense to evaluate the aspects of value congruence/incongruity too. In Fig. 4, nine sub-categories are subdivided into further sub-categories of congruence and incongruity. These further sub-categories revealing value congruence are marked in green; while value incongruity, in pink. The results confirm that employee choices can be influenced by the image of the organization, which corresponds to the person's value expectations and positively influences employee loyalty and engagement in activities (Punjaisri, Wilson 2007), but non-conformity of declared values, emphasized in practice, promotes disappointment. This disappointment comes to prominence from realization that management decisions are wrong not only because of violation of legislation by illegal payment of salaries and deprivation of social guarantees but also in the further development area. In this case, personal improvement inspirations resulting from the outcomes of faith to help sufferers collide over the approaches of the organization that is as if involved in this value context at the level of declarations but in practice is far from it. On the one hand, the results confirm that the value level can be of service for relationships with interested persons to whom it is sought to provide assistance (Schaubroeck, Ganster, 1991; Verplanken, 2004), but on the other hand, it has not been identified that organisations promote this. At the same time, it should be noted that, based on the results, religious organizations fall under a peculiar "umbrella" of Christian faith, which promotes religious persons' trust, simultaneously to some extent compensating for the dissatisfaction experienced in the organization. This phenomenon arises not from the organizations themselves but from religiosity of employees entering them; therefore, there is a risk that religious organizations may tend to exploit this, minimizing their

own efforts. This, again, may adversely affect organizations' efforts, among other objectives, also to include assistance for persons who have suffered from workplace mobbing.

CONCLUSIONS

This research broadens the spectrum of studies on assistance to the victims of workplace mobbing, as it investigates a new attitude, seeking to assess the possibilities of religious organizations' input in this area. Following the declared principle of assistance to the close person, religious organizations could make a significant contribution, providing spiritual assistance to victims, informing them and directing them to specialists. However, this potential is limited by three closely interrelated circumstances. *First*, the problem of workplace mobbing is not emphasized in organizations, although they encounter its consequences. This is determined not only by the gaps in training specialists working in organizations at higher education institutions, but also by the employee competence development policy implemented by the organisations themselves. In this context, organizations' passivity is contrasted with employee initiatives inspired by religious values, both seeking to improve and disseminating information about provided assistance, which is not used at the organizational level. *Second*, values declared by religious organizations promote persons who feel value identity to participate in religious organizations' activities. However, in practice, value incongruity is experienced. It is related to employee development and social guarantees, and when expectations are not met, this promotes disappointment. Organizations that do not appreciate the potential of value congruence in practical activities are taking risk not to exploit employees' personal initiatives that could be significant for the expansion of the range of provided services that could also include assistance to the victims of workplace mobbing. It therefore follows that, *third*, Christian organizations do not use available possibilities to help the victims of workplace mobbing due to the narrow specialization of their activities and manifestation of value incongruity suppressing employee initiatives inspired by religious faith.

Limitations of the research: only the employees of Roman Catholic religious organizations operating in Lithuania were interviewed; therefore, the research results do not reflect the situation in the organizations belonging to other confessions.

Practical and scientific significance of the research. The research results revealed both strengths and weaknesses of religious organizations' activities, which can be named as certain fields for further improvement. This is relevant not only expanding assistance to the victims of workplace mobbing, involving religious organizations as well, but also improving the quality

of the assistance provided so far. This is the first such type of research analyzing the possibilities of involving religious organizations in assistance provision to the victims of mobbing not only in Lithuania. A new attitude is proposed, which may be developed in the future. Distinguished categories, subcategories, and further subcategories may be of service designing a quantitative measurement instrument.

Trends of further research. In the future, it would make sense to repeat the study in religious organizations of other confessions as well as in several different countries. It is meaningful to conduct a quantitative study to perform a more accurate measurement of the situation.

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THE LEGAL FRAMEWORK GOVERNING THE STATE BORDERS BETWEEN THE REPUBLIC OF LATVIA AND THE REPUBLIC OF BELARUS

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Abstract. The theme of the research is topical in the face of today's challenges of combating illegal immigration, counter-terrorism and international crime, and maintaining national sovereignty and territorial integrity in the context of hybrid war and other aggressive activities. The legal framework of the state border of Latvia and Belarus is being researched in terms of national border security and internal security of two neighbouring countries. The research methods include legal analysis method to study the legal framework of both neighbouring countries in the area of border and border area regimes in Latvia and Belarus, the historical method of studying the development of legal regulation in the 20th and 21st century and the empirical method of reviewing legal practice and scientific knowledge in the field of research.

Keywords: border regime, state border, border treaty, inviolability and inalterability of the state border.

INTRODUCTION

Since October 2017, Rezekne Technology Academy is implementing the European Regional Development Fund Postdoctoral Research Support Project “EU External Border Security, Latvian Internal Security” No.1.1.2 / VIAA / 1/16/127. Project executor is postdoctoral researcher Dr. iur. Arturs Gaveika. The cooperation partner of the project is the State Border Guard College.

The state border between Latvia and Belarus is described in border treaty (hereinafter - Latvian - Belarusian Border Treaty, 1994) concluded in 1994 between Latvia and Belarus, at the intersection of borders between Latvia, Belarus, Russia (“Friendship Kurgan”) is basically in line with the border determined in 1920 Peace Treaty Article 3 which, in turn, accounts for about 30% of the 1920 border between Latvia and Russia. Article 3 of the Peace Treaty with the Latvian-Belarusian Border Treaty has lost its force since neither Latvia nor Belarus has ever touched upon the issue that Belarus could be bound by Article 3 of the 1920 Latvia-Russia Peace Treaty in the part that affecting the borders of both countries on the basis of the succession of Belarusian law, i.e. there is a mutual silence agreement that countries do not consider Belarus

to be the successor of the rights of the Russian Federation and the USSR to Part 3 of the Latvia-Russia 1920 Peace treaty. The Latvian - Belarusian Border Treaty did not change the territory of Latvia, nor did the Latvian - Belarusian Border Treaty be disputed, so its further analysis is not necessary (MK Atbildes raksts LR Satversmes tiesai lietā Nr.2007-10-0102, p 3.6.3.) Although some Belarusian historians believe that the former Daugavpils, Rezekne and Ludza counties used to live in the former times by Belarusians (Институт белоруской истории и культуры, 2019).

The author agrees with prof. D.A.Lēber's point of view (Lēbers, 2005) that the unilateral amendment of the status of the border has no basis in international law, as noted in several works of law scientists and even in the international conference on borders held in Moscow in 1994 (Островский, Постнов, 1994) Borders created in violation of international law are not protected by the principle of inviolability of borders (Conference on Security and Cooperation in Europe: Final Act, 1 August 1975). The representative of the Soviet Belarus, commenting (United Nations Conference on Succession of States in Respect of Treaties, Analytical Compilation of Comments by Governments. U.N. Doc. A/Conf. 80/5, 1977) on Article 11 of the Vienna Convention on the Succession of National Laws on International Treaties of 1978, which contained provisions on the boundaries established by the treaty (Vienna Convention on Succession of States in respect of Treaties, 1978), stated that these rules are “applicable in cases where the succession of national law has arisen under international law, thus excluding cases of aggression or occupation”.

Prof. D.A.Leber points out that Russian scientists have also stated that states have committed themselves to refusing to recognize unlawful territorial changes and that this follows from the principle of inalterability of borders. Thus, in order to answer the question of which of the two borders is protected as inalterable, the meaning of the principle of *uti possidetis* (as you possess) confirms the inalterability of borders. Essentially, the *uti possidetis* is the forerunner of the principle of inalterability of modern borders, and it emerged as a means to safeguard stability in Latin America in the 19th century and early 20th century decolonization process in Africa (Lēbers, 2005).

At least two principles of national border security are derivable from the above analysis: **inviolability of the state border and inalterability of the state border**. In the State Border Law (2009) and other national regulatory framework, none of the principles is specifically regulated, although the term “state border inviolability” is used in the purpose of the State Border Law (2009).

State border security plays an important role in building a space of peace and good neighbourly relations around the country. Therefore, in addition to the principles of inviolability and immutability of the state border, principles such as ensuring national and international security should be included in the regulatory framework; respect for national sovereignty, territorial integrity and equality; solving state border issues and border incidents by peace; guaranteeing human rights and freedoms; mutually beneficial and multilateral international co-operation in ensuring national border security.

The State Border Law (2009) of Latvia and the **Law on the State Border of the Republic of Belarus** both similarly define the meaning of the state border since also the Belarusian law on defines the state border as the line and the vertical surface coinciding with this line, which determines the territories of the Republic of Belarus (land, water, subterranean and air space). The law does not regulate any of these types of territory separately. The land regime in Belarus is governed by the Belarus Land Code, the water area (includes inland waters - lakes, rivers and other bodies of water, part of the border and other water bodies of Belarus) - Water Code (Article 100), subterranean depths extending from the surface of the earth to Land Centre (to technically accessible depth), and their regime - Earth Sub code (Article 1), Airspace and its regime - Air Code (Article 1), in which Belarus determines its airspace as an airspace above the state areas, including the troposphere, the stratosphere, and the part of the space above (Рачковский, et. al., 2010). The upper boundary of the airspace, as claimed by Belarusian law scholars, is not defined in either the national regulatory framework or international practice, which the author disagrees with and is analyzed in the chapter above.

By the state border and its legal regime, the whole Latvian-Belarusian border can be divided into two parts. The first part is the border of the former USSR with Poland. Since Belarus regained its state sovereignty, the border between Belarus and Poland is still regulated by the border treaty of August 16, 1945 between the USSR and the Polish People's Republic, while the state border regime is governed by the agreement between the Soviet Union and the Government of the Polish People's Republic on Soviet Poles on February 15, 1961 national border regime, cooperation and mutual assistance in border issues, which could be considered one of the most striking examples of national border inalterability, irrespective of the socio-political system in each country and the absence of a country like the USSR. The second part of the state border is the administrative border of the former Belarusian SSR with the Soviet republics of the USSR, but now with sovereign states: Latvia, Lithuania, Ukraine and (Рачковский, et. al., 2010), which, with the formation of the Commonwealth of Independent

States in December 1991 and the collapse of the USSR, fully regained independence, although foreign troops were still in the territories (Bojārs, 2004). Belarus completed the determination of state border with Lithuania in 2008, but with Latvia in 2009 (Рачковский, et. al., 2010).

Belarus, on the other hand, started the process of defining the state borders with the Declaration of Belarusian SSR AP “On the State Sovereignty of the Republic of Belarus” of July 27, 1990 (Постановление Верховного Совета Республики Беларусь, 1993). Belarusian law scholars have to be agreed with that the formation of the state border legal framework is based on the constitution and constitutional norms, which in Belarus basically correspond to the values of modern law science and which should also be taken into account from the point of view of legal experience, creation of international and constitutional law: Belarus has full power in its territory; it is independent in the implementation of internal policies and foreign policy; it upholds its independence, territorial integrity, constitutional system, ensures legality and legal order (Конституция Республики Беларусь, 1994); The territory of Belarus is a space of people's existence, self-determination, sovereignty and prosperity (Залеский, Соболевский, 2003); its territory is united and unbreakable; Belarus in foreign policy is guided by the equality of states, the use of force and threats, the inalterability of the state border, peaceful settlement of disputes, non-interference in the internal affairs of other countries and other generally recognized principles and norms of international law (Конституция Республики Беларусь, 1994). To conclude, the above principles are mostly inherited from the Decalogue of Helsinki, or "Declarations on the Principles for Member States to Relationships", which are analyzed by Prof J.Bojārs, pointing out the extremely positive historical consequences of these principles (Bojārs, 2006).

The first Belarusian normative act regulating the activities of the Border Guard and other state administration institutions on issues of state border control was the Law “On the State Border of the Republic of Belarus” of 4 November 1992 (expired in 2008). It was followed by MP Decree No. 599 of 5 November, approving the laws on the determination of the Belarusian state border (Рачковский, et. al., 2010), while the powers of determination of the state border were assigned to the State Border Guard Committee, the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, MP for the Land Resources, Geodesy and Cartography Committee and the State Border Delimitation and Demarcation Commission (Постановление Совета Министров Республики Беларусь, 1993). In 2018, many amendments and additions to the Belarusian regulatory enactments in the field of further strengthening of border security were initiated, aiming at the simplification of border procedures and regimes on the one hand, for example, to promote

tourism and to improve the efficiency of institutions involved in border procedures, to update the regulatory framework and to clarify terminology (В законодательство по вопросам пограничной безопасности предлагается внести изменения, 2018).

The Latvian-Belarusian Border Treaty signed in Minsk on February 21, 1994 stipulated that the border line between Latvia and Belarus would go along the administrative border of Latvia and Belarus, which at the time of signing the agreement coincides with the Latvian state border, as it was on June 16, 1940 until Latvia was included in the USSR (Халиманович, 2002), which was previously the Polish border of Latvia in accordance with the peace treaty of 18 March 1921 between the USSR, Poland and Ukraine (Тихомиров, 2019), until September 20-22, 1939, when the Red Army occupied the territory of Poland near the borders of Latvia (Jēkabsons, 2003).

The Latvian-Belarusian Border Treaty does not include the definition of the state border. An integral part of the Latvian - Belarusian Border Treaty is the delimitation map on scale 1: 50,000 (Latvijas Ģeotelpiskās informācijas aģentūra, 2008), but on completion of the demarcation, a demarcation map of 1: 10,000 (Latvian - Belarusian Border Treaty, 1994). The peculiarity of the Latvian - Belarusian Border Treaty is that it was decided to be guided by its position in determining the border in 1940. June 16 The Baltic States were incorporated into the USSR (LR ĀM, 2019) in early August 1940. In fact, the state border between Latvia and the Russian SSR was recognized after the demarcation of 1923 at the state border station from the present intersection (Agreement between the Government of the Republic of Latvia, the Government of the Republic of Belarus and the Government of the Russian Federation on the Determination of the intersection of borders of State Borders of the Republic of Latvia, the Republic of Belarus and the Russian Federation, 2010) of the state border of Belarus, Latvia and Russia to the river Daugava (Zapadnaja Dvina) and beyond to the intersection (Agreement between the Government of the Republic of Latvia, the Government of the Republic of Belarus and the Government of the Republic of Lithuania on the Determination of the intersection of borders of State Borders of the Republic of Latvia, the Republic of Belarus and the Republic of Lithuania, 1998) of the Belarusian-Latvian-Lithuanian border, which includes part of the former Polish border (Didrihsone, Zvirgzdiņš, 2008) as it existed until June 17, 1940 from the village of Shafranov on the present side of Belarus (Peace treaty between Latvia and Russia, 1920).

According to the border treaty, a 10 m wide zone (5 m on both sides of the border line of the country or the water level of rivers and other reservoirs) is defined along the state border,

the meaning and purpose of which is not specified. In May 1994, Latvia, for its part, along the border of the Belarusian state, also set a 5 m wide boundary band from the border line (Par Latvijas Republikas un Baltkrievijas Republikas valsts robežas joslas noteikšanu, 1994). In addition, the state border regime was restricted only by the prohibition of economic activity in this band, and it was introduced only in 2001, defining a 12 metres state border zone (Noteikumi par Latvijas Republikas valsts robežas joslu, pierobežas joslu un pierobežu, kā arī pierobežas, pierobežas joslas un valsts robežas joslas norādījuma zīmju un informatīvo norāžu paraugiem un to uzstādīšanas kārtību, 2001), counting from the border line, the content of which regime did not change until 2010. By contrast, Belarus, with the exception of the Border Line for the maintenance of structures and communications, also provides for a lane that is directly along the national border and intended for demarcation of the state border and installation of border marks (О Государственной границе Республики Беларусь, 2008), and may have a width of 3, 5, 8 metres (Рачковский, et. al., 2010), or different depending on terrain and peculiarities of possible structures.

The first composition of the Latvian-Belarusian border demarcation commission from the Latvian side was established in 1995 (Par Latvijas Republikas pārstāvju norīkošanu Jauktās Latvijas un Baltkrievijas demarkācijas komisijas sastāvu, 1995) and in Belarus (Teikmanis, 2005) - approved in 1997 (Об образовании Белорусской части Смешанной комиссии по демаркации государственной границы между Республикой Беларусь и Латвийской Республикой, 1997). The demarcation of the state border was launched in June 1997, two years after the entry into force of the Latvia-Belarus Border Treaty and lasted more than ten years. EC financial support, which enabled Latvia to complete the demarcation of the state border by July 1, 2007, played a key role. Belarus, for financial reasons, could not start the demarcation for a long time. However thanks to the EU support TACIS (*Technical Assistance for the Commonwealth of Independent States*) programme (TACIS, 2008) according to the contract of October 25, 2005 (Контракт, 2005), Belarus started demarcation work from November 2005 and completed them in early October 2006 (Приложение „Наука и военная безопасность” к журналу „Армия”, 2006). The role of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs and the Latvian Geospatial Information Agency played a decisive role in demarcation work from Latvia, which provided the geodetic coordinates of boundary marks within the framework of demarcation works and their representation on maps (Ģeotelpiskās informācijas likums, 2009). During demarcation works, 417 border signs have been installed, the border demarcated by 172,912 km, also arranging border infrastructure and approving demarcation documents on February

18, 2009 (Par Latvijas Republikas un Baltkrievijas Republikas valsts robežas demarkācijas dokumentu apstiprināšanu, 2009). Due to the rather long demarcation process, parallel redemarcation works, such as moving the boundary walls, restoring damaged boundaries, etc. were also required to be completed. Sometimes measurements of the state border had to be done again to be as accurate as modern technologies allow, often in very boggy and unreachable border sections. However, this was a very important work for the EU, which was carried out in close cooperation with the Ministry of the Interior and the Ministry of the Foreign Affairs (Kļaviņa, 2019).

Cooperation between Latvia and Belarus, as well as their law enforcement institutions, is governed by a number of international agreements and agreements. The first agreement on Border Cooperation was concluded in Riga on August 18, 1992, even before the Latvian-Belarusian Border Treaty and was in force until May 19, 1995. In 1993, however, an agreement with an identical name was in force (Latvijas Republikas valdības un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdības vienošanās par sadarbību robežu jautājumos), valid until the entry into force of the Agreement on the State Border Regime of the Republic of Latvia and the Republic of Belarus. On the basis of Article 4 of the Agreement on Cooperation on Border Issues, the **border plenipotentiary apparatus** (Latvijas Republikas valdības un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdības vienošanās par pilnvaroto robežas pārstāvju darbību, 1995) of both countries was set up by agreement. Issues that cannot be resolved within the framework of the activities of the border guard plenipotentiaries of both neighbouring countries are settled through diplomatic channels. The main tasks of the Border Guard plenipotentiaries both on the Latvian and Belarus side are: to take measures to ensure compliance with the state border regime, implementation of international agreements and agreements; to prevent and regulate border incidents (Залесский, Соболевский, 2003); to promote the development and development of business-friendly and friendly relations with neighbouring border guard agencies; to address the borderline issues in a spirit of cooperation and mutual assistance. When analyzing the border incidents that have been the subject of unilateral or bilateral investigations, it should be noted that the most common border incidents are illegal crossing of the state border of persons, vehicles and cargo, which can be divided into two main groups: illegal crossing of state border by negligence, intentional illegal crossing of state border, most often goods illegal transboundary movement across national borders. The State Border Law (2009) does not include the definition of a border incident, although it is used in relation to the competence of the MFA in cases where these border incidents are not resolved by border guards. However, in the content of the competence

of border guard's plenipotentiaries in the Article 7 of the State Border Law (2009) **“Plenipotentiary Border Representatives of the Republic of Latvia”** the resolution of border incidents is not included, although it should be considered as the main function of the Border Guard plenipotentiaries apparatus.

Based on the European Framework Convention on Cross-border Co-operation of Territorial Communities or Regulatory Bodies, an important agreement between neighbouring countries to improve future co-operation is the Framework for Cross-Border Co-operation (Eiropas pamatkonvencija par teritoriālo kopienu vai pārvaldes institūciju pārrobežu sadarbību, 1980), which defined the concept of **“cross-border co-operation”** and identified 13 areas of co-operation, many of which relate to the border guard authorities of both countries competence (Vienošanās starp Latvijas Republikas valdību un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdību par pārrobežu sadarbības pamatprincipiem, 1998). One of the most significant cooperation agreements between Latvia and the EU Member State and the third country on the example of Latvia and Belarus is the Agreement on **Co-operation in the Fight against Organized Crime, Illicit Traffic in Narcotic Drugs, Psychotropic Substances and Precursors, Terrorism and Other Criminal Offenses** in which the Member States of the Treaty to Combat Illegal Immigration exchange information with each other on: facts about attempts to cross the state border or attempts to do so; on documents permitting crossing the state border, facts of counterfeiting; on the open routes of illegal migration; on organizing illegal migration (Latvijas Republikas valdības un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdības līgums par sadarbību cīņā pret organizēto noziedzību, narkotisko vielu, psihotropo vielu un prekursoru nelegālu apriti, terorismu un citiem noziedzīgiem nodarījumiem, 2007).

The Government of Latvia and the Government of Belarus, having regard to the necessity to organize border crossing of persons, vehicles, cargoes and belongings, concluded in 1993 an agreement **on border crossing points**, whereby national governments agreed to establish border crossing points on the Latvian-Belarusian border (Latvijas Republikas valdības un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdības vienošanās par robežas caurlaides punktiem, 1993). It should also be noted that this agreement was not very successful in terms of legal wording and regulation of border crossing, as the neighbouring countries agreed on border crossing points, without determining their status, which will be border crossing points and which will be border crossing points for local traffic. In 2007, the aforementioned agreement was amended by changing the status of the border crossing point **“Piedruja - Druja”** to the border crossing point for local traffic, as well as opening the following additional border crossing points for local

traffic: Vorzova - Ļipovka; Kaplava - Pļusi; Meikšāni - Gavriļino, referred to as border crossing points for local border traffic in Latvian normative regulations, but daily are called as border crossing points and differ from international border crossing points with border crossing intensity as well as the fact that the customs functions are performed by the state Border Guard (Latvijas Republikas valdības un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdības protokols par grozījumiem 1993.gada 18.augusta Latvijas Republikas valdības un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdības vienošanās par robežas caurlaides punktiem, 2007).

The agreement on **the facilitation of cross-border travel between residents of the border regions of Latvia and Belarus** (Latvijas Republikas valdības un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdības Vienošanās par Latvijas Republikas un Baltkrievijas Republikas pierobežas teritoriju iedzīvotāju savstarpējo braucienu vienkāršošanu, 2010) continued the development of cooperation between neighbouring countries in the area of border crossing, which was initiated by the 1994 Agreement on simplified border crossing for border residents and the 2008 Agreement on Mutual Travel of Citizens (Latvijas Republikas valdības un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdības vienošanās par pilsoņu savstarpējiem braucieniem, 2008). The agreement on a **simplified procedure for issuing visas to border residents** is essential for the legal arrangement of border crossing (Latvijas Republikas valdības un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdības vienošanās par vienkāršotu vīzu izsniegšanas kārtību pierobežas iedzīvotājiem, 2002). The agreement provides for residence in the border area of the second state due to participation in cultural, sporting and other events, real estate property in the border area, visits to relatives, serious illness or death of relatives, attendance of relatives burial sites, provision of medical or other assistance, rituals and local traditions, and in other cases where border residents need to be in the border area of the second country. The said agreement and other agreements in the area of border crossing of persons facilitate the legally regulated and controlled migration process, where the involvement of liaison officers to work in Latvian embassies is important, accelerating the process of movement of people, because visas are issued in a simplified procedure; contributes to overall security and preventive protection against illegal migration.

Considering the importance of co-operation in the prevention of disasters, natural disasters, other emergencies and their consequences in raising the level of welfare and security of the population of neighbouring countries, an **agreement on co-operation in the prevention of disasters, natural disasters, other emergencies** (Latvijas Republikas valdības un Baltkrievijas Republikas valdības vienošanās par sadarbību katastrofu, dabas stihiju, citu

ārkārtēju situāciju novēršanā, kā arī to seku likvidēšanā, 2003) was concluded in 2003; the elimination of the consequences of the arrangements for cooperation and the competence of the institutions in this area.

Practice shows that international co-operation at the level of the Latvian Border Guard and Belarusian “zastavas” (Division; Border guarding point) is actively developing (Strategy of the State Border Guard activities 2017.-2019). Better co-operation is predominantly between top-level leaders, but closer cooperation is needed at all levels, ranging from heads of institutions to border guards and chiefs of border control points, and this cooperation should be legally regulated in the cooperation plans, the powers and competences of the officials concerned.

It is necessary to develop response capabilities, to reduce the time needed to get to any illegal border crossing point in order to organize mutual action quickly and efficiently in any offense. Already now, Latvia and Belarus are transit countries for illegal migration, and the migratory pressure is not diminishing with the increase in the flow of persons.

CONCLUSIONS

Belarus shall not be regarded as a successor to the Russian Federation and the USSR in respect of Article 3 of the Peace treaty between Latvia and Russia signed in 1920. The Latvian-Belarusian Border Treaty was not disputed hence further analysis in the context of the national territory is not necessary.

State Border between Latvia and the Russian SSR was recognized after the demarcation results of 1923 (has not changed to the present day) and the state border stretches from the present border intersection between Belarus, Latvia and Russia (Friendship Kurgan) along the border river's entry in the river Daugava (Zapadnaja Dvina) and from further to the intersection of the Belarusian-Latvian-Lithuanian border, which in turn includes a part of the former Polish border which was until 17 June 1940 from the village of Shafranov on the Belarusian side.

An unilateral amendment of the state border status has no basis in international law. National borders created in violation of international law are not protected by the principle of inviolability of borders, as follows from the meaning of Article 11 of the 1974 Vienna Convention on the Transfer of States to International Treaties.

At least two principles of state border security must be defined: inviolability of the state border and inalterability of the state border.

The State Border Law (2009) and other national regulatory frameworks do not define any of the principles, although the term “state border inviolability” is used in the law. In its turn, the principle of inalterability of the state border, which is structurally derived from the concept of sovereignty, determines both the integrity and sovereignty of the state territory in their mutual legal relationship. The principle of inalterability of the state border includes three essential elements: recognition of the state border on the basis of international law; abandoning any claim to other territories both in the present and in the future; abandoning any threats to the state border of other countries by using force and other threats.

In the context of national security system state border security plays an important role in creating a space of peace and good neighbourly relations around the country. The principles of state border security should be applicable to any state administration institution, any legal or natural person and should be included in the State Border Law (2009) Article 8 “State Border Security”.

Cooperation between law enforcement institutions of Latvia and Belarus in the field of border control is generally developed. It covers both conceptual and general cooperation as well as cooperation in specific directions, areas and forms. Better co-operation is predominantly among top-level leaders, but closer cooperation is needed at all levels, in particular at the level of the management of Border Surveillance Units and Border Crossing Points and Border Guards, specifically regulating and extending the powers and competences of officials from these departments.

Latvia’s accession to the EU and joining the Schengen area provide additional opportunities to develop and improve cooperation between Latvian and Belarusian border control institutions. The conclusion of a bilateral treaty on state border regimes will bring additional benefits both in terms of cooperation and in the alignment and consolidation of bilateral regulatory frameworks, as well as in bringing Belarus closer to EU law and democratic traditions of free movement of persons.

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MANAGING CONFLICTS IN INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL AUDIT PROCESS

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Abstract. Employees and auditors deal with conflicts in a variety of ways in the organization, therefore they need different conflict resolution strategies. To avoid getting stuck in a situation where an auditor does not have any options, in advance he needs to develop policies and ways to manage conflicts. The problem of the research - how to help with managing conflicts in the audit process. The objective of the paper is to find ways how to deal with managing conflicts in internal and external audit process. Methodology of the research - analysis of scientific literature, based on the comparative aspect and methods of systematization, logical analysis and generalization. The paper considers different methods of handling the conflict situations. The results of this study showed that some general methods of conflict management can be applied to the managing conflicts in the audit process, but the specifics of the audit situation should be considered when choosing them.

Keywords: auditor, employee, conflict, managing conflicts.

INTRODUCTION

“No workplace can ever be totally devoid of conflict, simply because conflict is a natural outcome in environments where employees with varying priorities, ideas and behaviours work together toward a common goal“¹. Conflict will inevitably arise in the organization, such is the nature of all human interactions.

Conflict is an integral part of the audit profession, and auditors must be its managers. Internal and external auditors regularly resolve organizational conflicts. Disagreements can arise in negotiations with management on the implementation of audit recommendations or on

¹ Bacal, R. Organizational Conflict – The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly. The Journal for Quality and Participation. 2004, 27(2): 21–22.

something as simple as the wording of the audit report. Regardless types of conflicts, they are sometimes difficult to solve. Financial costs associated with audit conflicts can be huge, that is why it is important to manage conflicts or avoid them in the audit process.

To make the conflicts as effective as possible for the organization and its members, to make them creative but not destructive, they should be wisely managed. Good conflict management skills are an advantage in most positions, as conflict is virtually impossible to avoid. It is human nature to disagree, and disagreements are in fact healthy when approached correctly. Eliminating conflict entirely would cause its own problems: there would be no diversity of opinion and we are unable to detect and correct erroneous plans and policies.

There is a substantial amount of literature on the impact of conflict within organisations. But most of the existing scientific literature discusses conflict management in general.

Scientists Caputo A., Marzi G., Maley J. and Silic M.² after analysis "of ten years of conflict management research identified five key themes that help to track the direction of conflict management research: negotiation, mediation, trust, conflict management styles, and performance. These themes show a wider diversification of topics in the field than in the past, confirming previous results about the reputation and maturity of conflict management as an independent scientific field of research".

We found that in previous studies (Thomas, K. W.³, Rahim, M. A.⁴, Callanan G. A., Perri D. F.⁵) have focused on conflict management styles in organization in general.

Recent research conducted by Chen H. X., Xu X., Phillips P.⁶ suggested that there is the relation between conflict management style and emotional intelligence. Zhang S.J., Chen Y.Q. and Sun H.⁷ found out that emotional intelligence is positively and significantly associated with integrating, compromising and dominating conflict management styles. According Allen R. D.⁸ conflict is an inherent reality in the auditing profession and auditors should develop expertise

² Caputo, A., Marzi G., Maley, J., Silic, M. Ten years of conflict management research 2007-2017: An update on themes, concepts and relationships. *International Journal of Conflict Management*. 2018, 30 (1): 87–110.

³ Thomas, K.W. Conflict and conflict management: Reflections and update. *Journal of organizational behavior*. 1992, 13: 265–274.

⁴ Rahim, M. A. A measure of styles of handling interpersonal conflict. *Academy of Management Journal*. 1983, 26(2): 368–376.

⁵ Callanan, G. A., Perri, D. F. Teaching Conflict Management Using a Scenario-Based Approach. *Journal of Education for Business*. 2006, 81(3): 131–139.

⁶ Chen, H. X., Xu, X., Phillips, P. Emotional intelligence and conflict management styles. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*. 2019. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOA-11-2017-1272>.

⁷ Zhang, S.J., Chen, Y.Q. and Sun, H. Emotional intelligence, conflict management styles, and innovation performance: An empirical study of Chinese employees. *International Journal of Conflict Management*. 2015, 26 (4): 450-478. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCMA-06-2014-0039>.

⁸ Allen, R. D. Managing internal audit conflicts. *Internal Auditor*. 1996, August: 58–61.

in how to deal with it. Auditors who deal effectively with conflict can improve their performance, organizational contributions and personal effectiveness.

This our study responds to the shortcomings of the current research on conflict management among internal and external auditors and employees.

The problem of the research – how to help with managing conflicts in internal and external audit process.

The objective of the paper is to find ways to help with managing conflicts in internal and external audit process.

Methodology of the research – analysis of scientific literature, based on the comparative aspect and methods of systematization, logical analysis and generalization. This study on managing conflict in the audit process is based on an analysis of the works of predecessors on conflict management in general. Our research was facing some methodological limitations. First, we analysed scientific works on general conflict management in organizations. The second limitation of this study is that we used the personal experience of the auditor, and we tried to apply the general conflict management scenarios to the audit project using the method of logical analysis. This methodology has been adopted because no similar studies have been conducted recently and there was no research experience in the managing conflicts in the audit process.

THE NATURE OF CONFLICTS AND THEIR MANAGEMENT STYLES

What is organizational conflict in general? The term “conflict” has no single clear meaning. Much of the confusion has been created by scholars in different disciplines who are interested in studying conflicts. After reviewing a number of recent definitions of conflict, we concluded that definitions are not identical.

Early definitions of conflict have focused on a wide variety of different phenomena: antecedent conditions, emotions, perceptions and behaviours. Thomas K.W. and Killman R.H.⁹, the same Thomas K.W.¹⁰ have defined conflict as the process which begins when one side perceives that another side is frustrated or is about to frustrate. Often conflict is defined as disagreement where parties involved perceive a threat to something that the first party cares about. It involves perception: 'clash of interests, values, actions, views or directions.' On the

⁹ Thomas, K.W.; Kilmann R.H. Thomas-Kilman conflict mode instrument. 1974. Tuxedo, NY: Xicom.

¹⁰ Thomas, K.W. Conflict and conflict management: Reflections and update. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. 1992. 13: 265–274.

other hand, conflict is the clash that occurs when the goal-directed behaviour of one group blocks or threatens the goals of another.

According Thomas K.W.¹¹ conflict occurs when one or two social entity(ies):

1) There is an obligation to engage in an activity that does not meet his or her needs or interests;

2) There are behavioural preferences, the satisfaction of which is incompatible with another person's implementation of his or her preferences.

Conflict may be classified according to these sources. The classification may be based on the organizational levels (individual, group, etc.) at which it may originate.

According to Dontigney E.¹² the causes of conflict range from philosophical differences and divergent goals to power imbalances. In any situation involving more than one person, conflict can arise. Unmanaged or poorly managed conflicts generate a breakdown in trust and loss of productivity.

After analysis of conflict definition, we identified, that conflict is defined as an interactive process in the form of incompatibility, disagreement, or dissonance within or between social entities (i.e., individual, group, organization, etc.).

Although conflict is often perceived as something negative, research suggests that some conflicts can improve organizational effectiveness.

The study conducted by Ratajczak-Mrozek, M., Fonfara, K., Hauke-Lopes, A.¹³ exposes the existence of both negative (e.g. financial consequences) and positive (e.g. gaining new experience) outcomes of conflicts. It shows that positive conflict handling often constitutes a significant challenge for firms and that the authors cannot really talk about one optimal method of conflict handling. Regardless of the method adopted, the costs involved should be taken into detailed consideration.

Bacal R.¹⁴ describes two views of considering conflict:

1) *traditional view* of organisational conflict, in which all workplace conflicts are believed to be dysfunctional. Most people have an inherited desire for an orderly environment.

¹¹ Thomas, K.W. Conflict and conflict management: Reflections and update. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*. 1992. 13: 265–274.

¹² Dontigney, E. 5 Conflict Management Strategies. *Small Business - Chron.com*. Available at: <http://smallbusiness.chron.com/5-conflict-management-strategies-16131.html>. 06 March 2019.

¹³ Ratajczak-Mrozek, M., Fonfara, K., Hauke-Lopes, A. Conflict handling in small firms' foreign business relationships. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing*. 2019, 34(1): 240–252. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1108/JBIM-10-2018-0316>

¹⁴ Bacal, R. Organizational Conflict – The Good, the Bad, and the Ugly. *The Journal for Quality and Participation*. 2004, 27(2): 21–22.

However, in practice, many organisations are characterised by constant change, and therefore require frequent adaptation. For this reason, attempting to design structures that eliminate conflict/disagreement while operating in a dynamic environment can absorb a lot of unnecessary organisational energy. At the same time, it can suppress all the positive results that might have arisen from healthy disagreements.

2) *functional view* of organisational conflict, in which workplace disagreements are viewed as a productive force for stimulating employees to increase their knowledge and skills, leading to a contribution through innovation and efficiency. This functional view of conflict regards conflict resolution as a mechanism for providing employees with ongoing operational feedback. In this environment, organisations manage positive conflict avoiding situations where conflict might reduce team unity and productivity.

The presence of conflict in the workplace can lead to good and bad outcomes. To our mind, if the parties involved understand the nature of conflict, then it is possible to apply its positive energy and direct it toward problem solving and organisational improvement.

To obtain meaningful strategic insights into conflict management and thus contributing to informed decision making in audit process, at first, we analysed conflict management styles in general. To emphasize the importance of being able to resolve auditors and employees' controversies, a review of studies on the conflict management styles is provided and the peculiarities of styles are identified.

Employees deal with conflict in a variety of ways, therefore it needs different conflict resolution strategies. After analysing the literature of organizational behaviour and management, we identified that the definition of conflict management style and conflict resolution strategies has the same meaning. In many studies^{15, 16, 17, 18} on conflict management have been used adapted Thomas-Kilmann conflict mode instrument. Kenneth Thomas and Ralph Kilmann¹⁹ developed five conflict resolution strategies that people use to handle conflict, including avoiding, defeating, compromising, accommodating, and collaborating (Table 1). It is helpful to understand the five methods, particularly when you want to move a group forward.

¹⁵ Thomas, K.W.; Kilmann R.H. Thomas-Kilmann conflict mode instrument. 2008.
http://www.kilmanniagnostics.com/sites/default/files/TKI_Sample_Report.pdf

¹⁶ Rahim, M. A. A measure of styles of handling interpersonal conflict. *Academy of Management Journal*. 1983, 26(2): 368–376.

¹⁷ Dontigney, E. 5 Conflict Management Strategies. *Small Business - Chron.com*. Available at:
<http://smallbusiness.chron.com/5-conflict-management-strategies-16131.html>. 06 March 2019.

¹⁸ Durden, O. Ways of Managing Conflict in Organizations. *Small Business - Chron.com*.
<http://smallbusiness.chron.com/ways-managing-conflict-organizations-2655.html>. 27 November 2018

¹⁹ Thomas, K.W.; Kilmann R.H. Thomas-Kilmann conflict mode instrument. 1974. Tuxedo, NY: Xicom.

The Thomas-Kilmann Conflict Mode Instrument²⁰ assesses an individual's behaviour in conflict situations – that is, situations in which the concerns of two people appear to be incompatible.

Table 1. Conflict resolution strategies^{21, 22, 23, 24, 25}

No.	Conflict resolution strategy	Description of conflict resolution strategy
1.	Avoiding	Avoiding is when people just ignore or withdraw from the conflict. They choose this method when the discomfort of confrontation exceeds the potential reward of resolution of the conflict. While this might seem easy to accommodate for the facilitator, people have not really invested value in the conversation and may be withholding valuable ideas. When conflict is avoided, nothing is resolved.
2.	Competing	Competing is assertive and uncooperative, a power-oriented mode. When competing, an individual pursues his or her own concerns at the other person's expense, using whatever power seems appropriate to win his or her position. Competing might mean standing up for your rights, defending a position you believe is correct, or simply trying to win.
3.	Accommodating	Accommodating is a strategy where one party gives in to the wishes or demands of another. They're being cooperative but not assertive. This may appear to be a gracious way to give in when one figures out s/he has been wrong about an argument. It's less helpful when one party accommodates another merely to preserve harmony or to avoid disruption. Like avoidance, it can result in unresolved issues.
4.	Collaborating	Collaborating is both assertive and cooperative. Collaboration, an individual attempt to cooperate with the other parties to find a solution that fully satisfies the concerns of both. It involves digging into an issue to identify the underlying concerns of the two individuals and to find an alternative that meets both sets of concerns. Collaborating between two persons might take the form of exploring a disagreement to learn from each other's insights, resolving some conditions.
5.	Compromising	Compromising is an intermediate in terms of both assertiveness and cooperativeness. Compromise aims to find an expedient, mutually acceptable solution that partially satisfies both parties. Compromising manifests itself in the middle between competing and accommodating, giving up more than competing but less than accommodating. Likewise, it addresses an issue more directly than avoiding but doesn't explore it in as much depth as collaborating. Compromising might mean splitting the difference, exchanging concessions, or seeking a quick middle-ground position.

²⁰ Thomas, K.W.; Kilmann R.H. Thomas-Kilmann conflict mode instrument. 2008.
http://www.kilmanniagnostics.com/sites/default/files/TKI_Sample_Report.pdf

²¹ Thomas, K.W.; Kilmann R.H. Thomas-Kilmann conflict mode instrument. 1974. Tuxedo, NY: Xicom.

²² Thomas, K.W.; Kilmann R.H. *Supra note 20*

²³ Rahim, M. A. A measure of styles of handling interpersonal conflict. *Academy of Management Journal*. 1983, 26(2): 368–376.

²⁴ Dontigney, E. 5 Conflict Management Strategies. *Small Business - Chron.com*. Available at:
<http://smallbusiness.chron.com/5-conflict-management-strategies-16131.html>. 06 March 2019.

²⁵ Durden, O. Ways of Managing Conflict in Organizations. *Small Business - Chron.com*.
<http://smallbusiness.chron.com/ways-managing-conflict-organizations-2655.html>. 27 November 2018

With the basic understanding of the five conflict management strategies, managers, employees and auditors can better deal with conflicts before they escalate beyond repair.

As we can understand in five conflict management strategies, in conflict situations, we can describe a person's behaviour along two basic dimensions:

- 1) assertiveness, the extent to which the individual attempts to satisfy his or her own concerns, and
- 2) cooperativeness, the extent to which the individual attempts to satisfy the other person's concerns.

These two dimensions of behaviour can be used to define five methods of dealing with conflict (Fig. 1).

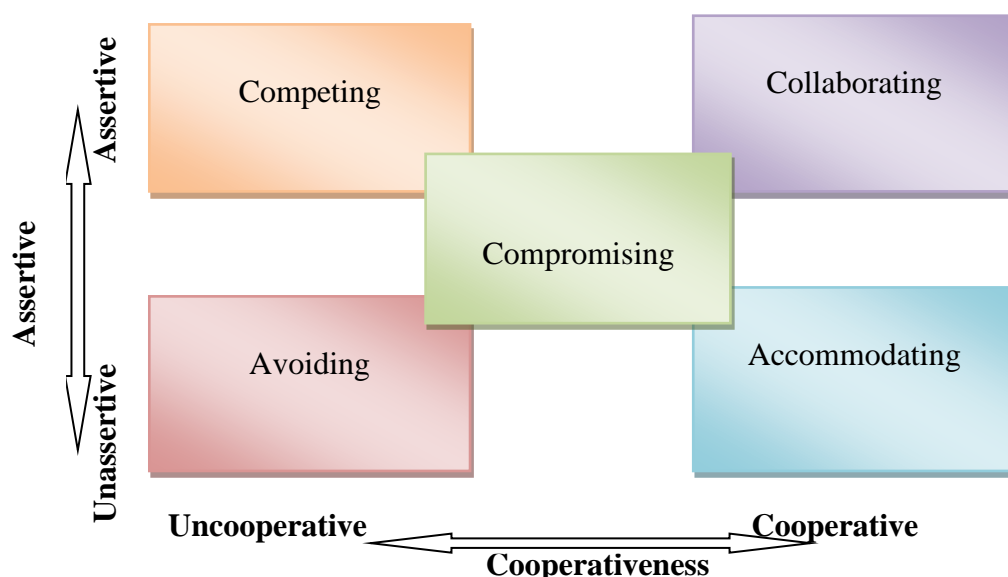


Figure 1. The choice of conflict resolution strategy (Source: created by the authors, based on the systematization of the previous research)

The choice of conflict management style is based on the assumption that people choose how cooperative and how assertive to be in a conflict.

K. Thomas and R. Kilmann²⁶ argue that all five conflict management strategies are useful in some situations: each represents a set of useful social skills. Our conventional wisdom recognizes, for example, that often “Two heads are better than one” (collaborating). But it also says, “Kill your enemies with kindness” (accommodating), “Split the difference” (compromising), “Leave well enough alone” (avoiding), and “Might makes right” (competing).

²⁶ Thomas, K.W.; Kilmann R.H. Thomas-Kilmann conflict mode instrument. 2008. http://www.kilmanniagnostics.com/sites/default/files/TKI_Sample_Report.pdf

The effectiveness of a given conflict-handling mode depends on the requirements of the specific situation and the skill with which you use that mode.

The results of research conducted by Chen H. X., Xu X., Phillips P.²⁷ shows that managers at different levels possess different emotional intelligence and adopt different conflict management styles when dealing with their subordinates, peers and superiors. Specifically, when subordinates were involved in a conflict, junior managers and female managers were more likely to use the dominating style, while when peers were involved in a conflict, male managers were more likely to use the dominating style. When peers were involved in a conflict, managers working in public sectors were more likely to adopt the integrating, avoiding, obliging and compromising style. Zhang S.J., Chen Y.Q. and Sun H.²⁸ has highlighted conflict management styles that are positively and significantly associated with emotional intelligence. Those are integrating, compromising and dominating conflict management styles.

So, we can claim that there is a link between conflict management style and emotional intelligence.

In the organizational conflict management, the importance of feedback emphasized. This was analysed in our study because the feedback is necessary in the audit process. According Seppala E.²⁹ giving feedback may be one of the most difficult challenges a manager faces. On the one hand, you must be honest; on the other hand, you do not want to alienate this employee. There is a fine line between maintaining cordiality and successfully getting to the point. A positive workplace culture is essential for employee engagement and productivity. Empathy at work creates psychological safety. Psychological safety improves learning and performance outcomes. Despite this need for a positive workplace culture, there is no doubt that giving critical feedback is essential. The question is how to deliver it. Most advice in this area focuses on what to say — for example, give more praise than criticism, and listen more than you talk. Those are important things, but nonverbal communication is just as important as the words we use. Chappelow, C., McCauley, C.³⁰ research demonstrates that feedback — both positive and

²⁷ Chen, H. X., Xu, X., Phillips, P. Emotional intelligence and conflict management styles. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*. 2019. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJOA-11-2017-1272>.

²⁸ Zhang, S.J., Chen, Y.Q. and Sun, H. Emotional intelligence, conflict management styles, and innovation performance: An empirical study of Chinese employees. *International Journal of Conflict Management*. 2015, 26 (4): 450-478. Available at: <https://doi.org/10.1108/IJCMA-06-2014-0039>.

²⁹ Seppala E. When giving critical feedback, focus on your nonverbal cues. January 20, 2017. Available at: <https://hbr.org/2017/01/when-giving-critical-feedback-focus-on-your-nonverbal-cues>

³⁰ Chappelow, C., McCauley, C. What Good Feedback Really Looks Like. May 13, 2019. Available at: <https://hbr.org/2019/05/what-good-feedback-really-looks-like>

negative – is essential to help managers improve their best qualities and deal with the worse so that they can bring out the leadership. Harsh feedback does not help people thrive and excel. Indeed, effective criticism needs to be delivered with respect and care. Frequent or exclusively negative comments can cause defensive reactions that obscure perception and reduce motivation. Positive feedback is critical for learning. People are often quick to notice what is wrong, but it is equally important to pay attention to and provide input on what is working to support development. One of the things that cause conflicts is when one party explicitly tells the other party that they are wrong and the accused party gets defensive. No one likes to be wrong and so no one ever wants to hear someone else telling them that they are wrong. According Chappelow, C., McCauley, C.³¹ telling someone how to deal with the problem is often the wrong approach. You will foster more learning by asking questions that stimulate reflection and coaching people into exploration and experimentation. In our opinion, this approach is inappropriate in the audit process. Both external and internal audits provide an audit report that identifies problems as required by audit standards.

We also agree with other scientists on the importance of feedback. This is especially important in the case of auditing. Hardavella, G. Aamli-Gaagnat, A., Saad, N., Rousalova, I., Sreter K.B.³² argue if we do not give feedback, that will cost. The employee can assume that everything is fine and will continue practicing in the same way. This leads into a false assessment of their own skills and abilities and builds up false perception.

Considering the peculiarities of the audit process, strengths and weaknesses of the overall conflict management strategy, should be analysed and adapted to manage conflicts of the audit process.

ADAPTATION OF CONFLICT RESOLUTION STRATEGIES IN AUDIT PROCESS

The style of conflict management for employee use is a requirement for both personal aspiration and the situations in which they find themselves. On the contrary, the auditor must always remain honest and objective in relation to the employee or subject being assessed, he cannot show temper, the auditor must follow the rules of the audit process. The auditor is not entitled to hide the errors or fraud identified during the audit to avoid conflict with employees.

³¹ Chappelow, C., McCauley, C. *Supra* note 30.

³² Hardavella, G. Aamli-Gaagnat, A., Saad, N., Rousalova, I., Sreter K.B. How to give and receive feedback effectively. *Breathe*. 2017 (13): 327-333; DOI: 10.1183/20734735.009917

That is why not all general conflict management strategies are suitable for conflict resolution in the audit process. We do not want to explore all aspects of conflict management, but we want to find appropriate conflict management methods in the audit process. Thus, in our research, we have identified the strengths and weaknesses of common conflict resolution strategies and are trying to use the strengths of conflict management strategies to resolve conflicts in the audit process.

However, some of the peculiarities of auditing that may affect conflict resolution strategies should be mentioned before. The audit can be conducted internally by employees of the organization, or externally by an outside firm.

External audit – is an independent checking of the financial statements of the audited entity and presentation of the auditor's report. The external auditor must be independent of the audited entity and conduct the audit in accordance with auditing standards. Thus, the external audit is conducted in accordance with the established rules, and the auditor's report on the financial statements is mandatory on completion of the audit. The external auditor represents the public interest and is therefore unable to compromise with the audited entity. Therefore, the auditor has serious limitations in the choice of conflict management style.

Internal auditing is an independent, objective assurance and consulting activity designed to add value and improve the organization's operations. It helps an organization accomplish its objectives by bringing a systematic, disciplined approach to evaluate and improve the effectiveness of risk management, control and governance processes. The scope of internal auditing within an organization is broad and may involve topics such as an organization's governance, risk management and management controls over: efficiency/effectiveness of operations (including safeguarding of assets), the reliability of financial and management reporting and compliance with laws and regulations. Internal auditing may also involve conducting proactive fraud audits to identify potentially fraudulent acts; participating in fraud investigations under the direction of fraud investigation professionals, and conducting post investigation fraud audits to identify control breakdowns and establish financial loss.

Internal auditors are not responsible for the execution of company activities; they advise management and the Board of Directors (or similar supervisory body) regarding how to better execute their responsibilities. Professional internal auditors are mandated by the standards to be independent of the business activities they audit.

Usually, internal auditors routinely deal with organizational conflicts. Disagreements may arise during negotiations with management over the implementation of audit recommendations, or from something as simple as the wording in an audit report.

The internal auditor is an employee of the company. He deals with conflicts more often than the external auditor. If he works in the private sector, then he represents the interests of the owners, and therefore has a wider choice of strategies for conflict resolution than the external auditor representing the public interest.

Which conflict management strategy is suitable for external and internal audit? We will discuss this from the auditor's point of view.

Conflict resolution strategy – avoiding, although it is not the best conflict resolution strategy in organizations in general, cannot be applied to external auditing. In the event of conflicts concerning the presentation of audit results in the audit report, the following are also inappropriate strategies for conflict resolution: accommodating, collaborating and compromising. This is influenced by the regulation of the external audit process and the stringent requirements for delivering results to consumers. The external auditor represents the public interest and must therefore honestly and objectively disclose the material misstatements in the company's financial statements. However, in the course of external audit, the above-mentioned strategies can be used for the timing of audit procedures within defined time frames. No compromises or discounts can be applied when employees and management have to provide the required information to the auditor.

Avoiding as a conflict resolution strategy for internal audit cannot be applied either. If the internal auditor identifies the problem in the company, he/she cannot circumvent it, hide it or otherwise ignore it. Even though the employee may not be satisfied, it is necessary to inform the management of the company about significant misconduct that has not been corrected quickly.

As internal auditing does not have such rigorous regulation as external auditing, in the event of a conflict, the internal auditor may use collaborating conflict resolution strategy for conflict resolution. According Allen R. D.³³ when auditees have the sense that internal auditors have a genuine interest in helping the organization improve, a spirit of cooperation is likely to flourish. Being a helpful part of the solution dramatically improved the auditors' rapport with auditees. Sometimes auditees are unwilling to implement auditor suggestions because they do

³³ Allen, R. D. Managing internal audit conflicts. *Internal Auditor*. 1996, August: 58–61.

not understand why change is necessary and important. Internal auditors cannot assume that everyone will immediately grasp the wisdom of their audit findings. Convincing the auditee on the importance of making changes may help individuals embrace new ways of doing things that will benefit the organization. Internal auditors sometimes make the mistake of identifying a problem and telling the client how they will fix it. Instead, auditors should explain the problem early in the audit and ask auditees their opinions regarding the best possible solutions. Positive changes are more likely to occur if auditees contribute their own ideas to solve problems. Internal auditors should be as objective and factual as possible, avoiding words or phrases that make valuable conclusions. Many organizations provide auditees with a draft of the audit report and allow them to make suggestions. In many cases auditees feel better when they can suggest changes in wording that they regard as controversial.

Although excessive conflict between auditors and auditees is likely to be detrimental to an organization, some conflict is positive because it may help the organization move toward its objectives.

The compromising strategy can be useful too. When it's appropriately handled, bringing both sides of a conflict to the table to work out an agreement can be very effective. The auditor should try to anticipate and understand all potential sources of conflict, listen carefully to the auditee's point of view, and consider all viable resolution options prior to negotiation. The greater the number of options that can be identified, the greater the likelihood that both groups can benefit from the negotiation process.

The competing as conflict resolution strategy is often used by auditors who go into a conflict planning to win. It doesn't allow room for diverse perspectives into a knowledgeable total picture. Competing is rarely a good strategy for group problem solving.

Sometimes, the best way to deal with conflict is to find a way to avoid it in the first place. If conflict is unavoidable, auditors should recognize the positive effects of conflict, make compromises when necessary, learn to negotiate, seek the support of management, and avoid feeling responsible for others' problems.

Conflicts assume a variety of forms and may occur when least expected. Working to eliminate unnecessary conflict and resolve unavoidable conflict in the audit process is a worthy objective. The auditors who know how to deal positively with audit conflicts will enhance their performance, their organizational contributions, and their personal effectiveness.

The article analyses the theoretical research of conflict management strategies and the obtained research results presupposes the possibility to apply the theory in practice, i.e. to use conflict management strategies for practical application in the audit process.

CONCLUSIONS

Addressing human conflicts and disagreements can involve styles that range from collaboration to avoidance and involve varying degrees of cooperation and assertiveness. Workplace conflict is usually regarded as being counterproductive. However, if the positive conflict-related energy can be used, it may then be directed towards problem solving and organisational improvement. This viewpoint regards conflict resolution as a mechanism for providing employees with ongoing operational feedback and for encouraging creativity.

Conflict typically occurs when no issue is addressed. To avoid this from happening, the manager can hold regular meetings with the auditor who gives feedback about what is working well and what is not and brainstorms on what to do to move forward. That way, it deals with issues while they are still minor. That is why regular feedback of auditor is so important. So, instead of encouraging people to avoid negative feedback, we should focus on how to deliver negative feedback in ways that minimize the threat response. Effective criticism needs to be delivered with respect and care. It is useful when the manager and auditor ask employees to collaborate creating conflict resolution protocols.

No one likes to be the supervisor who must reprimand employees or resolve conflict. Therefore, the duty of the manager is to ensure the strategies, the auditor comes up with, are implemented and to monitor them to make sure they are being followed.

Although not all these suggestions are new, remembering and using these approaches at the appropriate time can enhance efficiency and effectiveness and help to avoid unnecessary frustration.

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ANALYSIS OF PHYSICAL FITNESS INDICATORS' DYNAMICS OF FUTURE STATUTORY OFFICERS IN 2014-2018

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Abstract. The article reviews the peculiarities of dynamics of testing indicators reflecting the initial physical preparation of future statutory officials. The results of the physical skills testing of students who started their studies of Combat Self-Defense and Combat Wrestling studies in 2014-2018 are analyzed. The article uses the results of randomly selected students' control exercises. They characterize students' speed endurance (100 m running); peculiarities of general aerobic capacity (2000m and 3000 m running), explosive strength (the standing long jump), abdominal press and arm muscle strength changes in retrospective. Based on the initial data on students' physical fitness testing, the tendencies of changes are defined. The statistically significant differences in the physical characteristics of the groups of students tested in different years are determined.

Keywords: students, future statutory officers, men and women, physical skills' testing, speed, endurance, strength, analysis of result dynamics.

INTRODUCTION

Citizens of the Republic of Lithuania wishing to become statutory officials must, among other things, also meet the special requirements for health and physical fitness¹. The level of applicants for internal service and general physical preparation of officials shall be determined in accordance with the description approved by the Minister of the Interior of the Republic of Lithuania². During the selection and training period, the State Border Guard Service School at the Ministry of the Interior of the Republic of Lithuania³ and the Lithuanian Police School perform similar physical fitness tests.⁴

¹ Lietuvos Respublikos vidaus tarnybos statuto pakeitimo įstatymas 2018 m. birželio 29 d. Nr. XIII-1381. [interactive] [accessed 2019-03-22] <<https://e-seimas.lrs.lt/portal/legalAct/lt/TAD/fae39102834511e89188e16a6495e98c>>

² Lietuvos Respublikos vidaus reikalų ministro įsakymas 2019 m. sausio 15 d. Nr. 1V-55 „Dėl Lietuvos Respublikos vidaus tarnybos statuto įgyvendinimo“ [interactive] [accessed 2019-03-22] <https://e-seimas.lrs.lt/portal/legalAct/lt/TAD/8ae81cc2190111e9bd28d9a28a9e9ad9>

³ <https://www.ldb.lt/jaunimui/jdc/Documents/Fizinio%20pasirengimo%20normatyvai%20ir%20j%C5%B3%20vkdymo%20tvarka.pdf>. [interactive] [accessed 2019-04-05]

⁴ <http://stokipolicija.lt/wp-content/uploads/attachments/Atrankos-i-LPM-taisykles-2016m.pdf> [interactive] [accessed 2019-04-27]

Students in Mykolas Romeris University Public Security Academy in Law and Police and Law and State Border Guard programs also carry out similar physical fitness control tests.⁵ The standards for these tests are based on the peculiarities of the physical preparedness of the country's population⁶.

Officials from other countries are also required to have an appropriate level of physical fitness. Latvian officials⁷ perform similar tests to Lithuanian officials: pulling on the crossbar, push-ups (arm bending and extending supporting the base), 100m, 10x10m and 3000m running, sit-ups (sit-lie down) (2 minutes).

In Poland⁸, the physical check-up of the police is made by proposing to the candidates to overcome the special obstacle section in 1 min. 41 seconds. In the obstacle zone, you have to overcome the moving obstacles, take the humps back and forth, throw the medicine ball, carry the 28 kg mannequin, perform sit-ups with the medicine ball and overcome the gym boxes. Border guards have to do slightly different tests⁹: the standing long jump, running according to the “envelope” area, throwing a medicine ball forward (men 3kg, women 2 kg), forward, side backward and forward hump falls.

Estonian officials¹⁰ perform other tests: 3000m running (either 500m swimming, or 6000m rowing on an ergometer, or 6km walking), exercises to assess arm and abdominal muscle strength. When assessing physical fitness, attention is paid to overweight and other circumstances (illnesses, etc.).

Tests of Slovak officials¹¹ are not different from ones of officials from other countries: men and women - 12 min running; 100 m swimming, sit-lie down in 2 min. Men are still making the standing long jump, 100 m or 4x10 m running and pulling on the crossbar, and women – 50 m running and hanging on the crossbar with arms bent.

⁵ https://stdb.mruni.eu/studiju_dalyko_aprasas.php?id=54445&l=lt [interactive] [accessed 2019-03-22]

⁶ Muliarčikas A., Volbekienė V., Šiupšinskas L. ir kt. *Lietuvos gyventojų fizinio pajėgumo testavimo ir fizinės būklės nustatymo metodika*. Vilnius: Lietuvos sporto informatizacijos centras, 2007, p.73

⁷ <https://likumi.lv/doc.php?id=257102> [interactive] [accessed 2019-05-02]

⁸ <https://www.rekrutacja-do-policji.pl/> [interactive] [accessed 2019-05-02]

⁹ <https://www.infor.pl/akt-prawny/DZU.2015.152.0001121,rozporzadzenie-ministra-spraw-wewnetrznych-i-administracji-w-sprawie-testu-sprawnosci-fizycznej-funkcjonariuszy-strazy-granicznej.html> [interactive] [accessed 2019-05-02].

¹⁰ <https://www.riigiteataja.ee/akt/118042013016> [interactive] [accessed 2019-05-02].

¹¹ <https://www.akademiapz.sk/hodnotenie-fyzickej-zdatnosti-psychologickeho-vysetrenia-new> [interactive] [accessed 2019-05-02]

The physical fitness assessment tests of statutory officials in Germany^{12, 13}, compared to Lithuania, also have some similarities and differences. In the federal states of Germany¹⁴, physical fitness of the police officers is assessed by different tests. All countries in this respect are similar in testing indices as arm, leg, abdominal muscle strength and overall endurance.

Thus, in order to properly perform the functions matching the standards for statutory officials, their physical fitness compared to most citizens should be at a much higher level. Physical preparation of officials is significantly dependent on their lifestyle - physically active or passive. More physically passive officials have higher body fat, BMI and relatively lower strength, flexibility and overall endurance.¹⁵ It is very important for police officers to develop the endurance and strength peculiarities through aerobic exercise¹⁶ and weight lifting exercises, but in order to properly resist the attackers, to successfully detain them, the preparation process should be both versatile and specialized¹⁷. Physical preparation, its adequacy to the functions of officers is a significant factor influencing the quality of their activities, their health and the ability to preserve life^{18, 19}. Regardless of the fact that officials are tested in stages to determine the suitability of physical fitness, they often suffer from injuries²⁰ due to physical resistance of public offenders more. According to studies conducted in the USA^{21 22}, it was found that the physical fitness of a large number of investigated officials was worse than that of ordinary citizens. Police officers have a higher risk of cardiovascular diseases compared to ordinary

¹² <http://sporttest-polizei.de/bundeslaender/bundespolizei/> [interactive] [accessed 2018-02-19]

¹³ <http://sporttest-polizei.de/bundeslaender/> [interactive] [accessed 2018-02-19]

¹⁴ *Supra note 13*

¹⁵ Volanti J.M., Ma C.C., Fekedulegn D. et al. Associations Between Body Fat Percentage and Fitness among Police Officers: A Statewide Study. *Safety and Health at Work*. 2017, 8 (1): 36-41.

¹⁶ Thompson P.D., Buchner D.; Piña I. L. et al. Exercise and Physical Activity in the Prevention and Treatment of Atherosclerotic Cardiovascular Disease. *Circulation*. 2003, 107:3109-3116. [interactive] [accessed 2019-04-04] <<https://www.ahajournals.org/doi/pdf/10.1161/01.CIR.0000075572.40158.77>>

¹⁷ <https://www.policeone.com/police-products/fitness-health-wellness/articles/508738-The-11-components-of-proper-police-fitness/> [interactive] [accessed 2018-03-11]

¹⁸ Lagestad P. Physical Skills and Work Performance in Policing. *International Journal of Police Science and Management*. 2012, 14 (1): 58-70.

¹⁹ Lagestad P., van den Tillaar, R. A Comparison of Training and Physical Performance of Police Students at the Start and the End of Three-Year Police Education. *Journal of Strength and Conditioning Research*. 2014, 28 (5): 1394-1400.

²⁰ Fortenbery J. *An Exploratory Study on Physical Fitness Policies Among Police Departments in North Carolina*. Dissertation of Doctor of Philosophy. Nova Southeastern University, 2016.

²¹ Kales, S. N., Tsismenakis, A. J., Zhang, C. & Soteriades, E. S. Blood Pressure in Firefighters, Police Officers, and Other Emergency Responders. *American Journal of Hypertension*. 2009, 22 (1): 11-20.

²² Quigley A. Fit for Duty? The Need for Physical Fitness Programs for Law Enforcement Officers. *The Police Chief*. Retrieved 2008 [interactive] [accessed 2019-05-01]. <www.policechiefmagazine.org>.

citizens²³. This situation makes it necessary to draw attention to the reasons why officials experience injuries, to find out whether their physical fitness is adequate. The situation that arises presupposes the need to look for ways to improve, maintain and evaluate physical fitness and health.²⁴

The aim of the article was to review the peculiarities of dynamics of physical skills' indicators of future statutory officers of Mykolas Romeris University, Public Security Academy during 2014-2018.

Research methods. The article analyzed the data of initial testing of physical abilities of students selected randomly who studied at the Law and Police Activities, Law and State Border Protection and Police Activities Study Programs. 142 men and 180 women who started their studies in Self-Defense and Combat Wrestling programmes participated in the survey conducted in 2014-2018.

For the assessment of students' physical abilities, the control method and the following tests were used: 100m run for speed endurance; endurance - 3000m running for men and 2000m for women; explosive strength – the standing long jump; abdominal press muscle strength - sit-ups for 30 s for women and hanging on the crossbar with leg lift to the crossbar for 30 s for men, arm muscle strength – push-ups for women, and pull-ups to the crossbar -for men. The listed exercises are included in the curriculum content of Combat Self-Defense and Combat Wrestling Subjects of Statutory Officials as control tests used to assess the physical fitness of students and statutory officials²⁵. Mathematical statistics method was used to process and evaluate the data received, and analytical methods to discuss the results of the study.

RESEARCH RESULTS

The results of the overall physical fitness tests of the men who participated in the study changed with different vectors. Some results were relatively decreased; other results appeared to be in the direction of improvement (Table 1). The average scores of 100m running results for students in 2014-2018 were statistically significant. A slight downward trend in

²³ Wright B. R., Barbosa-Leiker C. Hoekstra T. Law Enforcement Officer Versus Non-Law Enforcement Officer Status as a longitudinal Predictor of Traditional and Emerging Cardiovascular Risk Factors. *Journal of Occupational Medicine*. 2011, 53 (7): 730-734.

²⁴ Lagestad P., *supra note 18*.

²⁵ Lietuvos Respublikos vidaus reikalų ministro įsakymas 2019 m. sausio 14 d. Nr. 1V-45 Dėl Lietuvos Respublikos vidaus reikalų ministro 2016 m. vasario 1 d. Įsakymo nr. 1V-72 „Dėl priėmimo į Vidaus tarnybą, vidaus tarnybos sistemos pareigūnų rengimo ir kvalifikacijos tobulinimo tvarkos aprašo patvirtinimo“ pakeitimo. [interactive] [accessed 2019-04-30] < <https://www.e-tar.lt/portal/lt/legalActSearchr> >

performance was observed in 2016. The situation with the results of pull ups to the crossbar and the standing long jump was noticed to be similar.

Table 1. Results of men's overall physical fitness testing

Year	100 m run(s)	3km run(min.)	Leg explosive strength (cm)	Arm muscle strength endurance (times)	Abdominal muscle strength (times)
2014	13,4±0,6	13:01±0,48	250,5±11,3	12,6±4,2	11,9±2,8
2015	13,4±0,6	13:16±0,37	245,5±16,5	11±5,3	9,8±3,1
2016	13,7±0,6	13:53±0,36	249±14,8	10,4±4,2	10,4±3,6
2017	13,5±0,8+	13:53±0,51	250,1±20,8	12,1±4,2	10,8±2,7
2018	13,4±0,5	14:00±0,49	249,1±12,5	10,6±3,6	11,7±3,7

A decrease in abdominal muscle strength endurance, as well as other physical skills test results, was observed in 2015-2016. With respect to the results of other tests, the average of the results of this test in 2015 is statistically significantly lower ($p < 0.05$; Fig. 1) than the results in 2014 and 2018.

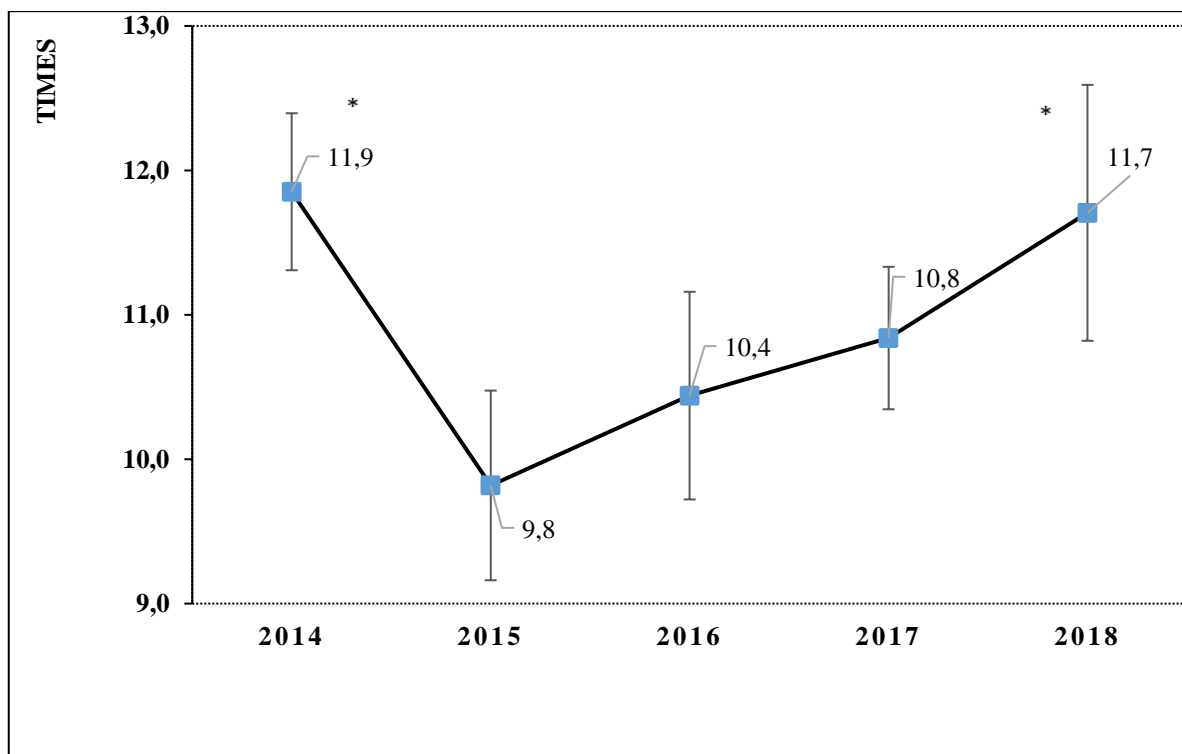


Figure 1. Results of men's hanging on the crossbar with leg lift control exercise (* $P < 0,05$)

In retrospect, the averages of the students' overall endurance (3000m running) test results changed in the direction of sequential increase (Figure 2).

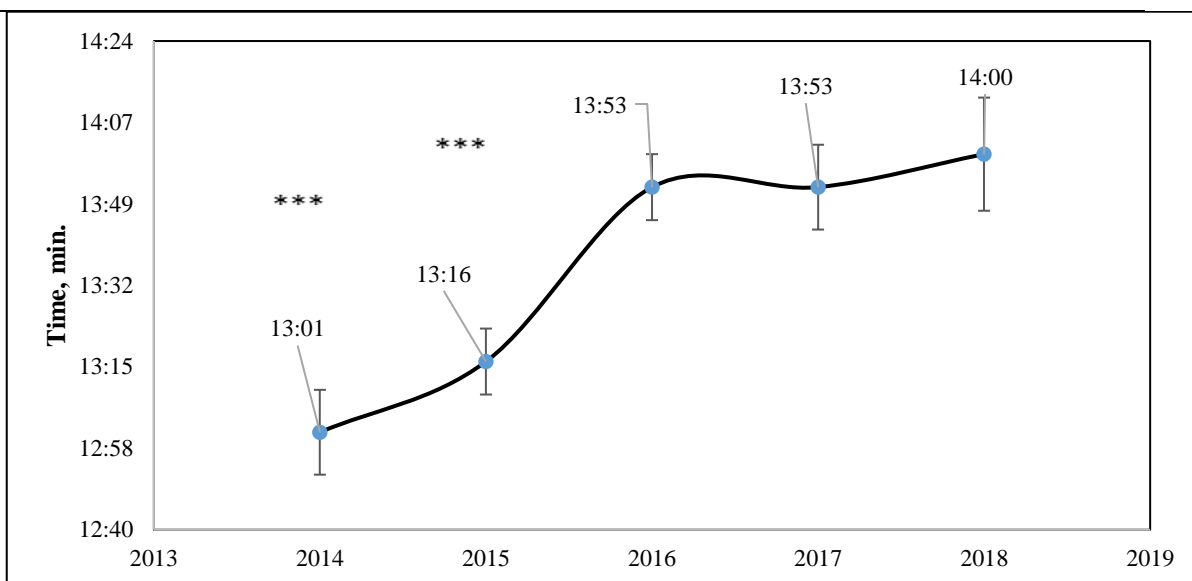


Figure 2. Results of men's 3km running exercise (***) $P < 0,001$

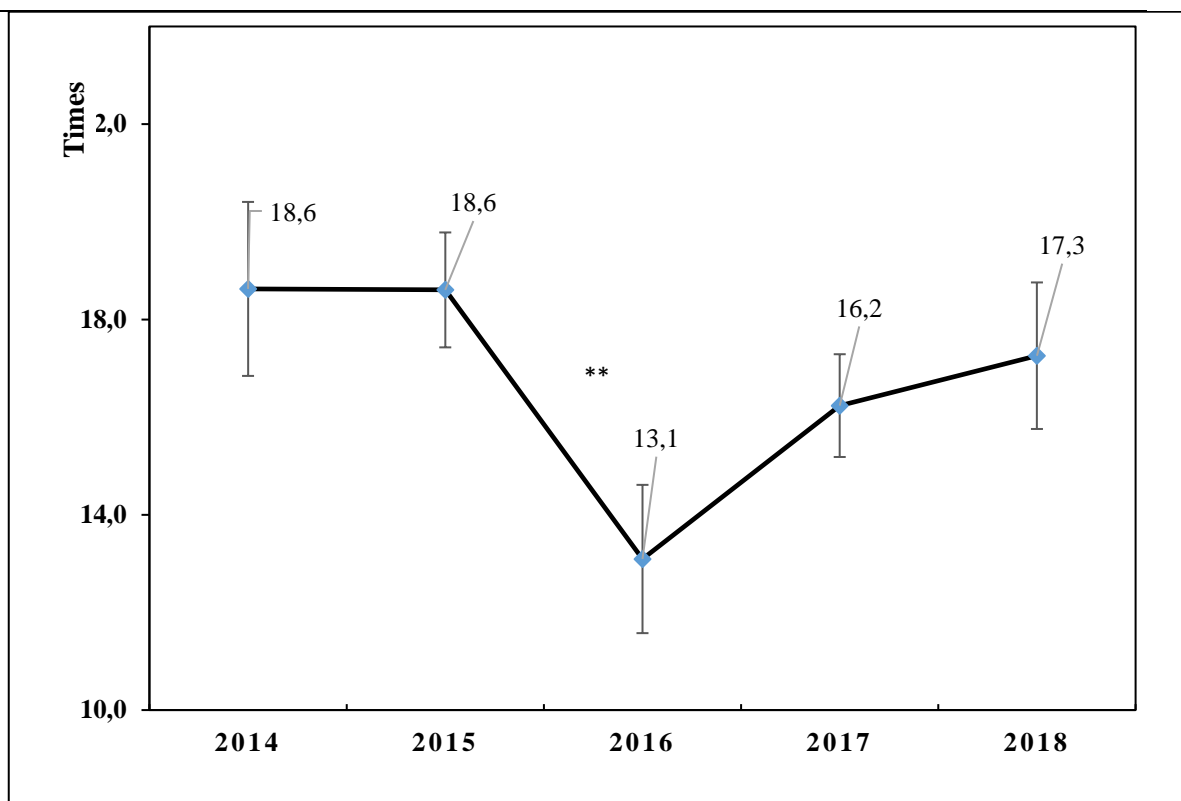
The averages of the 2014 and 2015 test results (distance run in shorter time) were statistically significantly different from the results of 2016, 2017 and 2018.

Trends in the outcomes of testing women's physical abilities were slightly different from those of men (Table 2).

Table 2. Results of women's overall physical fitness testing

Year	100 m run(s)	2km run(min.)	Leg explosive strength (cm)	Arm muscle strength endurance (times)	Abdominal muscle strength (times)
2014	16,0±1,1	10:32±0,50	200,4±15,8	18,6±7,1	23,5±5,2
2015	16,2±0,8	10:33±0,31	196,8±9,34	18,6±7,7	25,1±2,6
2016	17,0±1,1	11:06±0,55	191,0±15,6	13,1±8,6	26,7±3,2
2017	16,6±1,1	11:02±1,00	1935±15,4	16,2±7,5	25,3±3,6
2018	16,7±1,1	11:13±1,20	192,9±15,7	17,3±8,9	25,5±2,6

Gradual decline in mean muscular strength results (Figure 3). Compared to 2014 and 2015, on average, women students who studied in 2016 performed push-ups the least times.



3. Pav. Figure 1. Results of women's push-up control exercise (**P<0,01).

Decrease in the 100m running results of women students was noticed.

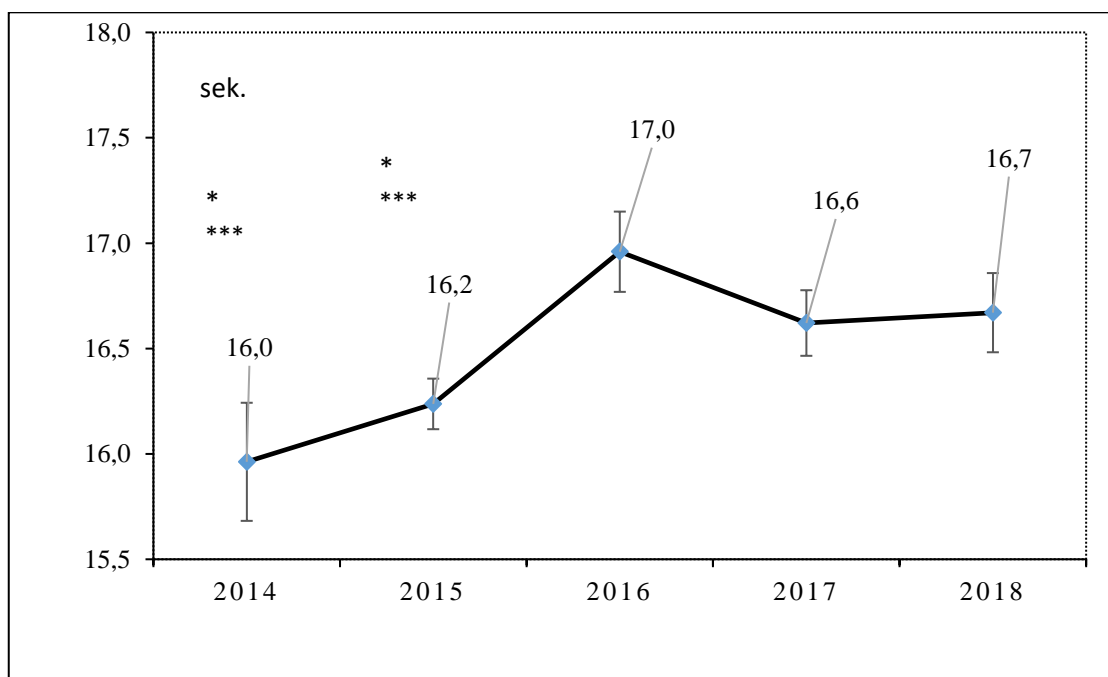


Figure 4. Results of women's 100 m running exercise (*p<0,05; ***p<0,001).

The worst speed (Fig. 4) physical abilities were demonstrated by women tested in 2016. Their results were significantly worse ($p < 0.001$) than those shown by women tested in 2014 and 2015. The results for 2014, 2015 were higher ($p < 0.05$; shorter running time) than those of 2017 and 2018.

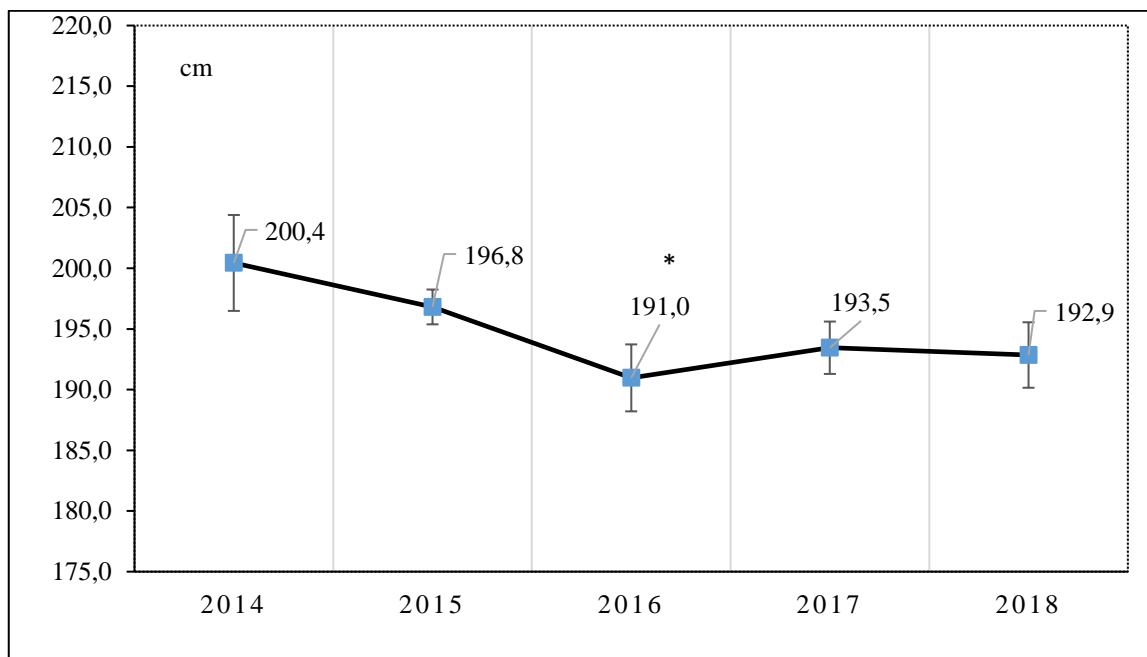


Figure 5. Results of women's standing long jump exercise (* $P < 0,05$)

Average results of women's standing long jump exercise in 2016 was statistically significantly lower than those performed in 2014 and 2015 ($p < 0.05$).

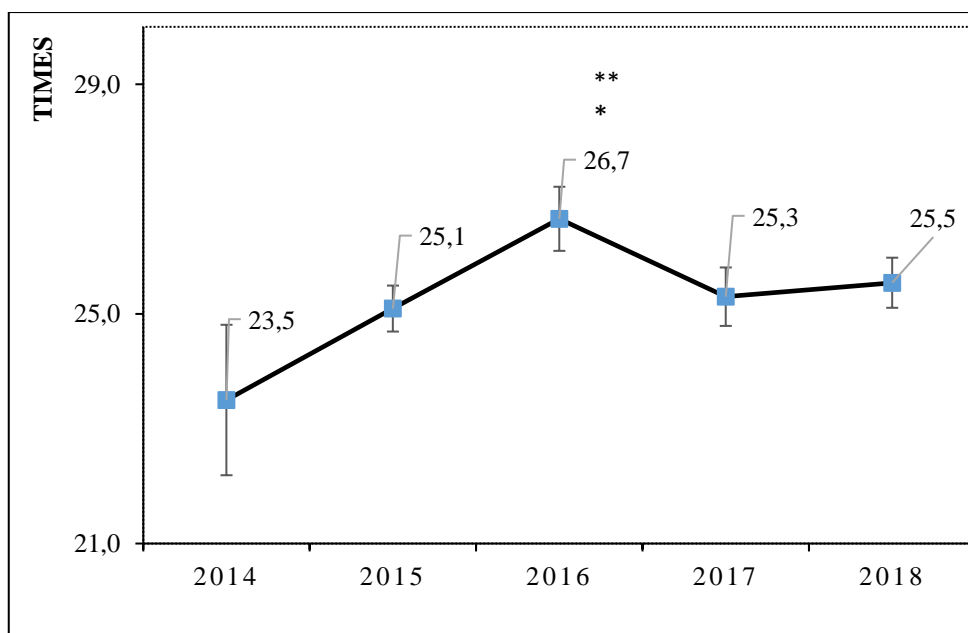


Figure 6. Results of women's sit-up control exercise (* $P < 0,05$; ** $P < 0,01$)

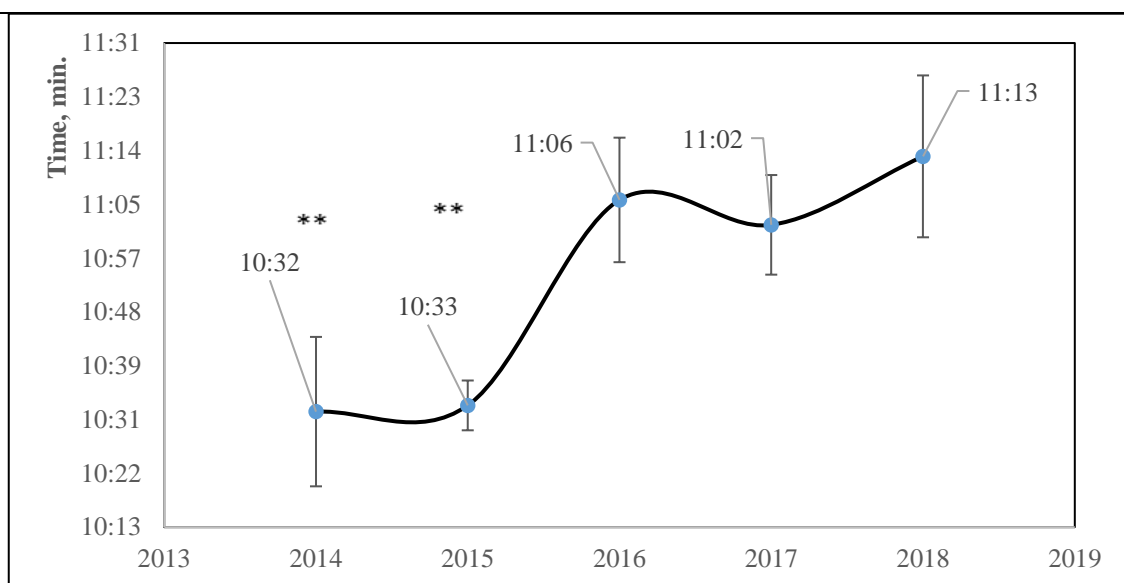


Figure 7. Results of women's 2km running exercise (**P<0,01).

Contrary to what has been discussed above, it is possible to evaluate the test results that characterize the stamina of the abdominal muscular strength of women (Fig. 6). Most of the repetitions of sit-up exercise for 30 seconds were performed by women tested in 2016. They achieved statistically significantly better results than women tested in 2014 ($p < 0.01$); 2015 ($p < 0.05$). Women also achieved lower results in this test in 2017 and 2018, but no statistically significant difference was recorded.

The results of the 2000m run, reflecting general stamina development, have gradually deteriorated since 2016 (Figure 7). In 2014 and 2015, the averages of the results achieved by the groups studied differ statistically significantly from the results of 2016-2018.

After reviewing the test data, according to the number of students completing the test requirements in the first test (Table 3), there were visible decreasing “waves” of certain physical abilities of the investigated men identified.

From 2015 until 2018 the visible wave of deterioration of hand muscle strength indicators was noticed, i.e. a number of students have failed to meet the minimum requirements for first-time testing. The majority of such students compared to 2014 studied in 2015 ($p < 0.05$), slightly less than in 2016 ($p < 0.05$). In subsequent years, their number has become even smaller and no statistically significant difference between the numbers of students has been identified.

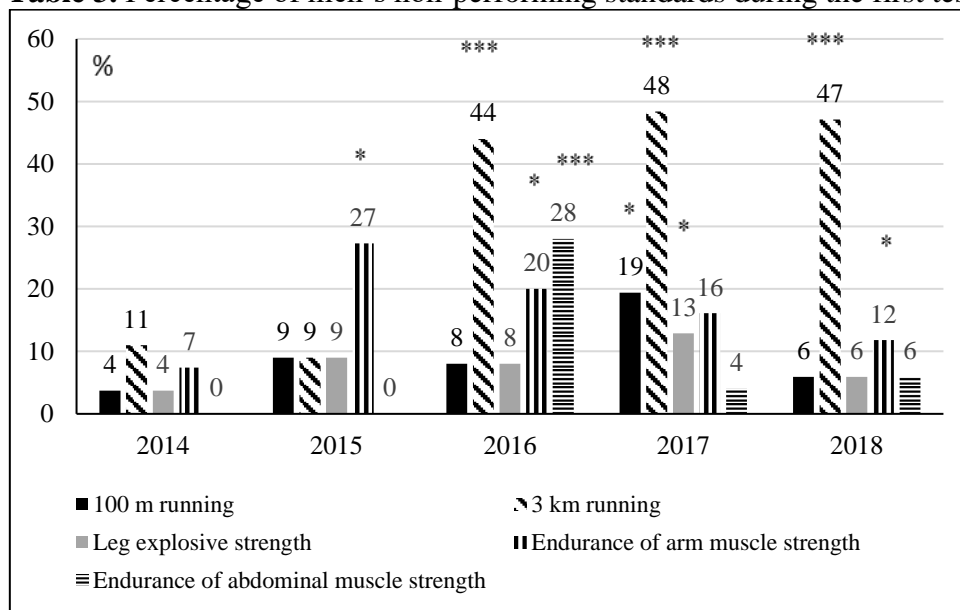
A significant number of students did not fulfill the minimum abdominal muscle strength endurance requirements at first testing in 2016 ($p < 0.001$).

At the time of the first test, the minimum number of minimum jump rates failed to meet the 2017 target. ($p < 0.05$).

The statistically significant majority ($p < 0.05$) of the 100m student running test at the time of the first test did not complete in 2017 - there is a tendency of dependence between speed and explosive strength.

During the first 3000 m run, almost half of the tested men (Table 3) in 2016-2018 did not meet the standards, unlike ($p < 0.001$) men tested in 2014-2015.

Table 3. Percentage of men's non-performing standards during the first test



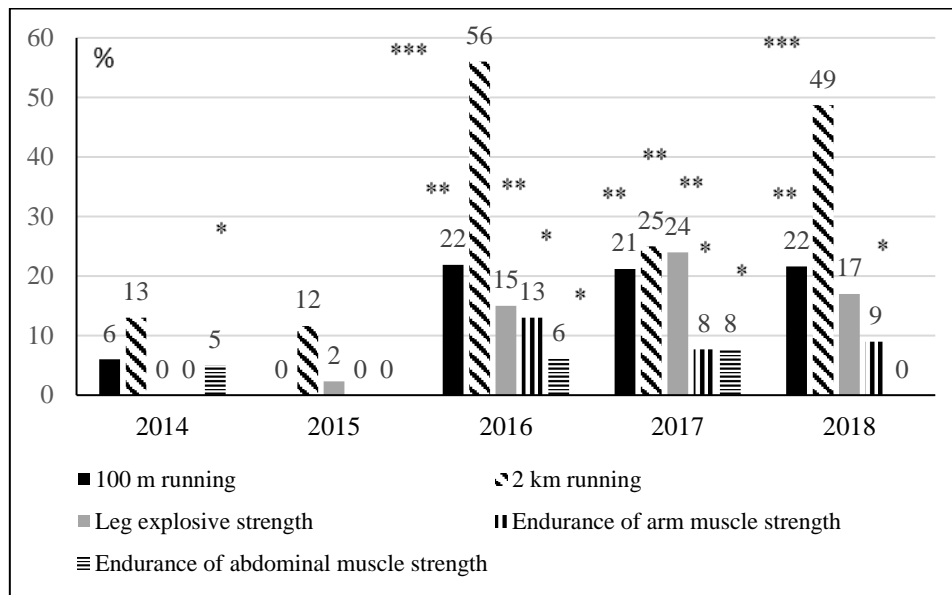
*($P < 0,05$); **($P < 0,01$); ***($P < 0,001$)

The preparation of the women to perform the sit-up exercise was different in different years (Table 4) More women did not pass the normative test during the first test in 2014, 2016 and 2017 ($p < 0.05$) than in 2015 and 2018.

In accordance with the normative requirements, the push-up exercise was performed by tested women in 2014 and 2015. The significantly higher ($p < 0.05$) number of women tested in 2016-2018 was unable to do so.

Similarly, they performed the long jump test (Table 4). Statistically significantly more women failed to perform this test as required in 2016 - 2018 ($p < 0.01$) than in 2014-2015 during the initial testing. Due to the influence of leg explosive power on the speed ability, a very similar dynamics can be noticed in the 100 m running test. Significantly more women ($p < 0.01$) in 2016-2018 than in previous years were not well prepared for this test.

Table 4. Percentage of women's non-performing standards during the first test



*(P<0,05); **(P<0,01); ***(P<0,001)

A special change in the development of women's aerobic endurance has been observed since 2016. More than half or half of the women tested failed (<0.001) to perform the 2000m running test standard during first test in 2016 and 2018 (Table 4). Such women comprised 25% (p <0.01) in 2017, and slightly over 10% of all tested women in 2014-2015.

DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH RESULTS

Summarizing the results and dynamics of students' overall physical fitness for 2014-2018, it can be stated that no significant changes were observed during these years. The consistent deterioration of the overall endurance indicators of women and men should be emphasized as a more significant circumstance. This negative trend in the near future may lead to more significant undesirable consequences for our country's officials in direct In foreign countries, with the increase in the proportion of statutory officials in health problems, researchers are actively looking for optimal pathways and ways to address the problematic situation.^{26, 27}.

²⁶ Kales, S. *supra* note 21.

²⁷ Leischik R., Foshag P., Strauß et. all. Aerobic Capacity, Physical Activity and Metabolic Risk Factors in Firefighters Compared with Police Officers and Sedentary Clerks. *PLOS ONE*. 2015, 10(8): e0136224. [interactive] [accessed 2019-03-22] <<http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0133113#sec019>>

In most cases, the recommended activity is physical exercises that are adequate to the level of preparation and suitable for the function of the professionals.^{28, 29, 30}

During the analyzed period, the mean values of the students' average scores are not lower than those of our country's specialized school students and statutory officials during their regular testing.^{31, 32} This suggests that the physical fitness of the subjects, based on the average of test results, is fully in line with the requirements for future statutory officials. The standards of physical preparation testing of students studying at the Public Security Academy of Mykolas Romeris University were prepared in accordance with the standards of physical testing recommended for Lithuanian residents. They were divided into appropriate age periods for women and men, based on the results of multi-annual physical testing of large-scale Lithuanian population³³. The average of the results of the various tests of students, compared to the residents of 30-34 years, corresponds to the level of "Good" (men's 3 km running; the 2 km running exercise and sit-up exercise for women). Compared to the proposed standards for 18-year-olds³⁴, the average of men's long-distance results would be seen as "Good" and for women - between "Highly satisfactory" and "Good". The result of the sit-up test for women in 2014-2018 was between the categories "Unsatisfactory" (23 times) and "Satisfactory" (27 times). Compared to the ratings given in the statutory tables of officials^{35, 36}, our students, taking their lowest scores, were as follows: 3 out of 3, men scored 29, and women - 25 points. The lowest requirement for physical training for statutory officers³⁷ is to collect 31 points out of 3 tests.

Retrospectively, comparing the mean values of this and the previous study results³⁸ (Table 5), no significant changes in the results of the tested physical properties were found. The graphs show a year-on-year change in the results of one or the other test results, after analyzing

²⁸ *Supra note*, 17

²⁹ *Supra note*, 20

³⁰ *Supra note*, 27

³¹ *Supra note*, 2.

³² *Supra note*, 4.

³³ *Supra note*, 6.

³⁴ *Supra note*, 6, p.12-14.

³⁵ *Supra note*, 2.

³⁶ *Supra note*, 4.

³⁷ *Supra note*, 2.

³⁸ Muliarčikas A. Būsimųjų statutinių pareigūnų fizinio parengtumo rodiklių dinamikos 2003-2012 m. analizė. *Visuomenės saugumas ir viešoji tvarka*. 2013, (10):121-138.

the variation by year. Its cause is still unclear. It is likely that one of the many factors is the gradually decreasing physical activity of adolescents^{39, 40}.

It is worth noting the fact that the contingent's general physical endurance is diminished. General endurance aerobic exercise exerts a positive influence not only on the cardiovascular system,⁴¹ but on other human functional systems.

Table 5. Averages of student's physical skills testing results

Test\year	Women			Test\year	Men		
	2003-2007	2008-2012	2014-2018		2003-2007	2008-2012	2014-2018
100 m (s)	16,3±0,3	16,9±0,2	16,5±0,2	100 m (s)	13,4±0,1	13,7±0,1	13,5±0,1
2000 m (s)	628,6±6,2	654,8±11,6	653,3±8,6	3000 m (s)	794,6±8,3	800±9,9	817,6±11,15
Long jump (cm)	192±3,8	190±2,8	195±1,7	Long jump (cm)	253±3,6	247±2,9	249±0,9
Sit-ups for 30 s (times)	25±1,2	26±1,1	25±0,5	Leg lift up to the crossbar for 30 s (times)	10,7±0,9	10,8±0,9	10,9±0,4
Push-ups (times)	12,7±1,6	11,7±1,5	16,8±1,1	Pull ups to the crossbar (times)	11,8±1,4	11±0,5	11,4±0,4

Simultaneously, this kind of workload also optimizes cognitive, thinking, problem-solving, communication and other skills⁴². It is obvious that all this is significant for statutory officials.

Attention is drawn to the fact that physical exercise of a specific nature has a positive effect on the health status of even those who are already suffering from peripheral vascular

³⁹ Zaborskis, A., Raskilas, A.. Lietuvos mokinių fizinio aktyvumo pokyčiai 1994–2010 metais. *Visuomenės sveikata*. 2011, 3(54): 78–86.

⁴⁰ Volbekienė V, Gričiūtė A., Gaižauskienė A. Lietuvos didžiųjų miestų 5—11 klasių moksleivių su sveikata susijęs fizinis aktyvumas. *Ugdymas kūno kultūra sportas*. 2007, 2 (65): 71-77.

⁴¹ Darren E.R, Crystal W.N., Shannon S.D. Health benefits of physical activity: the evidence. *Canadian Medical Association Journal*. 2006, 174 (6):801-809. [interactive] [accessed 2019-04-19]. <<http://www.cmaj.ca/content/174/6/801.full>>

⁴² Smith PJ, Blumenthal JA, Hoffman BM, et al. Aerobic exercise and neuro-cognitive performance: A meta-analytic review of randomized controlled trials. *Psychosomatic Medicine*. 2010,72(3):239–252. [interactive] [accessed 2018-05-19] <<https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2897704/>>

diseases^{43 44 45 46}. Thus, the gradual decrease of test results, reflecting the level of future stamina, aerobic capacity of future officials, makes us think about certain aspects of the perspective.

CONCLUSIONS

Statistically significant difference among the speed, arm and leg strength indices of men's groups (2014-2018) tested was not found. A slight but statistically significant decrease in abdominal force indicators was recorded in 2015. Indicators characterizing men's overall endurance have deteriorated significantly from 2016 to 2018.

A statistically significant deterioration was recorded for women in almost all of the tests (only the sit-up exercise improved) in 2016.

Women reached lower results in 2016-2018 than in 2014-2015 in 100m and 2000m running. The results of their abdominal press strength endurance tests and leg explosive strength tests were not statistically significant.

Statistically significantly more students did not meet the standards during the first test from 2016 as compared to the results of 2014 and 2015.

It can be stated that physical fitness (especially overall endurance) of those who started studying earlier than 2015-2017 is significantly better.

Although there is a downward trend in students' physical fitness, their current preparation is significantly higher than the minimum requirements for statutory officials.

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⁴³ Saskia P.A.N., Hendriks E.J.M., Prins M.H., et al. Optimizing supervised exercise therapy for patients with intermittent claudication. *Journal of Vascular Surgery*. 2010, 52, (5): 1226-1233.

⁴⁴ Bronas U.G., Treat-Jacobson D., Leon A.S. *Journal of Vascular Surgery*. 2011, 53 (6): 1557–1564.

⁴⁵ Saxton J.M., Zwierska I., Blagojevic M., et al. Upper- versus lower-limb aerobic exercise training on health-related quality of life in patients with symptomatic peripheral arterial disease. *Journal of Vascular Surgery*. 2011, 53(5):1265-1273.

⁴⁶ Ahmed S. Elmorsya, Ahmed E. Mansoura*, Amr E. Okasha. Effect of upper limb, lower limb and combined training on exercise performance, quality of life and survival in COPD. *Egyptian Journal of Chest Diseases and Tuberculosis*. 2012, 61(3): 89-93.

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TARPKULTŪRINĖS KOMUNIKACIJOS SUVOKIMO VEIKSNIAI

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Anotacija. Globali aplinka reikalauja naujo tipo komunikacinių modelių, kuriuose reikšminga vieta skiriama suvokimui. Tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje pranešimo ar žinutės, paslaugos ar ketinimų prasmės tinkamas suvokimas apibūdina kontakto sėkmingumą. Komunikacijose dalyvaujant dvejoms ar daugiau skirtingų kultūrų sistemų dažnai neįmanoma sukurti vienodai suvokiamo konteksto, nekalbant apie suvokiamą reiškinį. Tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos dalyviai susiduria su rimtais iššūkiais, pasireiškiančiais žinutės pradinės reikšmės išsiaiškinimu, teisingu verbalinės kalbos ir neverbalinio elgesio tinkamu suvokimu. Atliktas pilotinis kiekybinis tyrimas apie suvokimo svarbą tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje leido apibūdinti skirtingų kultūrų respondentų patirtis ir įvardinti suvokimo veiksnius, problemas ir iššūkius organizacijose.

Pagrindinės sąvokos: kultūra; suvokimas; tarpkultūrinė komunikacija.

ĮVADAS

Tarpkultūrinė komunikacija itin svarbi globalioje aplinkoje. Tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos vertinimas susijęs su jos kontekstu. Visų pirma, norint suprasti, kaip komunikacijas sąlygoja nevienoda kultūra, svarbu išsiaiškinti pačios kultūros koncepciją.

Tarpkultūrinė kompetencija – tai žmogaus gebėjimas komunikuoti ir sąveikauti su žmonėmis, kalbančiais kita kalba. M. Byram (1997)¹, teigimu - kitos kalbos žinojimas yra diskutuotinas, kadangi, tarpkultūrinė kompetencija nebūtinai susijusi su kitos kalbos mokėjimu. Tarpkultūrinė kompetencija pažymi ir abiejų komunikuojančių pusių gebėjimus tinkamai suvokti save, kitą asmenį, žinutę ir jos prasmę, kontekstą, kuris padeda nustatyti komunikavimo taisykles (Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, Roy, 2013²) ir pan. Tarpkultūrinė kompetencija įvairių autorių traktuojama ne kaip duotybė, bet kaip asmens nuolatinės raidos ir vystymosi rezultatas. Ši kompetencija, esant tam tikroms sąlygoms formuojasi visą gyvenimą ir dažnai aukščiausias

¹ Byram, M. and Fleming M.(ed). *Language Learning in Intercultural Perspective*. Cambridge. Cambridge University Press., 1998.

² Samovar, L., Porter R., McDaniel E., Roy, C., *Communication Between Cultures*.. Cengage Learning., 2013.

lygis yra sunkiai pasiekiamas (Byram, Nichols, Stevens, 2000³). Kompetencija komunikacijoje yra svarbus tarpkultūrinio bendravimo komponentas, tačiau nemenką vertę turi ir kultūros poveikis.

Šiuolaikinis kultūros apibūdinimas gan įvairus, nors kultūros tarpusavyje dažnai yra persipynusios globalizacijos kontekste. Išlieka aštri identiteto problema, kaip išlaikant savitą pažinti ir tinkamai suvokti, bei toleruoti kitokį identitetą. Tradiciniu požiūriu, *kultūra* — bendrų vertybių, požiūrių, įsitikinimų, elgesio normų ir simbolių *ištekliai* (Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, Roy, 2013; Simon, 2004⁴). Būtent kultūra atspindi, kokiai grupei priklausome: mūsų kultūrinis identitetas atsiranda, dėl jausmo priklausyti konkrečiai kultūrai ar etninei grupei. Tai pažymima įvairių autorių darbuose (Lusting, Koester, 2010⁵). Kiti autoriai (Hofstede, 2005⁶; Fischer, 2007⁷) kultūrą apibūdina kaip žmogaus mąstymo, elgesio, jutiminio pasaulio ir juos veikiančios artimiausios socialinės aplinkos visuma. Kultūra, tai viskas, ką reikia žinoti, kad neišsiskirtum kitoje šalyje kaip svetimšalis.

Tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos problemos gali kilti dėl kalbinių barjerų, stereotipų ir išankstinių nusistatymų. Taip pat svarbus veiksnys, įtakojantis suvokimo procesą yra stereotipai.

Straipsnio **tikslas**—mokslinės literatūros analizės pagrindu apibūdinti tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos suvokimo veiksniai bei pateikti rekomendacijas tarpkultūrinei komunikacijai tobulinti.

Tyrimo **objektas** - kultūriniai suvokimo veiksniai tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje.

Tyrimo **metodai** - mokslinės literatūros analizė ir sintezė, pilotinis kiekybinis tyrimas.

KULTŪRA TARPKULTŪRINĖJE KOMUNIKACIJOJE

Būtų nenaudinga apibrėžti tarpkultūrinę komunikaciją, neįsigilinus į jos kontekstą. Pirmiausia, norint suprasti, kaip komunikacijos sąlygoja nevienoda kultūra, reikia išsiaiškinti pačios *kultūros* koncepciją. Užsienio literatūroje, šiuolaikinis požiūris į kultūros terminą šiek tiek glaustesnis, tikslesnis ir paprastai apibūdinamas, kaip bendrų vertybių, požiūrių, įsitikinimų, elgesio normų ir simbolių *ištekliais* ((Samovar, Porter, McDaniel, Roy, 2013).

³ Byram M. Nichols A., Stevens D., *Developing Intercultural Competence in Practice*. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters., 2001.

⁴ Simon, B., *Identity in Modern Society: A Social Psychological Perspective*. Oxford: Blackwell., 2004.

⁵ Lusting M., Koester J. *Intercultural Competence: Interpersonal Communication Across Cultures*. Pearson, 2010.
Hofstede G., Hofstede G.J. *Cultures and organizations : software of the mind*. NY. McGraw Hill, 2005.
Fischer M., *Culture and Cultural Analysis as Experimental Systems*. in Cultural Anthropology, Vol. 22, February, 2007, pp 1-65.

Kitaip tariant kultūra atspindi, kokiai grupei priklausome: mūsų kultūrinis identitetas atsiranda, dėl jausmo priklausyti konkrečiai kultūrai ar etninei grupei (Lustig, Koester, 2006). Kitų autorių teigimu (Hofstede, 2005; Fischer, 2007) kultūra yra žmogaus mąstymo, elgesio, jutiminio pasaulio ir juos veikiančios artimiausios socialinės aplinkos visuma. Kultūra, tai viskas, ką reikia žinoti, kad neišsiskirtum kitoje šalyje kaip svetimšalis

Šių dienų realijos skatina pamąstyti, ar išvis būtų pagalvota apie kultūras, jų įvairovę, jei pasaulyje egzistuotų viena tauta. Mono-kultūrinėje komunikacijoje, kuri labiau grįsta anašumais, retai atsirandantys skirtingumai sąlygoja nesusipratimus ir nesutarimus, tačiau įvairūs socialiniai skirtumai čia neskatinami. Būtent, tik esant daugiau nei vienai tautai atsiranda tarpkultūriškumo samprata. Kitos tarpkultūriškumą žyminčios sąvokos užsienio literatūroje taip pat išskiriamos. Galima sutikti su autorių nuomone, kurie teigia, kad *skirtingų kultūrų* (angl. *cross-cultural*) komunikacijos terminas, taikomas tiriant atskiras kultūras, pagal pasirinktus aspektus siekiant palyginti kultūras. Tuo tarpu *tarpkultūrinė komunikacija* (angl. *intercultural*) yra platesnė ir labiau siejama su pačia skirtingų kultūrų sąveika tarpusavyje (Fries, 2009⁸).

Būti lokaliajam globalizuotame pasaulyje yra socialinio atskirtumo ir nuosmukio ženklas (Bauman, 2000⁹). Norėdami suprasti vietinę patirtį turime ją iškelti į vieno pasaulio akiratį, o vietinę veiklą ir gyvenimo būdą vis labiau reikia nagrinėti bei vertinti globalinių pasėkmių atžvilgiu —multikultūrizmo reiškinyje yra galima globalizacijos procesų pasekmė. Z.Bauman (1999¹⁰), netgi linkęs išskirti multikultūrinės komunikacijos dalyvius: emigrantus, keliautojus, multikultūrinės komandos narius, kareivius. Dėka globalizacijos visuomenėje išryškėjo poliarizacija, kuri padalino žmones į dvi grupes: *turistus* ir *bastūnus*. Pirmieji per pasaulį „keliauja“ savo noru, be jokių apribojimų, tuo tarpu bastūnai tai daro priverstinai, dėl karo, skurdo ir bado (Bauman, 1999). Kai kurie autoriai (Hofstede, 2005) papildo, kad globalizacijos kontekste formuojasi universalios taisyklės, kurios dažnai yra kultūrinio elgesio standartų pagrindas, todėl iškyla pavojus kultūriniam identitetui, kurį pabrėžia likusios dvi sąvokos. Likusios dvi tarpkultūriškumą žyminčios sąvokos užsienio literatūroje taip pat išskiriamos. Kiti autoriai teigia, kad *skirtingų kultūrų* (angl. *cross-cultural*) komunikacijos terminas, taikomas tiriant atskiras kultūras, pagal pasirinktus aspektus siekiant taip palyginti kultūras ir, kad

⁸ Fries S., *Cultural, Multicultural, Cross-cultural, Intercultural: A Moderator's Proposal*. 2009. Prieiga per internetą: https://www.tesol-france.org/uploaded_files/files/susan-fries.pdf

⁹ Bauman, Z., *Liquid Modernity*, Cambridge: Polity Press, 2000.

¹⁰ Bauman, Z., *Globalization: The Human Consequences*, New York: Columbia University Press, 1998.

tarpkultūrinė komunikacija (angl. *intercultural*) yra platesnė ir labiau siejama su pačia skirtingų kultūrų sąveika tarpusavyje (Fries, 2009). Kiti mokslininkai (Gudykunst, Kim 1997¹¹) sutinka ir papildo, kad sąvoka *tarpkultūrinė komunikacija* (angl. *intercultural communication*) labiau vartotina, kai kalbame apie bendradarbiavimą su skirtingų kultūrų atstovais, sugebėjimą suprasti ir pritaikyti komunikacinę žinutę, o ne skirtumus. Ši sąvoka labiau siejama su tokiais reiškiniais kaip *kultūrinis šokas* bei *kultūrinė adaptacija* (Gudykunst, Kim 1997). Tačiau paskutiniai tarpkultūriškumą apibūdinintys terminai labai tarpusavyje susiję, nes *skirtingų kultūrų* (angl. *cross-cultural*) komunikacijos išmanymas, yra prielaida suprasti *tarpkultūrinę* (angl. *intercultural*) komunikaciją (Gudykunst, Kim, 1997).

Tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje svarbu, kad komunikavimo procese suvokimas būtų apie bendradarbiavimą, gebėjimą geriau suprasti kitas kultūras ir jų atstovus, bei priimti visiems tinkančius sprendimus, mokantis vieniems iš kitų, turtinant vieniems kitus bei priimti visas puses tenkinančius sprendimus, kad kultūrų santykis komunikacijoje būtų malonus, prasmingas ir produktyvus. Ypač tai pabrėžiamas, kalbant apie įvairaus lygmens derybas, kuriose dalyvauja kelios kultūros ir gali išryškėti ne tik organizaciniai, asmeniniai bet ir kultūriniai interesai.

TARPKULTŪRINĖS KOMUNIKACIJOS SUVOKIMO VEIKSNIAI

Verbalinė kalba ir klausymosi įgūdžiai. Tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje svarbų vaidmenį vaidina lingvistiniai kalbų ypatumai ir klausytojai, todėl šiuos veiksnius naudinga apžvelgti kaip atskirą klasterį. Kaip teigia L.Samovar, R.Porter, E.McDaniel, C.Roy (2013), egzistuoja simbiozė tarp kultūros ir kalbos, kitaip tariant, jos viena be kitos egzistuoti negali. Be kalbos nebūtų įmanoma pasidalinti savo požiūriais, įsitikinimais, emocijomis, socialinėmis normomis ir pasaulėžiūra su kitomis kultūromis, bei nebūtų įmanoma to perduoti savo ateinančioms kartoms. Iš kitos pusės kultūros dėka sukurama, plėtojama bei išsaugojama kalba. Per kalbą atsiskleidžia ir kalbos charakteris, ir filosofija. Tačiau tarpkultūriniame kontekste, tai virsta didelėmis problemomis. Skirtingos kultūros turi skirtingas reikšmių sistemas, kaip antai kalbas, kurios suklaidina komunikacijos dalyvius bei taip apsunkina komunikaciją, kad kartais jiems nepasiseka suprasti vienas kito.

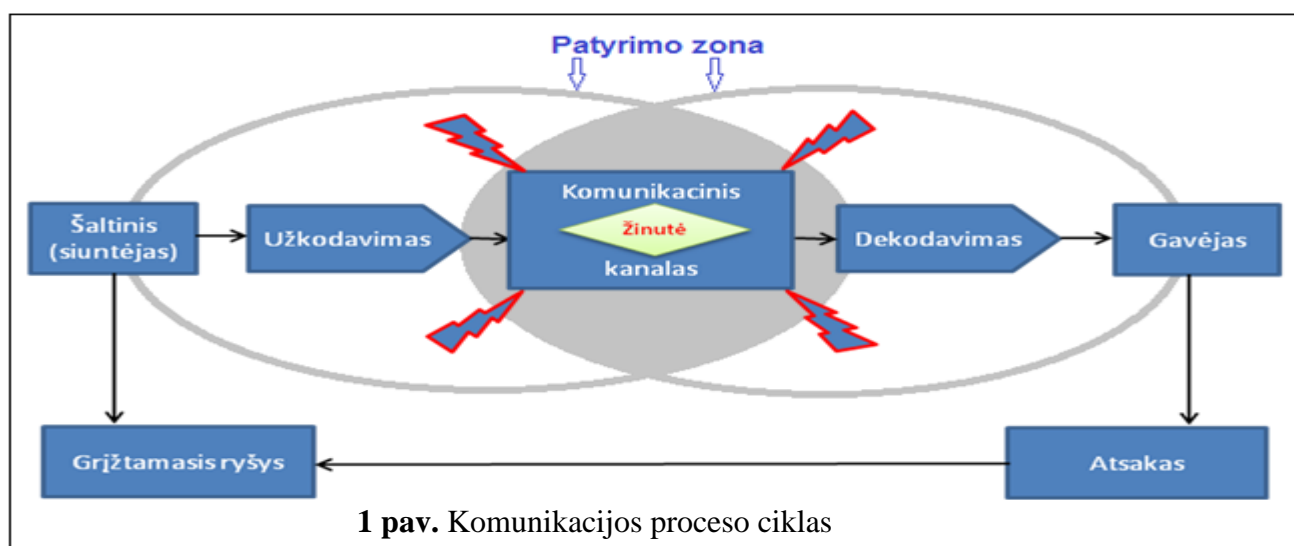
Lietuvoje gretina bendravimo su komunikacijos sąvokas. Taip yra dėl to, kad mokslinėje literatūroje anglų ir vokiečių kalbomis nėra žodžio *bendravimas*, tiesiog komunikavimas (angl. *communication*, vok. *kommunikation*). Kaip teigia V.Pruskus (2007¹²), *komunikacijos* sąvoką,

¹¹ Gudykunst, W. B., & Kim, Y. Y., *Communicating with strangers: An approach to intercultural communication* (3rd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill. Gudykunst, 1997.

¹² Pruskus, V., *Tarpkultūrinė komunikacija ir vadyba*. Vilniaus pedagoginis universitetas, 2007.

kuri akcentuoja ryšio tarp subjektų mechanizmą ir vartojama nagrinėjant organizacijos veiklą ir bendravimo terminą, tiesiogiai siejamą su žmogiškaisiais santykiais ir apimančią dviejų ar daugiau žmonių tarpusavio suvokimą, keitimąsi informacija, emocinį būvį, jausmus bei sąveiką, galima laikyti sinonimais. Užsienio literatūroje komunikacija — tai procesas, kurio metu perduodama žodinė ir nežodinė informacija iš siuntėjo gavėjui, suteikiant jai reikšmę bei suvokiant ją (Rolinson, 2008¹³). Visos pateiktos sąvokos būdingos vienkultūrinei arba monokultūrinei komunikacijai, kuri yra grindžiama panašumais, pagal susidariusius stereotipus. Bendra kalba, elgesio modeliai bei vertybės formuoja bazę, kuria remdamiesi tos pačios kultūros nariai bendrauja kasdieniniame gyvenime ir leidžia žmonėms nuspėti atsakymus bei teisingai suvokti bendrą tikrovę (Petkevičiūtė, 2010¹⁴).

L.Samovar, R.Porter, E.McDaniel, (2009), išskiria devynis komunikacijos proceso komponentus ir pateikia komunikacijos modelį (Petkevičiūtė, 2010) (1 pav.).



Šaltinis: Petkevičiūtė, N. (2010). Tarpasmeninės ir tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos išplėtos Europos kontekste. Kaunas, VDU.

Šaltinis. Asmuo turintis norą arba poreikį komunikuoti, formuoti ir išsiųsti žinutę, kitaip vadinamas siuntėju;

Komunikacinis kanalas. Transportavimo priemonė, kuria juda pranešimai nuo žinutę formuojančio šaltinio link gavėjo;

Pranešimas. Verbalinės ir neverbalinės formos simbolių rinkinys, kuris yra užkoduojamas ir siunčiamas kanalu;

¹³ Rollinson, D., *Organisational behaviour and analysis: an integrated approach*. Harlow: Prentice Hall, 2008

¹⁴ Petkevičiūtė, N., *Tarpasmeninės ir tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos išplėtos Europos kontekste*. Kaunas, VDU, 2010.

Užkodavimas. Vidinis siuntėjo veiksmas, kurio metu pasirenkami ir formuojami verbaliniai ir neverbaliniai ženklai, kurie sudėliojami tokia tvarka, kad sudarytų pranešimą, atitinkantį konteksto taisykles;

Gavėjas. Asmuo, kuris stebi šaltinio elgesį ir priima siunčiamą pranešimą, jį interpretuoja ir suteikia reikšmę;

Dekodavimas. Siuntėjo žinutės interpretavimas, kurį atlieką gavėjas. Dekodavimas, kaip ir užkodavimas, yra vidinis procesas;

Atsakas. Gavėjo apsisprendimas, ką daryti su pranešimu. Atsakas gali būti ir sprendimas nieko nedaryti ignoruoti arba sąmoningas atsakomasis veiksmas, malonus arba agresyvus;

Grižtamasis ryšys. Šaltinio gaunama informacija iš gavėjo. Apie tobulą komunikaciją galima kalbėti tik tada, kai gavėjo įspūdis atitinka, tai ką norėjo perduoti siuntėjas. Grižtamasis ryšys labai padidina komunikacijos proceso efektyvumą.

Triukšmas (komunikaciniai barjerai). Kliūtys, kurios trukdo ir iškraipo komunikacijos procesą, bei bet kuriuo metu gali padaryti jį neveiksmingu.

Komunikacijos metu, žinutės gavėjas stengiasi atkakliai dekoduoti žinutę ir išversti ją į savo kalbą, tačiau šie bandymai ne visada būna sėkmingi. Reikia pastebėti, kad ne visada galima tiesiausi keliu išversti žinutę, t.y. tai atlikti veiksmą mechaniškai. Tuo būdu, norint dekoduoti žinutę reikia suprasti jos kontekstą, ir tik po to pagal konteksto pagrindinę idėją, išversti ją į norimą kalbą, o kad tai padaryti gavėjas turi turėti gilų abiejų kultūrų ir abiejų kalbų supratimą.

Daugelis žmonių klaidingai galvoja, kad kitų kultūrų atstovai priima, suvokia, įvertina pasaulį tuo pačiu būdu. Ši tendencija apibūdinama *etnocentrizmo* sąvoka. Siekiant pagerinti klausymo įgūdžius tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje, reikėtų pirmiausiai pradėti nuo savęs. Tai yra siuntėjas turi tobulinti žinutę ir informaciją, kurią jis nori siųsti (Chitakornkijasil, 2010¹⁵), kad būtų tinkamai suprasta.

Klausymas — tai ir įsipareigojimas, ir pagarbos rodymas. Tai įsipareigojimas, nes svarbu suprasti, kaip žmonės jaučiasi, bandyti prasiskverbti į jų vidinį pasaulį, žvelgti kito akimis, o tai reiškia, kad reikia atsisakyti išankstinių savo nusistatymų ir įsitikinimų, savanaudiškų tikslų. Klausymas, taip pat ir pagarbos rodymas, nes stengiamasi netiesiogiai pasakyti, kad žinutės gavėjui rūpi kaip ir išsakyti partnerio žodžiai, patirtis, pasiūlymas.

¹⁵ Chitakornkijasil, P., *Intercultural communication challenges and multinational organization communication*. In International Journal of Organizational Innovation, 3(2), 6-20, 2010.

Kita svarbi suvokimo dimensija *žinutės prasmės suvokimas*. Tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos dalyviams suprasti vieni kitus nėra taip paprasta kaip gali pasirodyti iš pirmo žvilgsnio. Vienas iš fundamentalių veiksnių, darančių įtaką supratimui yra kalbinio kodo naudojimas. Kodas - tai bendra kokios nors kultūros ar subkultūros narių reikšmių sistema. Šią sistemą sudaro ženklai (pavyzdžiui, fiziniai signalai) ir taisyklės (kokiame kontekste ir kaip tie ženklai naudojami bei kaip jie gali būti derinami sudarant pranešimus). Jei žmonės negali kalbėti duota kalba sklandžiai, ir/ar žmonės gerai mokantys tą kalbą naudos ją nenaudingai (specifiniai išsireiškimai, žargonai ir kt.), jiems bus labai sudėtinga suprasti vienas kitą. Tačiau, net kai nėra jokių panašių problemų, pasiekti supratimą gali būti vis dar nepaprastai sunku.

Galima išskirti kelis momentus perduodant žinutę komunikacijoje: *žinutės suderinamumas; aktyvus klausymasis; bendro supratimo lauko kūrimas; lingvistinė darna; žinutės struktūravimas ir akcentai; kalbinis stilius*.

Neverbalinis elgesys tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje. Nežodinis elgesys - neatsiejama komunikacijos proceso dalis. Žodinių signalų bei fizinio konteksto ypatybių kombinacija dažnai naudojama perteikiant reikiamą prasmę. Neverbalinė komunikacija vyksta per prezentacinius kodus, pavyzdžiui, gestus, akių judesius ar balso ypatybes. Šie kodai perduoda pranešimus tik apie tai, kas vyksta čia ir dabar. Asmens balso tonas nurodo jo dabartinį požiūrį į pokalbio temą ir klausytoją, tačiau negali perduoti pranešimo apie tai, ką asmuo jautė praėjusią savaitę. Todėl prezentaciniai kodai yra riboti, jie tinka tik bendraujant akis į akį, bei atlieka dvi funkcijas: *teikia referentinę informaciją ir formuoja santykius*.

Pirma, kaip jau matėme, jie teikia referentinę (nuorodinę) informaciją. Tai informacija apie kalbėtoją ir jo padėtį, iš šios informacijos klausytojas sužino, kas yra kalbėtojas, kokios jo pažiūros, socialinė padėtis ir t.t. Antra funkcija – tai komunikacijos reguliavimas. Kodų pagalba užmezgami su kitais tokie santykiai, kokių nori informacijos siuntėjas. Tam tikrų gestų, kūno padėčių ar balso tonų pagalba asmuo gali užgožti kitus, nuraminti juos arba užsisklęsti nuo jų. Taip pat kodais gali parodyti kalbėjimo baigtį ir perduoti kalbėjimą kitam, arba išreikšti norą nutraukti susitikimą. Tam tikra prasme šie kodai atlieka referentinę funkciją, bet vartojami perduoti informaciją apie santykį, o ne apie patį kalbėtoją.

Kita svarbi tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos dimensija *nesėkmės patirtys*. Nesėkmė gali būti susijusi su skirtingomis kultūrų kalbomis ir apimti kitas problemas, tokias kaip *stereotipai ir išankstinės nuostatos*.

Stereotipai. Sąvoka „stereotipai“ yra plačiai paplitusi tačiau nėra vieningo sutarimo, kaip gali būti tiksliai apibūdinami. Stereotipų apibrėžimai skiriasi kiek jie atitinka tiesą; ar apima teigiamus ar ir neigiamus grupės bruožus; ar asmeniniai ar grupiniai ir pan.

Stereotipai yra pernelyg supaprastintos ir per daug apibendrintos abstrakcijos apie žmonių grupes, kurios dažniausiai būna neteisingos, nors gali turėti ir dalį tiesos. Stereotipai apima žmonių įsitikinimus apie požymius, charakterizuojančius socialinę kategoriją. Stereotipas turi tris charakteristikas: žmonių suskirstymas į kategorijas, vieningas sutarimas dėl priskirtų požymių ir jų neatitikimas su tikraisiais požymiais.

Stereotipai gali būti suvokiami kaip būdai supaprastinti nuomonę, ypač situacijose, kai stokojame informacijos ir laiko. Tai yra aplinkos valdymo įrankiai daugiau ar mažiau iškraipant faktus.

Vienas būdas įvertinti stereotipo tikslumą yra palyginti tai grupei nepriklausančių žmonių stereotipinę nuomonę su grupės narių nuomone apie save. Jei nuomonės daugmaž sutampa, vadinasi stereotipą galima laikyti tikslu. Tačiau, net jei stereotipas pripažįstamas tikslu, turime turėti mintyje keletą dalykų. Pirmiausiai, žmonės gali skirtis atitinkamo stereotipo vertinimais (teigiamais/neigiamais). Antra, stereotipai gali keistis, todėl nereikia manyti, kad jie yra nekintami ir pastovūs. Trečia, kaip pastebi D. Schneider (2004¹⁶), pagrindinė stereotipų problema yra ne tariamas jų tikslumas, o tai, kaip jie yra pritaikomi. Net labai teisingi stereotipai gali būti klaidingai pritaikomi.

Daugelis tyrėjų taip pat sutinka, kad stereotipai yra iš prigimties žalingi, nes veda prie kitų kultūrų žmonių individualybės ignoravimo ir sukuria savęs iškėlimą virš kitų. Nustatyta, kad jie įtakoja informacijos perdavimą ir prisiminimą, nors yra paremti mažomis, o kartais visai negirdėtomis žiniomis ar patirtimi. Blogiausia, kad jie veda į išankstinį nusistatymą. Tačiau P. Smith ir M. Bond (1998¹⁷) teigimu, daugelis socialinių mokslų akademikų, pastūmėti kultūrinio išryškavimo ir asmenybės unikalumo charakteristikų individualistinėse visuomenėse, neigiamai vertina stereotipų susidarymą.

Viena didžiausių stereotipų problemų, kad jie lengvai įgauna būtinybės charakterį, t.y. duoda suprasti, kad tam tikros grupės nariai būtinai turi vienodas, nekintančias savybes ir tuo būtinai skiriasi nuo kitos grupės narių. Vis dėl to dauguma socialinių grupių neturi tokių būtinų,

¹⁶ Schneider, D., *The Psychology of Stereotyping*. London: Guilford Press, 2004.

¹⁷ Smith, P. and Bond M., *Social Psychology across Cultures*. London: Prentice Hall Europe, 1998.

esminių bruožų arba turi jų labai mažai. Jos paprasčiausiai turi identifikacinius ar apibūdinamus požymius, kurie turi tiesiog tikėtiną, spėjamą prasmę.

Žmonės, konstruodami pokalbio prasmę naudoja du pagrindinius žinių šaltinius: lingvistines žinias – kalbiniai kodai ir „pasaulietines“ žinias - teorinės žinios apie socialinius procesus, reiškinius, sąvokas ir kt.. Abu žinių tipai visada įtraukiami kuriant žinutės prasmę, nors jų santykinė įtaka supratimo pasiekimui gali būti įvairi. Kartais lingvistiniai faktoriai gali būti labai svarbūs, kaip antai, kai vieno iš kalbėtojų įgūdžių lygis yra žemas arba, kai kuris nors naudoja kitam nežinomą tarmę, tačiau paprastai svarbesnis būna pagrindinių konceptualių žinių trūkumas. Tarp šių dviejų kraštutinių yra daugiausia komunikavimo sunkumų. Sėkmingam reikšmės konstravimui būtina ne tik lingvistinių ir „pasaulietinių“, bet ir sociokultūrinių arba pragmatinių žinių. Sociokultūrinės arba pragmatinės žinios remiasi bendru sutarimu ir principais, kurie sudaro kalbos naudojimo pagrindą tam tikroje socialinėje grupėje. Kai kurie pragmatinių žinių aspektai pagal prigimtį yra daugiau lingvistiniai, kai tuo tarpu kiti yra daugiau socialiniai.

TYRIMO REZULTATAI IR JŲ ANALIZĖ

Tyrimo metodika. Tyrimo vykdymas tarptautiniu lygiu, apsunkina tyrimo metodų pasirinkimą, iš daugelio empirinio tyrimo metodų, tokių kaip stebėjimas, interviu, dokumentų analizė, buvo pasirinktas anketinė apklausa. Tai pigus, paprastas ir statistiškai patikimas kiekybinis tyrimo metodas. Šį pasirinkimą lėmė respondentų skaičius bei tyrimo tikslas, kuris reikalauja konkretumo, analizuojant skirtingą suvokimą tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje.

Anketa buvo sudaryta remiantis mokslinės literatūros analize ir atliktus tyrimus. Anketos klausimai, sudaryti pagal verbalinės ir neverbalinės kalbos suvokimo ir klausymosi problemas tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje. Anketa sudaryta iš dvylikos klausimų, leido įvardinti verbalinės, neverbalinės kalbos suvokimo ir klausymo problemines sritis tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje Tyrimo dalyvavo vienos lietuviško kapitalo organizacijos darbuotojai, bendradarbiaujantys su kitų šalių – Olandijos, Vengrijos, Čekijos, Italijos, Kinijos kultūrų atstovais. Viso apklausti 30 respondentai..

Siekiant tikslumo, atsižvelgta ir į atsakymų skalę. Tarpkultūrinei komunikacijai būdingas prisitaikymas, ne-monotoniškumas bei abipusis procesas, kuris priklauso ne tik nuo vienos pusės, todėl daugelyje klausimų, buvo atsisakyta „Taip“ ir „Ne“ atsakymų variantų. Prašoma įvertinti nuomonę penkiabalėje sistemoje pagal dažnį: „Visada, pastoviai“ — 5 balai, „dažnai“ — 4 balai, „kartais“ — 3 balai, „retai“ — 2 balai, „niekada“ — 1 balas. Taip tikėtasi padidinti

atsakymų tikslumą, o balai pasirinkti pagal „kartais“ imčiai apibūdinti labiausiai tinkamą vidurkį — tašką vidutiniškai artimiausią visiems statistinės eilutės elementas.

Nagrinėjamosiose užsienio kompanijose vidutiniškai dirba nuo 30-50 žmonių ir nėra vienos bendros taisyklės kokio dydžio imtis turėtų būti sudaroma, buvo pasirinkta apklausti po 5 žmones iš 6 skirtingų šalių. Šis skaičius pasirinktas pagal tai, kiek vidutiniškai yra pirkimo vadybininkų, viduriniojo lygio ir aukščiausiojo lygio vadovų, nes būtent jie, kiekvienoje kompanijoje yra atsakingi už tarptautinę prekybą ir bendradarbiauja su nagrinėjama organizacija. Tai palyginti nedidelė apimtis, kuri dažnai kelia keblumų norint gauti statistiškai patikimus rezultatus. Tačiau tai lėmė reikiamų respondentų skaičiaus atskirų kultūrų įmonėse sąlygotumas — nei vienoje įmonėje nėra daugiau 9 žmonių atsakingų už tarptautinę veiklą.

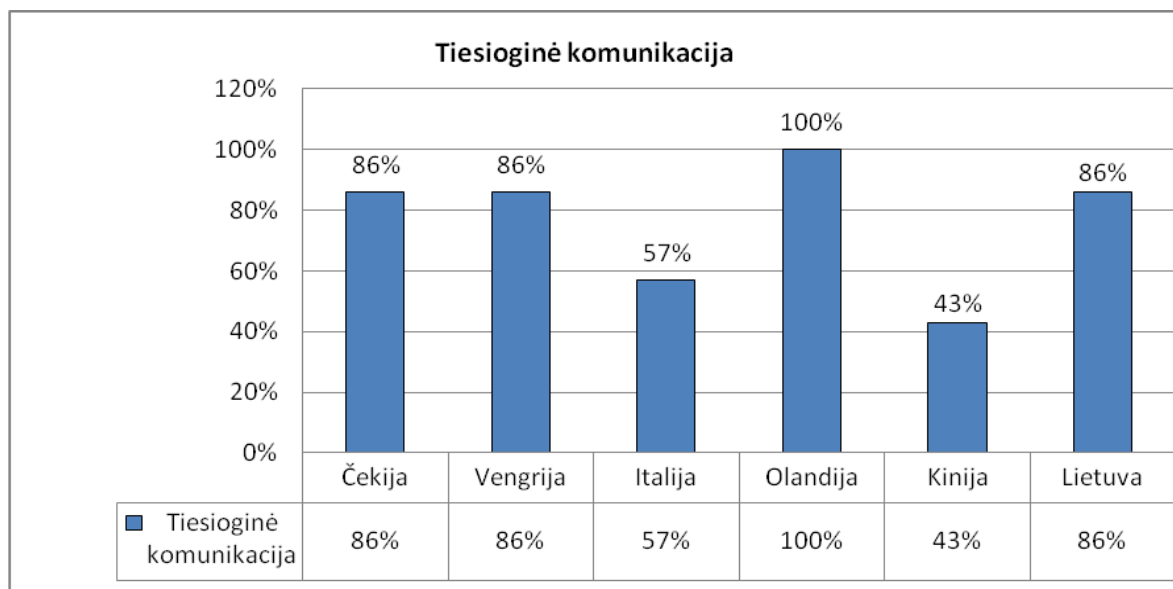
Vertėtų paminėti ir respondentų amžių. Prieš tyrimą tikėtasi didesnės amžiaus variacijos, potencialių amžiaus bei kultūrinių veiksnių priklausomybių. Tačiau, vos 2 respondentai buvo iki 36 metų amžiaus. Tuo būdu atsiskleidė atskirų šalių požiūris į tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos procesą.

Anketinė apklausa buvo vykdoma 2017m gegužės-birželio mėnesiais penkiose skirtingose šalyse, kurios tyrimo laiku buvo lietuviško kapitalo įmonės partnerės: Čekijos, Italijos, Olandijos, Vengrijos ir Kinijos įmonės, bei jų personalas atsakingas už tarptautinę prekybą ir bendravimą. Pagal anketinės apklausos būdą buvo panaudotos abi apklausos rūšys: lietuviško kapitalo įmonės personalui buvo panaudotas apklausos vietoje metodas, o užsienio partneriams — anketų išsiuntimas elektroniniu paštu.. Anketa buvo išversta į anglų kalbą. Anglų kalba pasirinkta neatsitiktinai, nes yra pagrindinė ES šalių bendravimo kalba. Kaip ir buvo galima tikėtis, susidurta su *anketinės apklausos el. paštu* pagrindiniu trūkumu — mažu atsakiusiųjų respondentų skaičiumi. Tačiau ilgesnis duomenų surinkimo laikotarpis, bei tam tikras skatinimas — primenamieji elektroniniai laišakai, kurie buvo siunčiami kas savaitę, siūlymas susipažinti su rezultatais, leido pasiekti tyrime numatytą atsakymų kiekį.

Tyrimo rezultatų analizė. Tyrimas apibūdinamas kaip tarpkultūrinis ir lyginamojo pobūdžio, tikslu nustatyti ir palyginti specifinius elementus bei problematiškas sritis, dėl kurių kyla sunkumų tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje. Tiriant verbalinio kalbos stiliaus pasireiškimą, buvo nutarta tik vieną kalbos stiliaus dimensiją. Klausimu „Ar jūs tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje naudojate tiesioginę komunikaciją?“ buvo stengiamasi nustatyti, ar respondentai linkę bendrauti aiškiais, eksplicitinėmis žinutėmis, tiesiai ir sąžiningai, ar labiau naudoja užuominas, stengiasi patikrinti kito komunikuojančio žinių lygį. Kitaip tariant buvo siekiama išsiaiškinti, tiesioginę ar netiesioginę komunikaciją naudoja respondentai

tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje. Kaip tiesioginės komunikacijos lyderę, galime išskirti Olandiją (2 pav.). Ir tik Italijos (57%) ir Kinijos (43%) mažiau propaguoja tiesioginę komunikaciją, todėl jų žinutės būna ne žemo, o aukšto konteksto.

Akivaizdu, kad taip bandoma išsiaiškinti daugiau apie būsimą/esamą partnerį, susidaryti įspūdį, ar jis patikimas, nes patys kinai taip pat labai patikimi. Laikomasi nuostatos, kad susitarimo vykdymas — tai pagarbos žmogui rodymas, tad šios šalis galima įvardinti geromis partnerėmis. Vertėtų paminėti Kiniją kaip netiesioginės komunikacijos lyderę — šioje šalyje tokio pobūdžio komunikacija gali būti susieta su pakankamai dideliu kolektyvizmo dimensijos įvertinimu.

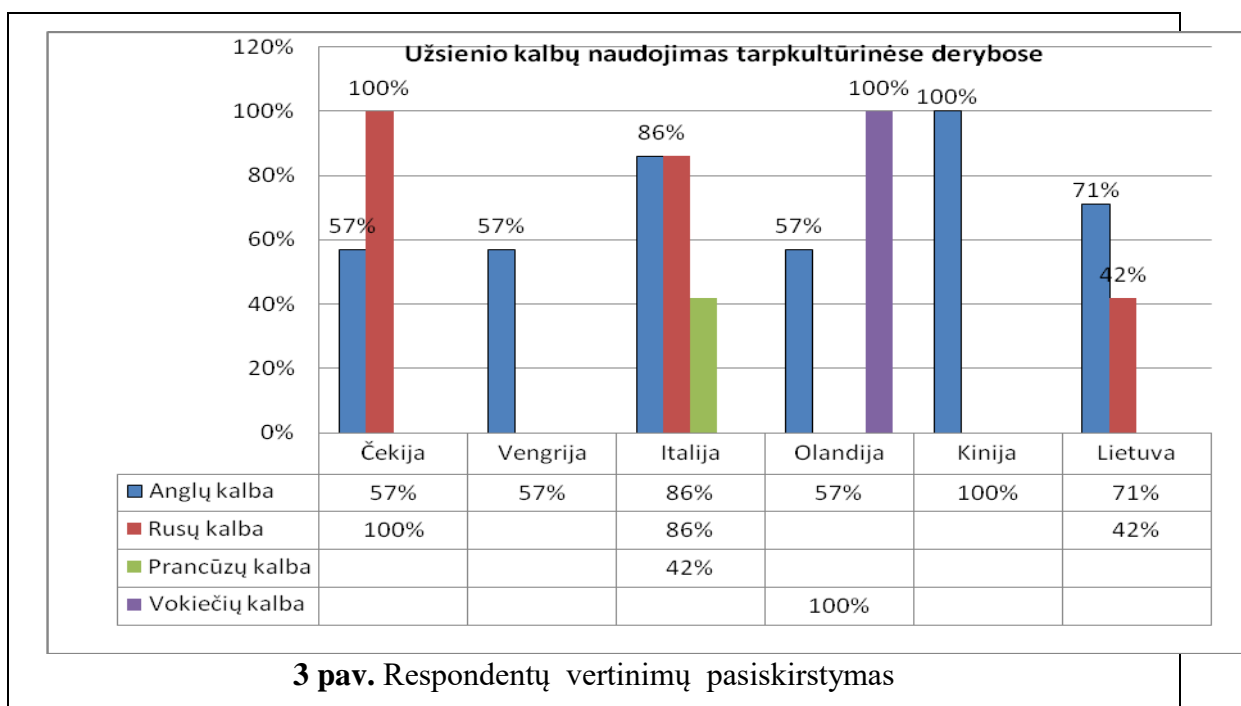


2 pav. Respondentų nuomonės pasiskirstymas

Galima teigti, kad tiesioginės ir netiesioginės komunikacijos šalys turėtų bendrauti labai atsargiai. Per didelis tiesioginės komunikacijos naudojimas gali turėti ir neigiamas pasekmes, nes netiesioginės komunikacijos šalis gali greitai įsižeisti ir kaip rezultatas. Galiausiai nesuklysimė teigdami, kad netiesioginės komunikacijos šalininkai, ne tik naudoja aukšto konteksto žinutes, bet ir trokšta neverbalinio elgesio, nes šie veiksniai tarpusavyje susiję.

Nagrinėjant verbalinės kalbos skirtumus ir problemas derėtų išsiaiškinti, kokiomis užsienio kalbomis bendrauja nagrinėjamų šalių personalas. Kaip matome pagal 3 paveikslo duomenis, kinai ir italai yra puikiai įgudę bendrauti anglų kalba ir ja plačiai naudojasi. Šiek tiek nuo jų atsilieka lietuviai, 71% su tarptautine veikla susijusių darbuotoju kalba angliškai. Likusios šalys taip pat turi bent po keletą žmonių kalba anglų kalba (3 pav.). Akivaizdu, kad

anglų kalba nepraranda plačiausiai naudojamos kalbos užsienio santykiuose autoriteto. Tačiau, bent jau nagrinėjamosiose įmonėse, daugelis pasižymi ir itin gerai rusų kalbos įgūdžiais. Net 100% čekų, 86% italų ir 42% lietuvių respondentų gerai moka rusų kalbą ir ją naudoja tarptautiniuose sandoriuose. Galima tai tiesiogiai sieti su respondentų amžiumi: daugelis jų perkopę virš 40 metų, tad jiems rusų kalba gali būti interpretuojama kaip po sovietinis palikimas. Italų universalumas atsiskleidžia ir tame, kad įmonės darbuotojai gerai moka ir prancūzų kalbą. Trijų pagrindinių kalbų mokėjimas, leidžia jiems lengvai komunikuoti tarptautinėse rinkose. Derėtų paminėti ir olandus. Šios šalies įmonėje šalia anglų kalbos naudoja ir vokiečių kalbą, kurios supratimas dažnai kelia keblumų užsienio partneriams, tame tarpe ir lietuviškai įmonei.



Pakankamai geras užsienio kalbų mokėjimas retai tesukelia problemų tarptautinio verslo kelyje, tačiau kitą kalbą reikia ne tik mokėti, bet dar ir suprasti, giliau pažinti jos subtilybes. Todėl prieš nagrinėjant šią tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos sritį, siekiant identifikuoti verbalinių skirtumų pasireiškimą, iš pradžių buvo prašoma atsakyti klausimą „Ar jūs susiduriate su kalbos skirtumų problemomis tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos ir derybų metu?“ Į šį klausimą buvo daugmaž atsakyta vienodai — „Retai“ arba „Kartais“. Natūralu, kad daug įdomesnė buvo tikslinamoji šios tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos problemų grupės pusė, norint atskleisti, kokio pobūdžio šie skirtumai. Prašant patikslinti, kokie kalbų skirtumai iškyla, buvo atsakyta: *netikslus sąvokų vertimas; klaidinga žodžio interpretaciją; nesusikalbėjimas*. Tačiau buvo paliktas langelis įrašyti ir papildomas problemas, kurias įtraukė tik keli respondentai. Čekai

nurodė, kad didžiausia problema savo verbalinėje komunikacijoje tarpkultūriniu aspektu laiko *klaidingą žodžio interpretaciją*. Tai galėjo pasireikšti, žodiniu neatitikimu gimtojoje kalboje. Panašiai skamba lietuvių ir italų nuomonės. Olandijoje ir Vengrijoje labiau būdingas bendro pobūdžio nesusikalbėjimas, kurį būtų galima sieti su gramatiniu (sintaksiniu) lygiavertiškumu, tačiau būtų labiau tikslinga manyti, kad ši problema minimose šalyse atsiranda dėl per didelės tiesioginės komunikacijos, per didelio įsispraudimo į žemo konteksto rėmus. Bendraujant šiems šalims su aukšto konteksto partnerėmis, tokio pobūdžio problemų atsiradimas tiesiog neišvengiamas.

Tyrimu nustatyta tendencija, kad ten kur kalbos skirtumų problemos pasireiškia rečiau, dažniausiai būna susiję klaidingu sąvokos suvokimu. Taip yra tokiose šalyse kaip Italija, Lietuva ir Kinija, o likusiose šalyse, ten kur vidutinė kalbos skirtumų pasireiškimo reikšmė artima trejetui, pasireiškia šiek tiek rimtesnės problemos, kaip oponento pastovus nesupratimas ir mis-komunikacija. Be to galima išvelgti ir tiesioginę problemų atsiradimo priklausomybę nuo kalbos mokėjimo, supratimo, pažinimo lygio. Todėl, būtina gilintis į užsienio kalbų studijas ir pažinti kitų šalių kultūrą.

Kitas anketos klausimas apie asmeninio komunikacijos stiliaus suvokimą atskleidė svarbų formalumo veiksnį. Už tarptautinius ryšius atsakingi žmonės, dažnai mėgsta palaikyti šiltą komunikacijos klimatą. Tyrimas parodė, kad lietuviai nemėgsta vien tik objektyvumo, tikslumo, ir be-asmeniškumo komunikaciniuose susitarimuose. Jiems nesvetimi klausimai apie šeimą, privatų gyvenimą. Panašaus požiūrio laikosi čekai ir italai, kurie propaguoja ne-formalumą. Be abejo, ne-formalumas komunikaciniame stiliuje atsiranda ne iš karto, o tik po ilgo pažinimo ir bendravimo proceso. Kitokios nuomonės laikėsi Vengrijos, Olandijos ir Kinijos atstovai (atitinkamai vidutinės reikšmės — 3.57, 3.86, 3.86). Šiems respondentams nebuvo itin svarbūs asmeniniai ryšiai ir pernelyg didelis draugiškumas. Galiausiai, nors ir buvo pateiktas formalaus stiliaus apibrėžimas, skirtingose šalyse šis tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos elementas suvokiamas savaip, todėl skirtingas požiūris galėjo lemti nedidelius neatitikimus rezultatų analizėje.

Atliktas tyrimas mažose organizacijose, kuriose personalą sudaro vos 10 žmonių, galėjo turėti įtakos analizės rezultatams. Nors buvo gautos 30 užpildytų anketų, tačiau nagrinėjant šešias atskiras šalis, šis skaičius galėjo lemti rezultatų tikslumą. Šis pilotinis tyrimas parodė, kad nelengva buvo sudaryti anketą, tiksliai panaudojant vertinimo skalę. Pastebėta, kad kiekvienoje kultūroje, atsakymai niekada, retai, kartais, dažnai, visada, gali būti suvokiami skirtingai, todėl tai galimai turėjo įtakos rezultatų tikslumui.

Tikslinga įvertinti ir emocinę respondentų būklę pildant anketas. Kad ši analizė pavyktų, išimtinai visų atsakymų reikėjo laukti ilgai net penkias savaites. Tai atspindi, užsienio respondentų požiūrį į tokio pobūdžio tyrimus. Reikia pažymėti, kad kinai sugebėjo atsiųsti visas anketas per tris dienas, veikiausiai suinteresuoti tyrimu ar noru padėti.

Šis pilotinis tyrimas padėjo nutapyti pirminį atskirų šalių, kultūrų stiliaus, verbalinės ir neverbalinės kalbos stiliaus suvokimo paveikslus, identifikuoti pirminius ypatumus, tačiau tai leidžia susidaryti bendrą suvokimo tendenciją. Norint išsamesnių rezultatų, būtina atlikti platesnį tyrimą bei atlikti išsamesnę analizę, verbalinės ir neverbalinės kalbos suvokimo srityse.

Atliktas pilotinis tyrimas atskleidė, kad suvokimas ir gebėjimai tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje yra kaip stuburas, kuris palaiko įvairius susitarimus visame pasaulyje. Todėl labai svarbu vystyti tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos kompetenciją, siekiant adekvačiai suvokti kitas kultūras ir jų niuansus. Labai svarbus ir tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos kompetencijos vystymas atskirose organizacijose, tikslinga naudoti tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos kompetencijos plėtros programas

IŠVADOS IR REKOMENDACIJOS

Šiame tekste siekta paaiškinti, jog reikšmės suvokimas ne tik priklauso nuo naudojamų verbalinių ir neverbalinių elementų, tokių kaip: žodžiai, frazės, simboliai; bet ir nuo to kaip, komunikacinio proceso dalyviai aktyviai konstruoja ir tariasi dėl elgesio reikšmių.

Kultūra gali turėti įtakos šiam reikšmės kūrimo procesui, kuriame skirtingų socialinių grupių nariai pasižymi skirtingomis žiniomis, kas dažnai sąlygoja įvairius nesusipratimus, kurie gali kilti tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos dalyviams neįvertinant kultūrinių suvokimo veiksnių komunikuojant tarpusavyje. Stereotipai yra iš prigimties žalingi, nes veda prie kitų kultūrų žmonių individualybės ignoravimo ir sukuria savęs iškėlimą virš kitų. Viena didžiausių stereotipų problemų yra ta, kad jie yra susiję su išankstinėmis nuostatomis ir/ar diskriminacija.

Atliktas pilotinis tyrimas atskleidė tarpkultūrinę komunikaciją lemiančius veiksnius, ir jų suvokimo niuansus: verbalinės ir neverbalinės kalbos, prasmės, siekio tiesioginio kontakto ir kt. Apibendrinant pilotinio tyrimo rezultatus, galima teigti, kad akivaizdūs kultūriniai skirtumai tarp šalių turėtų būti tinkamai analizuojami, suprasti ir naudojami tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos procese. Tyrimu nustatyta, kad į ne-formalumą, emocionalumą, kūno kalbos naudojimą ypatingai linkę italai, taip patvirtindami, karštą savo temperamentą. Olandus galima apibūdinti kaip rimtus, santūrius, formalius, tiesioginės komunikacijos šalininkus, adekvačiai suvokiančius kitataučius. Tuo tarpu čekai atsiskleidė, kaip šilti, ilgalaikius santykius

mėgstantys partneriai, dažniausiai atsisakantys emocijų pasireiškimo, tačiau visada norintys abipusį laimėjimą apibūdinančios komunikacijos baigties. Kinai taip pat išsiskyrė, kai kuriais požymiais. Jie dažnai taiko tą patį komunikacinį stilių, yra linkę pasirašyti ilgalaikius susitarimus, tačiau prieš tai pasitelkdami netiesiogines komunikacijas bando „išanalizuoti“ būsimą partnerį. Taip pat jiems būdingas emocijų pasireiškimas ir artimesnis formaliajam komunikacinis stilius. Vengrijos atstovai nurodė kad jie propaguoja specifinę, detalią susitarimo formą, itin vengia emocijų pasireiškimo ir taikydami skirtingą stilių atskirai kultūrai siekia trumpalaikės sutarties su užsienio partneriais bei remiasi vien tik faktais, o ne intuicija.

Tyrimo rezultatų analizė ir kultūrinių veiksnių poveikio komunikaciniam stiliui, verbalinės kalbos, klausymosi įgūdžių ir neverbalinės kūno kalbos palyginimas, skirtumų išryškėjimas, yra ne kas kita kaip skirtingų šalių kultūrinio suvokimo raiška. Atlikto pilotinio tyrimo rezultatų analizė leido pažvelgti kitaip į Italijos, Olandijos, Vengrijos, Čekijos ir Kinijos kultūras per gilesnį kultūrinį suvokimą. Tyrimas praplėtė ne tik tyrėjos ir respondentų žinių ir kompetencijų lygį, bet tapo tarsi tiesiogine nuoroda į gilesnį kitų šalių kultūrinio turto suvokimą. Tuo būdu, galima teigti, kad tik tobulinant tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos kompetencijas, adekvačiai su pagarba ir tolerancija suvokiant kultūrinius veiksnius galima efektyviai komunikuoti ir susitarti dėl kultūrinių reikšmių bei siekti glaudesnio bendradarbiavimo.

Tarpkultūrinė komunikacija sąlygota įvairių veiksnių, nuo kurių priklauso kontakto sėkmingumas. Todėl tikslinga plėtoti tarpkultūrinę kompetenciją tolerancijos ir geranoriškumo kryptimi. Skirtingose kultūrose tie patys veiksniai, reiškiniai, procesai, asmenybės ir pan. gali būti suvokiami skirtingai, todėl itin svarbu ugdyti asmeninį pasitikėjimą, atsakingumą, toleranciją bei dėmesio koncentraciją; plėsti žinias apie kitas kultūras bei ugdyti pagarbos jausmus kitoms ir kitokioms kultūroms. Labai svarbus tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos kompetencijos vystymas atskirose organizacijose, kur tikslinga naudoti tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos kompetencijos plėtros programas.

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FACTORS OF PERCEPTION IN INTERCULTURAL COMMUNICATION

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Summary

Global environment requires innovative communication models, where perception plays a major role. Relevant perception of the meaning of a message, service or intentions refers to the success of a contact in intercultural communication. When two or more cultural systems participate in communication, it is often impossible to create an equally perceived context, let alone phenomenon. Participants of intercultural communication face serious challenges in clarification of the primary meaning of the message, right perception of verbal language and non-verbal behavior. Pilot study about the importance of perception in intercultural communication allowed to characterize experiences of respondents from different cultures and name factors problems and challenges related to perception in organizations.

Keywords: culture, perception, intercultural communication.

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KULTŪRINĖ RAIŠKA TARPKULTŪRINĖSE DERYBOSE

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Anotacija. Plėtojant tarptautinį verslą, vedant derybas būtina žinoti atskirų valstybių verslo aplinką, ypač tarpkultūrinius aspektus. Norėdami gyvuoti ir klestėti turime bendradarbiauti verslo srityje su įvairiomis pasaulio tautomis. Lietuvos verslininkams dažnai tenka kontaktuoti su kitų kultūrų atstovais. Bendradarbiaujant su žmonėmis, kurių vertybės ir įsitikinimai yra kitokie nei mūsų galima patirti skaudžių nesusipratimų ir nesėkmių verslo srityje. Atliktas kokybinis tyrimas, apklausiant vadovus, dirbančius įvairiuose rinkos segmentuose Lietuvoje ir turinčius derybinės patirties. Tyrimu siekta analizuoti respondentų patirtis bei identifikuoti problemas ir iššūkius tarpkultūrinėse derybose.

Pagrindinės sąvokos: kultūra; derybos; vadovai; tarpkultūrinės derybos.

ĮVADAS

XX bei XXI amžių geriausiai apibūdina terminas globalizacija. Tai pakankamai prieštaringa sąvoka, turinti politinį, ekonominį, socialinį bei kultūrinį atspalvius. Vienas iš globalizacijos aspektų yra tai, jog pasaulio tautos yra kultūriškai persipynusios, o dėka informacinių technologijų panaudos pasaulis susitraukė ir tavo lengvai pasiekiamas kiekvienam. Todėl, kaip teigia B. Tomalin ir M. Nicks, „[bendraujant yra] labai svarbu atpažinti kultūrinės įtakos ir asmeninės patirties skirtumus, ir nesiremti stereotipais ir apibendrinimais“ (Tomalin ir Nicks, 2007¹).

Šiandien globalizacija yra prasiskverbusi į kiekvieno socialinio, politinio, ekonominio bei kultūrinio gyvenimo sritį, valstybių sienos tapo daugiau teorine, negu praktine riba, o gyvenimo tempas paskatino tarpkultūrinį tautų bendravimą. Šiuo laikotarpiu svarbiu iššūkiu tampa gebėjimai tinkamam tarpkultūriniam komunikavimui, kuris turi būti itin atsakingas. Derybos

¹ Tomalin, B., Nicks, M. *The world 's Business Cultures and How to Unlock Them*. Londonas: Thoro good Publishing, 2007.

užima ypatingą vietą tarpkultūriniame bendradarbiavime. Tarptautinėse derybose labai svarbu paisyti kultūrinės aplinkos ir tradicijų bei asmeninių individų savybių. Visa tai kartu lemia derybų proceso rezultatą. Labai dažnai, negebėjimas pažinti ir toleruoti kultūrinius veiksmus tampa didžiausia kliūtimi sėkmingoms deryboms.

Derybos tapo kasdienybe žmonių santykiuose grupėse ir organizacijose. Derybos gali būti apibrėžiamos kaip „procesas, kuriame dvi ar daugiau šalių apsiukeičia prekėmis arba paslaugomis ir bando susitarti dėl to, kokių santykių jomis apsiukeiči“ (Jensen, 2006²). Kitaip tariant tai dalykinio bendravimo procesas, kurio metu oponentai./partneriai, remdamiesi skirtingais tikslais ir pozicijomis, siekia rasti abi šalis tenkinantį sprendimą; tai „dalykiniai pokalbiai arba žodinis kontaktas tarp įgaliojimus turinčių pašnekovų, ir būdas spręsti klausimus“ (Mažeikienė ir kt., 2011³).

Straipsnio **tikslas** – įvardyti problemas ir iššūkius tarpkultūrinėse derybose.

Tyrimo **objektas** – vadovų patirtys tarpkultūrinėse derybose.

Tyrimo **metodai** – mokslinės literatūros analizė ir sintezė, kokybinis (interviu) tyrimas.

KULTŪRINĖS APRAIŠKOS TARPKULTŪRINĖJE KOMUNIKACIJOJE

Šiuolaikiškoje visuomenėje gebėjimas komunikuoti tampa ypatingai svarbus, nes mechaninius darbus vis dažniau atlieka technologijos. Kaip tvirtina Gustavas Floberas „*Gyvenimo sėkmę kur kas labiau garantuoja mokėjimas bendrauti negu talentas*“. Tuo tarpu šiuolaikinio verslo aplinkoje komunikavimas tampa svarbiu iššūkiu. Verslo aplinkoje vyksta dalykiniai pokalbiai ir derybos, kurie turi tam tikras griežtas taisykles bei savas ypatybes. Tarptautiškumo kontekste verslas tapo globalus, todėl verslininkams vis dažniau tenka bendrauti su kitų kultūrų atstovais. Šiame kontekste svarbu tinkamai apibrėžti tolerancijos kitokiai kultūrai, elgsenai, etiketo reikalavimų ribas. Būtina žinoti ir toleruoti svetimas tradicijas, manieras bei kitokį pasaulio suvokimą. Žmonės komunikuodami naudoja skirtingas bendravimo formas, neretai kelias vienu metu. Svarbiausios jų yra verbalinė ir neverbalinė. Dauguma tyrėjų teigia, kad verbalinis bendravimas naudojamas perduoti informaciją, o neverbalinis apibrėžti tarpasmeniniams santykiams (Peleckis, Mažeikienė ir Peleckienė, 2016⁴).

Kitas svarbus tarpkultūrinei komunikacijai momentas yra kultūros pažinimas ir supratimas. Kultūros sąvoka turi skirtingas prasmes. Galima teigti kad, kultūra yra grupės lygio reiškinys, todėl tik apibrėžta grupė žmonių gali dalintis įsitikinimais, vertybėmis, elgesio lūkesčiais (Goldwich, 2010⁵; Steers, 2011⁶). Taip pat kiti

² Jensen, K. *Derybų vadovas*. Vilnius: Verslo žinios, 2006.

³ Mažeikienė, A. ir Peleckis, K. *Verslo derybos: vadovėlis*. Vilnius: Vilniaus Gedimino technikos universitetas, Technika, 2011.

⁴ Peleckis, K., Mažeikienė, M. ir Peleckienė, V. *Verslo komunikacija ir derybos*. Vilnius: VGTU leidykla „Technika“, 2016

⁵ Goldwich, D. *Win-win negotiations: developing the mind set, skill and behaviours of win-win negotiators*. Singapūras: Marshall Cavendish Business, 2010.

⁶ Steers, R.M., Sanchez-Runde, C., Nardon, L. *Management across cultures: challenges and strategies*. New York: Cambridge University Press, 2011.

autoriai pažymi, kad bendras kultūros elementas - „kultūriniai įsitikinimai, vertybės ir elgesio lūkesčiai yra išmokstami ir perduodami naujiems grupės nariams“ (Lewicki et al., 2006⁷). Kaip matome, nors terminas kultūra turi daugybę apibrėžimų, tačiau dažniausia ši sąvoka apibrėžiama kaip grupę žmonių jungiančios vertybės ir įsitikinimai. Kultūros antropologas C. Kluckhohn (1962⁸) kultūrą apibrėžia kaip „įsitikinimų, vertybių, elgesio, papročių ir požiūrių visumą, kuri vieną visuomenę atskiria nuo kitos“; F.Trompenaars (2000⁹) kultūrą vadina „[būdu], kuriuo grupė žmonių sprendžia problemas ir dilemas“ (cit. iš Steers et al., 2011).

Kaip pažinti kitą verslo kultūrą? Tyrėjai (Tomalin, Nick, 2008¹⁰) rekomenduoja žinoti tris sudedamąsias dalis, padedančias suprasti kitą verslo kultūrą:

- Pagrindinę informaciją apie šalį;
- Tos šalies žmonių požiūrį į vertybes;
 - Šalies žmonių elgesį.

Kultūra - kolektyvinis minties užprogramavimas, kuris atskiria vieną žmonių grupę ar kategoriją nuo kitų. (Hofstede, 2001¹¹). Kiti autoriai apibūdina kultūrinius ypatumus, teigdami: „Skirtingų kultūrų žmonės laikosi tų pačių esminių sampratų, tačiau žiūri į jas iš skirtingų taškų bei perspektyvų, todėl jų elgesys kartais atrodo neracionalus ar net prieštarauja tam, kas mums atrodo šventa“. (Lewis, 2002¹²).

Geertas Hofstede yra įžymus olandų profesorius sukūręs garsų kultūrinių dimensijų modelį. Skirtingų šalių kultūriniais skirtumais jis pradėjo domėtis XX a. antrojoje pusėje ir iš pradžių tai buvo tik tarptautinės įmonės darbo aplinkos analizė, tačiau vėliau tapo jo pagrindiniu moksliniu interesu (Gudonienė, 2013¹³). Tyrėjas surinko informaciją iš 72 šalių, apklausdamas 117,000 tarptautinių verslo įmonių darbdavių ir sukūrė savo teoriją, kurioje išskyrė keturias pagrindines dimensijas, atskleidžiančias šalių kultūrinius skirtumus: individualizmas prieš kolektyvizmą, atstumas nuo galios, netikrumo vengimas ir vyriškumas – moteriškumas. Vėliau G. Hofstede pasiūlė dar vieną dimensiją – ilgalaikė ir trumpalaikė orientacija. (Baraldsnes, 2012¹⁴).

Tarpkultūrinė komunikacija – vykstanti tarp skirtingų kultūrų atstovų, negali sukurti vienodai suvokiamos aplinkos. Kultūros skiriasi įvairiais aspektais: kalba, elgesio modeliais,

⁷ Lewicki, R.J., Saunders, D.M., Barry, B. *Negotiations*. 5th ed. Bostonas: McGraw-Hill, 2006.

⁸ Kluckhohn, C. *Culture and behavior*. Oksfordas: Free Press Glencoe, 1962.

⁹ Trompenaars, F. and Hanpen-Turner, C. *Riding the waves of culture: understanding cultural diversity in business*. Londonas: Nickolas brealey Publishing, 2000.

¹⁰ Tomalin, B., Nicks, M. *Pasaulio verslo kultūros ir kaip jas perprasti*. Vilnius: Verslo žinios, 2008

¹¹ Hofstede, G. *Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions, and Organizations Across Nations*. Londonas: Sage Publications, 2001.

¹² Lewis, R., D. *Kultūrų sandūra*. Vilnius: Alma litera, 2002.

¹³ Gudonienė, V. *Tarpkultūrinė komunikacija*. Kaunas: Socialinių mokslų kolegija, 2013.

¹⁴ Baraldsnes, D. *Tarptautinė ir tarpkultūrinė komunikacija*. Klaipėda: Viešoji įstaiga Socialinių mokslų kolegija, 2012.

vertybėmis, taigi bandymas pagal savo suvokimą nuspėti kitos kultūros atstovo tikslus pasiteisina retai. Tarpkultūrinė komunikacija yra pagrįsta skirtumais. (Petkevičiūtė, 2010¹⁵).

Kultūra daro įtaką visiems komunikacijos grandinės elementams: siuntėjo suvokimui; užkodavimui ir perdavimui; perdavimo metodo pasirinkimui; dekodavimui ir supratimui. Tarpkultūrinė komunikacija, tai komunikacija tarp žmonių iš skirtingų kultūrų ir panašumų prielaida nėra lengvai įgyvendinama. Kiekviena kultūra turi skirtingus pasaulio klasifikavimo būdus ir tai atspindi lingvistinėse ir semantinėse visuomenių struktūrose (Prunskus, 2003¹⁶). Vienas iš unikalių tarpkultūrinio bendravimo aspektų yra pagrindinių taisyklių, pagal kurias bus sąveikaujama, neaiškumas ir dviprasmiškumas signalų reikšmė. Dėl plintančios kultūros įtakos visiems komunikacijos proceso aspektams negalime būti tikri, kad taisyklės, pagal kurias bendrauja du žmonės iš skirtingų kultūrų, yra panašios ir ar signalai, kuriais keičiamasi, turi tą pačią reikšmę (Petkevičiūtė, 2010).

Tarpkultūrinėje komunikacijoje paprastai bendraujama verbaliu/žodine kalba, kuri dažnai nėra gimtoji bent vienam iš oponentų, o kartais ir abiem, taip žodžių reikšmei suteikiama vidinio neapibrėžtumo. N. Petkevičiūtė (2010) išskiria tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos ypatumą kaip konfliktų ir nesusipratimų neišvengiamybę. Tarpkultūrinių susidūrimų metu būna didelė tikimybė, kad kitų elgesys neatitiks mūsų lūkesčių. Kai tai įvyksta, mes dažnai aiškiname tokį elgesį tiesiog kaip nusikaltimus mūsų vertybių sistemai. Šie konfliktai yra neišvengiami tarpkultūriniuose epizoduose tiek žmonėms, tiek kitiems kultūrinės sistemos veikėjams. Neapibrėžtumas prisideda prie šio konflikto. Net kai neapibrėžtumas sumažėja, konfliktas yra neišvengiamas dėl skirtingų kultūrų skirtingo verbalinio ir neverbalinio elgesio, susijusių emocijų ir vertybių, būdingų kultūrinei sistemai.

Sėkmingos komunikacijos šerdis yra informacijos pateikimo tikslumas bei jos interpretavimo adekvatumas. Komunikacija vykdoma naudojant kartu verbalinę ir neverbalinę kalbas ir sunku kartais nustatyti, kuris kalbos aspektas tam tikroje kultūroje yra svarbesnis.

Verbalinė komunikacija – tai tarpusavio sąveika, kurios metu apsieikiama informacija bendraujant kalbos simboliais raštu ir žodžiu. Derybinė kalba turėtų būti gerai suplanuota su teisingai parinktais žodžiais tam, kad būtų paprasčiau paveikti pašnekovą ar jų grupę siekiant pakeisti turimą arba sukurti naują dalykinę situaciją bei santykius. Verbalinė komunikacija turi keletą funkcijų, pagrindinės jų: informacinė, agitacinė ir emocinė. Neretai derybų metu

¹⁵ Petkevičiūtė, N. *Tarpasmeninės ir tarpkultūrinės komunikacijos išplėtos Europos kontekste*. Kaunas: Vytauto Didžiojo universitetas, 2010.

¹⁶ Prunskus, V. *Multikultūrinė komunikacija ir vadyba*. Vilnius, 2003.

naudojamos visos, nes gerai suderinus informacijos pateikimą ir pašnekovo sudominimą bei paskatinimą su tinkamu metu parodytais jausmais gali lemti susitikimo sėkmę. Verbalinės komunikacijos metu turi būti užtikrintas veiksmingas informacijos perdavimas, todėl svarbu atkreipti dėmesį į pagrindines jos rūšis: kalbą, rašymą ir bendravimą per elektronines priemones.

Neverbalinė komunikacija – tai informacijos perdavimas pasitelkiant vaizdinius. Gali būti vykdoma: ženklų, veiksnių kalba, gestais, veido išraiška ir balsu intonacijų manipuliacijomis. Kūno padėtis ir laikysena, balsas ir žvilgsnis labai daug pasako apie žmogaus emocinę būseną ir neretai išduoda tikrąjį požiūrį į pasakytus dalykus, todėl kūno kalba daro labai didelį poveikį ne tik bendraujant kasdienybėje, bet ypatingai dalyvaujant verslo derybose. Pažintis neretai užsimezga paspaudus ranką ir susitikus akių žvilgsniui.

Dėl didžiulės neverbalinio bendravimo įvairovės derybininkai neretai patenka į nemalonus ir netikėtas situacijas. Pavyzdžiui ekspresyvūs verslininkai mėgsta kalbėti garsiai, kad jų mintys būtų gerai išgirstos ir suprastos. Svarbią derybų dalį jie dažnai išskiria pakeldami balsą, o kartais gali net trenkti kumščiu į stalą. Tokie derybininkai vengia pauzių ir jaučia diskomfortą jeigu pokalbis netikėtai nutrunka. O santūrios kultūros atstovai kaip tik atvirksčiai „*pauzes tarp žodžių vertina nemažiau už pačius žodžius*“. Ir jeigu ekspresyviems pašnekovo pertraukimas atrodo kaip natūralus derybų proceso elementas, tai santūriems tai šiurkštus ir nepagarbus elgesys. Pastarųjų kultūrose pakeltas balsas reiškia pyktį, o dažni veido mimikos pasikeitimai ir gestų naudojimas parodo žmogaus neišsiauklėjimą. Tokio tipo verslininkai taip pat patenka į nemalonią padėtį kai derasi su ekspresyviais žmonėmis, nes jų tyli, monotoniška kalba vertinama kaip nesvarbi (Misevičius, 2014¹⁷).

Derybų metu daugiausiai sunkumų gali sukelti keturi kūno kalbos aspektai: *Proksemika* – tai asmeninė erdvė ir distancija kuri išlaikoma su kitais žmonėmis. Ji dažnai priklauso nuo kultūros, kurioje užaugama arba situacijos, į kurią patenkama. *Haptika* – tai yra fizinis kontaktas. Įvairių kultūrų atstovai sveikinasis skirtingais būdais. Vieni nusilenkia, kiti paduoda ranką, o kai kurie sveikinasis prisilietimu tik su vyrais. Dalykiniuose susitikimuose verslininkai dažniausiai neskirstomi pagal lytį, todėl vakaruose, susitikus su verslo partnere įprasta pasisveikinti tvirtai paspaudus ranką, tačiau sutikus užsienio verslo partnerio žmoną yra siūloma susilaikyti nuo bet kokio fizinio prisilietimo. *Okuletika* – akių kontaktas. Stabiliausia kūno kalba yra laikomas žvilgsnis. Lietuvoje priimtina kalbant žiūrėti pašnekovui į akis, tai

¹⁷ Misevičius, V. *Verslo etikos ir bendravimo organizavimo pagrindai*. Kaunas: Kauno technologijos universitetas, leidykla „Technologija“, 2014.

rodo pagarbą ir susidomėjimą, tačiau kitose kultūrose tai gali reikšti įžūlumą ir skverbimąsi į asmeninę erdvę. *Kinetika* – kūno judesiai ir gestai. Derybininkams ypatingai svarbūs: veido mimika ir rankų judesiai. Ekspresyvūs verslininkai stipriai gestikuliuoja norėdami pabrėžti tai ką sako, o santūrus atitinkamai labiau vertina ramesnį elgesį ir vengia atvirai reikšti emocijas (Misevičius, 2014).

Skirtinga neverbalinės kalbos ženklų interpretacija išryškina vieną svarbiausių tarptautinio verslo problemų. Tai kas vienoje šalyje laikoma kultūringu ir tinkamu elgesiu gali būti visiškai nepriimtina kitoje. Gestai, mimika ir intonacija yra svarbi dalykinio pokalbio dalis, nes jais galima pasakyti daugiau negu žodžiais. Jeigu klausant pašnekovo neverbalinė informacija prieštarauja verbalinei, neabejotinai atsiranda nepasitikėjimas tuo kas sakoma. Remiantis V. Misevičiaus duomenimis žodžiais perduodama 7% informacijos, garso priemonėmis - 38%, mimika, gestas, poza - 55% (Misevičius, 2014).

Universalios pripažintos, pagrindinės kultūrų dimensijos, išskiriamos iš įvairių kultūros modelių yra šios (Steers et al, 2011):

- hierarchija ir lygybė, analizuojama kaip paskirstoma galia, pvz. pagal nuopelnus ar vienodai visiems;
- individualizmas ir kolektyvizmas, ar individai pirmiausia mato save kaip atskirus individus ar grupės narius;
- į meistriskumą orientuota ir į harmoniją orientuota, analizuojamas tikslų, harmonijos, gerovės, santykių siekis;
- monochroniškumas ir polichroniškumas, stebima, kaip kultūra metodiškai planuoja ar lanksčiai reaguoja į problemas, jų sprendimą vienu metu;
- grįstumas taisyklėmis ir grįstumas santykiais, kas socialinės vertybės, teisiniai įstatymai ir standartai svarbiau negu individo norai ar kultūroje vadovauja įtakingi žmonės, kurie paaiškina taisykles (tėvai, vadovai ir pan.).

Šios penkios esminės kultūrinės dimensijos aiškiai apibrėžia kultūrinių skirtumų aspektus, kurie vėliau lemia kaip verslas ir valdymas yra tvarkomi aplink pasaulį. Būtent remiantis šiomis dimensijomis, Steers (2011) paskelbė sistemą, kuri identifikuoja devynis šalių blokus, kurių socialiniai duomenys leido numatyti centrinės tendencijas ir kultūrinės charakteristikas, kuriomis visos pasaulio kultūros yra skirstomos į tokius blokus: Anglo-blokas, Rytų Europos blokas, Rytų/Pietryčių Azijos blokas, Germaniškas blokas, Lotynų Amerikos blokas, Lotynų Europos blokas, Šiaurės šalių blokas bei Sub-Saharos Afrikietiškas blokas (Steers et al, 2011).

TARPKULTŪRINĖS DERYBOS

Derybos – tai bendravimo procesas, kurio metu partneriai, remdamiesi skirtingomis pozicijomis ir tikslais, siekia rasti vieną visas besiderančias šalis patenkinantį sprendimą ar susitarti dėl bendros veiklos. Šiandieninis pasaulis neišsivaizduojamas be šios bendravimo formos, įgalinančios skirtingų tikslų turinčias puses pasiekti savų interesų įgyvendinimo. Derybos yra gyvenimo faktas. Derėdamasis žmogus stengiasi įtikinti, paveikti savo partnerį, bet jokiū būdu ne diktuoti jam savo sąlygas, todėl svarbiausias uždavinys sėkmingoms derybos pravesti yra surasti kompromisą ir pasiekti geriausiai atitinkantį savo tikslus susitarimą (Jensen 2006). Derybose labai svarbu mokėti suprasti ko žmogus nori, įvertinti ar galima pasiekti visus tenkinantį susitarimą ir nuspręsti kokiais būdais tą geriausiai padaryti. „*Mokėjimas dalykiškai bendrauti, suprasti kito žmogaus, derybų partnerio, psichologiją, jo ir atstovaujamos organizacijos interesus daugiausiai lemia dalykinio pokalbio ir derybų sėkmę*“ (Peleckis, Mažeikienė ir Peleckienė, 2016).

Tarpkultūrinės derybos – palyginti nauja mokslinė sritis Lietuvoje. Tarptautinio verslo kultūra Lietuvoje pradėjo formuotis tik prieš tris dešimtmečius, kartu pirmuosius žingsnius pradėjo žengti ir laisvos rinkos vadybos procesai. Kaip teigia B. Tomalin ir M. Nick (2008), iki šiol suprasti skirtingų šalių verslo kultūras buvo beveik neįgyvendinamas troškimas.

R. D. Lewis (2019¹⁸) teigimu, verslo vadovai turi išmokti toleruoti kitokią kultūrą ir lanksčiai bendradarbiauti. Skirtingų kultūrų atstovai demonstruoja skirtingus derėjimosi stilius. Daugelio tyrėjų nuomone (Hofstede 1997; Prunskus 2003; Jensen, 2008¹⁹; Tomalin ir Nick 2008; Lewis 2019; Petkevičiūtė ir Štreimienienė, 2017²⁰), sunkumai iškyla dėlto, kad:

1. Derybų delegacijos stokoja profesionalumo,
2. Esama kultūrų skirtumų, į kuriuos nebuvo atkreiptas reikiamas dėmesys.

Lyginant kultūras, dažnai pradedama nuo išryškėjančio elgesio visuomenėje skirtumų. Kultūrų įvairovė yra didžiulė ir nepakeičiama. R. D. Lewis (2002) teigimu sampratos yra tiesios ir aiškios, skirtingi tik mūsų požiūriai į jas. Ir vokiečiai, ir britai derybų metu nori sėkmingų rezultatų. Vokiečiai įsitikinę, kad to pasiekti galima vadovaujantis gryna dora tiesa, tegul ir nelabai malonia. Britams svarbiau, kad nebūtų sudrumsta ramybė. Kinai paminėtų, kad absoliučios tiesos nėra. Dauguma rytiečių ir daugelis italų pritartų kinų nuomonei.

¹⁸ Lewis, R.D. *The Lewis Model*. Prieiga: <http://www.crossculture.com/about-us/the-model/> [žiūrėta 2019-04-03]

¹⁹ Jensen, K. *Komunikacijos vadovas*. Vilnius: Verslo žinios, 2008.

²⁰ Petkevičiūtė, N., Streimikiene, D., *Gender and Sustainable Negotiation*//Economics and Sociology, Vol. 10, No. 2, pp. 11-27., 2017.

Tyrimai rodo, jog kultūra turi svarbią įtaką keliems derybų aspektams, t.y. planavimui, derybų procesui, informacijos apsikeitimui, derybininkų gebėjimams pažinti bei jų suvokimui apie etišką elgesį, ir konfliktų sprendimo pirmenybę. Kultūra turi didelę įtaką derybų rezultatams, tačiau jis gali būti netiesioginis, o įtaka daroma per skirtingų kultūrų derybų proceso skirtumus. Nesusipratimų galimybė tarptautinėse derybose yra didelė dėl skirtingo laiko suvokimo, o susitarimai ne visose kultūrose reiškia tą patį, todėl dėl kultūrinių skirtumų, susitarimo sudarymas ir jo reikšmė gali privesti prie nesusipratimų ir painiavos.

Kultūriniai skirtumai yra svarbūs, tačiau derybininkai turėtų atsargiau vertinti jų įtaką ir nepriskirti kultūriniais veiksniams per didelės įtakos kartais dėl kultūrinių paaiškinimų yra nepastebimi reikšmingi situaciniai veiksniai ir vadinama tai kultūrinio pobūdžio klaida (Lewicki et al, 2006).

Reikia pripažinti, kad neretai kultūros įtaką pradedama suprasti per vėlai, kai durys į bendradarbiavimą jau būna užvertos, o santykiai sugadinti, todėl Lewicki (2006) pabrėžia, jog „tarpkultūrinėse derybose, kur tiesioginis informacijos pasikeitimas veda į geresnį rezultatą, abi šalys turi vienodai keistis informacija ir būti suinteresuotos, kad tarptautinės derybos turėtų sėkmingą pabaigą“ (Lewicki, 2006).

Vienas iš aktualių patarimų derybininkams, būtų tai, jog vykstant į kitą šalį, būtina pasitikslinti „[žinias] apie tai, kas yra valstybės vadovas ar prezidentas, kokia valiuta atsiskaitoma, koks pagrindinis sportas ir svarbiausios komandos bei susižinoti pagrindinių žaidėjų vardus“ (Tomalin, Nick, 2007). Beje, verta išmokti ir keletą pagrindinių frazių, nes „tai užtikrins pradžią pokalbiui, o dėl parodyto susidomėjimo oponentas jausis pamalonintas“. Beje, svarbu paieškoti ne tik pokalbiui tinkamų, bet ir draudžiamų temų sąrašo – kai kurie pokalbiai gali vesti link glaudesnių santykių, bet kai kurios temos gali sukelti oponento susierzinimą.

Derybose aktualu ir tai, jog kiekviena kultūra turi pagrindinę motyvaciją užsiimti verslu, todėl tai išsiaiškinus lengviau randamas sutarimas ir tarpkultūrinių derybų metu, nes niekas nedaro tokios didelės įtakos prastam derybų rezultatui, kaip neišsiaiškinti oponento lūkesčiai. Šios motyvacijos dažniausiai yra skirstomos penkias grupes: *Pinigai* – ypač aktualu Centrinėje ir Rytų Europoje. *Statusas* - kai pinigai nėra pagrindinis tikslas tuomet žmonės rūpinasi statusu, tai ypač pastebima išsivysčiusiose šalyse. *Galia* - kitose šalyse, pvz. Rusijoje, Italijoje ar Ispanijoje pinigai pakeičiami galia, o statusas ne toks svarbus, realiausias pavyzdys – mafija. *Saugumas* – ypač aktualus tose šalyse, kurioje žmonės nėra tikri dėl rinkos stabilumo ir laisvos ekonomikos, pastebima Centrinėje, Rytų Europoje. *Malonumas* – darbas dėl malonumo

stebimas britiškose šalyse, kur žmonės jaučiasi saugūs finansiškai, todėl jiems darbo sąlygos, socialiniai santykiai yra svarbesni negu didesnis atlyginimas. (Tomalin, Nick, 2007).

TYRIMAS APIE DERYBINĘ PATIRTĮ SU KITOS VERSLO APLINKOS ATSTOVAIS

Tyrimui atlikti pasirinkta analizuoti Lietuvos verslininkų patirtis derybose su japonais. Japonų kultūra pasižymi savo tikslumu, griežtu taisyklių laikymusi, kolektyvistinėmis vertybėmis ir griežtai vyriškos visuomenės bruožais. Japonijos verslo kultūrai būdinga visuomet kelti grupės interesus aukščiau savųjų, vertinti situaciją atsižvelgiant į aplinkybes, lanksčiai pritaikyti tradicijas pasikeitusioms sąlygoms ir unikaliai įsisavinti naują patirtį bei žinias. Taip pat japonai turi savybių besąlygiškai tikėti savo įmone ir palaikyti jai lojalumą. Hierarchinė santvarka ir griežtos bendravimo taisyklės taip pat yra svarbios ypatybės norint charakterizuoti japonų kultūrą. Dėl to, kad jiems svarbiausia yra kokybiškai ir atsakingai atlikti pavestas užduotis, gėdos jausmas yra padidintai išreiškiamas net jeigu padaroma nedidelė klaida. Ateities planai turi būti labai tikslūs ir planuojami iš anksto.

Kai kurie autoriai (Prunskus, 2003) išskiria tokius japonams būdingus bruožus, kurie yra labai svarbūs jų gyvenime ir veikloje:

- Darnūs santykiai ir „krypties nustatymas“
- Rinkos dalies užtikrinimas
- Ilgalaikis pelnas.

Japonams, svarstomas projektas ar pasiūlymas yra mažesnės svarbos nei apsisprendimas, ar pradėti ilgalaikį verslo ryšį su užsieniečiais. Japonams svarbu žinoti iš anksto ar jie galės suderinti kitos kompanijos tikslus ir veikimo būdą su nusistovėjusiais savo pačių darbo principais; ar savo kompaniją kreipia teisinga linkme; ar jie gali numatyti, kad jų rinkos dalis patikimai didės.

Kalbant apie japonų derybų stilių B. Tomalin ir M. Nicks (2008) apibūdina kaip *beasmenį ir neemocingą*. Tačiau visuomet reikia atminti, kad už ramaus paviršiaus slepiasi gilios ir menkai išreikštos emocijos. Laikas, praleistas susitikime su oponentais, ne toks svarbus, kaip pati procedūra, todėl dažnai derybos užtrunka ilgai. Derybose su japonais vien logika nieko nepasieksi, todėl ypač svarbu palikti gerą pirmą įspūdį vadovams ir stengtis sukurti pasitikėjimu grįstą aplinką. Kitas svarbus momentas – gebėti tinkamai demonstruoti savo statusą, kurį būtina norės atpažinti oponentai japonai, pagal tai jie dažniausiai apibrėžia derybų formatą.

Tyrimu siekta analizuoti Lietuvos vadovų patirtis ir įvardinti pagrindines problemas tarpkultūrinėse derybose.

Tyrimo metodika. Tyrimui buvo pasirinkta konkreiti respondentų grupė, vadovai, turintys patirties derybose su japonais. Lietuvoje pakankamai sunku surasti žmonių dirbančių su tokia toluma ir atstumu, ir kultūros prasme šalimi, todėl atlikti tyrimui reikėjo būtent tokių respondentų, kurie galės pasidalinti savo patirtimi, įžvalgomis ir pasiūlymais. Siekiant informatyviai ir detalai atskleisti temą, buvo pasirinkta atlikti kokybinį tyrimą. Kokybinis tyrimas leidžia tirti naujus reiškinius, kurie nėra masiškai aprašyti.

Pagrindiniu šio tyrimo metodu buvo pasirinktas *pusiau struktūruotas ekspertų interviu*. Šio metodo privalumas – galima gauti daug svarbios, naujos informacijos, kuri dažnai yra esminė ir nulemia naujas įžvalgas (Rupšienė, 2007²¹). Surinkta informacija buvo sugrupuojama pagal reikšmingumą ir analizuojama (Bitinas, Rupšienė, Žydžiūnaitė, 2008²²).

Tyrimo tikslas. Tyrimu nustatyti kokios problemos kyla derybose tarp Lietuvos ir Japonijos vadovų.

TYRIMO REZULTATAI IR JŲ ANALIZĖ

Tyrimo rezultatų analizė. Tyrime dalyvavo penki vadovai, dirbantys Lietuvoje ir turintys verslo ryšių su japonais. Tyrimui atlikti sudarytas interviu klausimynas iš 10 klausimų apie jų patirtį derybose su japonais.

Pirmiausia respondentų prašoma apibūdinti patį derybų procesą. Visi pabrėžė, kad verslo derybų procesas yra pakankamai sudėtingas, turintis ne mažai etapų ir niuansų, bei abi dalyvaujančios šalys turi ketinimų pasiekti bendrą susitarimą.

Kito klausimo „*Su kokiais pagrindiniais sunkumais susiduriate kai deratės su japonų verslininkais?*“ atsakymai atskleidė nemažai įdomių niuansų. Respondentai nurodė, kad sunkumai kyla bandant užmegzti pirmą kontaktą su dominančia įmone „*Kai verslo santykius vystai, tenka daug bendrauti su žmonėm, kurie niekada nebuvo tavo pažįstami ir tavo draugai*“. Du respondentai paminėjo, kad užmezgus ryšį, sunku suprasti ką japonai iš tiesų galvoja, nes viena iš jų kultūrinių ypatumų - tiesioginių atsakymų vengimas. Vadinasi derybose su japonais svarbu akylai stebėti ir tinkamai interpretuoti oponentų kūno kalbą. Jeigu kažkas japonų derybininkams nepatiks, būtina bandyti suprasti tai iš neverbalinės komunikacijos ženklų.

²¹ Rupšienė L., *Kokybinių tyrimų duomenų rinkimo metodologija*. Klaipėda: Klaipėdos universitetas, 2007.

²² Bitinas B.; Rupšienė L. ir Žydžiūnaitė V. 2008, *Kokybinių tyrimų metodologija*. Klaipėda: S.Jokužio leidykla – spaustuvė, 2008.

Trys respondentai nurodė, kad kitas svarbus sunkumas yra kalbos barjerai. Japonai prastai kalba angliškai, o dažnai ir lietuvių verslininkai nepasižymi puikiais kalbos žiniomis, todėl susikalbėjimas ir vienas kito supratimas tampa iššūkiu abiem pusėm. Pasunkina situaciją ir tai, kad Lietuvoje trūksta japonų kalbos ir kultūros specialistų, kurie padėtų palengvinti derybų procesą ir galėtų tarpininkauti dvejoms skirtingoms kultūroms.

Taip pat visi respondentai pažymėjo ryškiai išreikštą japonų konservatyvumą. Nors pastaruoju metu situacija keičiasi – ateina nauja verslininkų karta kurios atstovai yra lankstesni bei geriau prisitaikantys prie besikeičiančių sąlygų. Komunikuojant su tradicinėmis įmonėmis, veikiančiomis ilgą laiką, dažniausiai tenka susidurti ir su jų pagyvenusiais šeimininkais, kurių konservatyvi valdymo politika dažnai kelia savotiškų sunkumų Lietuvos verslininkams.

Dar vieną, kaip ne mažiau svarbų sunkumą respondentai išskiria sprendimo priėmimo laiko sąnaudas „*Mes turime atvejų, kad ir pusantrų metų gali užtrukti kažkokio sprendimo priėmimas, gali pora metų užtrukti ir tai dar negarantuoja, kad tu turėsi sėkmingą verslo patirtį.*“, todėl norint derėtis su japonais, reikės pasiryžti tam skirti nemažai laiko resursų.

Šiuolaikinėse Lietuvos įmonėse dominuoja didelė darbuotojų kaita ir menkas lojalumas. Kitaip tariant toje pačioje pozicijoje Lietuvos verslininkams retai pavyksta išsaugoti vieną ir tą patį žmogų ilgesniam laikui. Tuo tarpu Japonijoje darbuotojai dažniausiai vienoje įmonėje dirba visą gyvenimą iki pat pensijos. Kadangi japonams verslo derybose svarbiausia yra sukurti tvirtą asmeninį ryšį ir pasitikėjimą, greita darbuotojų kaita Lietuvojesukelia jiems ne mažai streso, kas apsunkina visą bendradarbiavimo procesą.

Atsakydami į klausimą „*Derybų metu kokias pagrindines japonų kultūrines ypatybes išskirtumėte?*“ respondentai išskyrė **griežtų taisyklių laikymąsi ir tikslumą**, kitaip tariant japonai derybų metu visada laikosi tik formalaus drabužių stiliaus, be jokių variacijų, visi susitikimai yra planuojami tiksliai ir per ilgą laiką, pavyzdžiui prieš pusę metų reikia numatyti kiek ir kokių žmonių dalyvaus, kokios temos bus aptariamoms ir nieko nekeičiama paskutinę minutę. Paminėta ir garsi **hierarchinė santvarka**, kuri Lietuvoje nėra tokia svarbi, tačiau japonams priimtina kreipti didelį dėmesį į jos ypatumus. Yra aiškiai nustatytos žmonių elgesio ir bendravimo taisyklės pagal jų užimamas pareigas, amžių ir statusą. Susodinimas derybų metu vyksta remiantis tais pačiais principais. Taip pat, kaip pagrindines kultūrines ypatybes respondentai išskyrė: **sąžiningumą ir duoto žodžio laikymąsi**– viskas įvyks būtent taip, kaip sutarta, be jokių apgavysčių arba vėlavimų, bei **asmeninių santykių kūrimą versle** – japonai versle vertina asmeninius santykius ir pasitikėjimą, todėl pradedant bendradarbiauti jie visada bandys pažinti partnerį visapusiškai, jo šeimą, hobį ir kitus pomėgius.

Verslo derybose labai svarbus aspektas yra bendravimas, todėl tyrime buvo klausimas apie tai ar Lietuvos vadovai skiria dėmesio verbalinės ir neverbalinės komunikacijos ypatumams besiruošiant deryboms. Respondentai pažymėjo, kad skiria dėmesio pasiruošimui deryboms. Vadovai nurodė, kad japonai mėgsta pasitarti tarpusavyje, o patyrę vadovai ir verslininkai nevengia pajuokauti, pavartoti angliškus terminus. Vienas iš respondentų atsakydamas į šį klausimą paminėjo vieną pagrindinių japonų verbalinės komunikacijos bruožų: „*klasikinis atvejis, kai yra daug naudojama tų pritarimo žodelių visokių*“, bet taip pat pasidalino pastebėjimu, jog tai gali padaryti neigiamą poveikį – tas lingavimas ir „*taip*“ žodžio naudojimas natūraliai sudaro įspūdį, kad tau pritariama, tačiau tokiu būdu jie tik parodo, kad supranta apie ką kalbama – „*suprasti apie ką tu kabi ir pritari tau – yra du skirtingi dalykai*“.

Paklausti apie Geerto Hofstede dimensijų teorijos įtaką verslo deryboms respondentai sutiko, kad ten minėtos kultūrinės ypatybės iš tiesų yra būdingos japonams ir gali paveikti susitikimo procesą. Respondentai išskyrė „atstumo nuo galio“ dimensijos rodiklių tikslumą ir pripažino, kad japonų visuomenė labai atitinka „vyriškumo“ dimensijos kriterijus „*Dažniausiai viskas yra labai sustatyta į savo stalčiukus. Iš vienos pusės ta sistema nėra lanksti, bet iš kitos pusės ji sukuria didelę aiškumą. Darbiniuose santykiuose tu žinai kaip su kuo bendrauti.*“. Taip pat respondentai sutiko ir hierarchijos principų ir taisyklių laikymosi, kas patvirtina vyriškos visuomenės socialinio modelio dominavimą. Respondentų nuomone, daugiausiai rūpesčių keliantys Hofstede dimensijose išskirti kultūriniai ypatumai yra susiję su planavimu. Derybos dažniausiai yra suplanuojamos iš anksto, prieš pusę metų žinoma kada jos vyks, kiek žmonių ten dalyvaus. Nieko negali būti pakeista paskutinę minutę.

Nors vakarų pasaulyje verslo sutartys ir yra neatsiejama derybų dalis, kurių pasirašymas žymi bendradarbiavimo pradžią, pelno garantą ir investuotų lėšų saugumą, japonai jas vertina šiek tiek kitaip. Respondentai teigia, kad sutarčių pasirašymas priklauso nuo abiejų besiderančių šalių patirties anglų kalbos vartojime ir bendradarbiavime su užsienio šalimis. Taip pat respondentai pabrėžia, kad sutarčių pasirašymas kelia nemažai keblumų „*pavyzdžiui kieno teisė bus taikoma konflikto atveju? Lietuvos teisė? Vilniaus teismas ar Tokijo teismas?*“ Sutartis aišku yra svarbi, tačiau japonų atveju daug svarbiau yra žmogiški santykiai ir pasitikėjimas.

TYRIMO REZULTATŲ APIBENDRINIMAS

Tyrimo metu pasitvirtino teorijoje apibrėžiama derybų sąvoka: verslo derybos tai procesas, kurio metu bendradarbiaujant kelioms įmonėms stengiamasi surasti tenkinantį visas šalis susitarimą.

Derybose svarbu gerai išmanyti verbalinės ir ne verbalines komunikacijos ypatumus, gebėti atpažinti jų ženklus. Japonai verslo derybose naudoja daug neverbalinės komunikacijos ženklų: mykimai, akių žvilgsniai, susižvalgymai su kolegomis, neiginių vengimas. O labiausiai pastebimas japonų verbalinės komunikacijos ženklas yra didelis pritarimo žodžių naudojimas, kuris reiškia, kad pasakoma informacija yra suprantama.

Palyginus japonų ir lietuvių kultūras remiantis Hofstede dimensijų teorija išsiaiškinta, kad: **Lietuva** yra labiau individualistinė, turinti šiek tiek mažesnę nei vidutinę atstumą nuo galios ir moteriškos visuomenės bruožų suformuotą socialinį modelį, o taip pat netikrumą vengianti valstybė. O **Japonija** yra labiau kolektyvistinė, turinti šiek tiek didesnę nei vidutinę atstumą nuo galios ir griežtai vyriškos visuomenės bruožų suformuotą visuomenę, taip pat stipriai netikrumą netoleruojanti valstybė. Labiausiai verslo derybose pastebimos „atstumo nuo galios“ ir „vyriškumo“ dimensijų savybės.

Tyrimu nustatytos kultūrinės japonų ypatybės:

- bendradarbiavimas vengiant konfliktinių situacijų ir aštrių klausimų;
- griežtos taisyklės ir tikslumas;
- hierarchinės santvarkos dominavimas;
- sąžiningumas ir duoto žodžio laikymasis;
- asmeninių santykių kūrimas versle;
- vizitinių kortelių ritualo svarba;
- verslo sutartys dažnai nėra pasirašomos dėl kylančių keblumų su teisės ir kalbos pasirinkimu, todėl bendradarbiavimas vyksta tiesiog susitariant žodžiu.

Tyrimo (interviu) rezultatų analizė leido įvardinti pagrindines problemas lietuvių derybose su japonais:

- kalbiniai barjerai;
- vertėjų ir kultūros žinovų trūkumas Lietuvoje;
- pirminio kontakto užmezgimas;
- laiko ir pinigų sąnaudos;
- japonų tiesioginių atsakymų vengimas;
- senesnių japoniškų įmonių konservatyvumas;
- greita darbuotojų kaita Lietuvos įmonėse.

REKOMENDACIJOS

Norint sumažinti kalbinį barjerą tarpkultūrinėse derybose tikslinga naudotis profesionalių vertėjų ir kultūrologų paslaugomis. Kitas svarbus momentas yra pirminio kontakto užmezgimas, kuris sudaro didelę dalį derybų sėkmės. Norint plėtoti tarpkultūrinį bendradarbiavimą rekomenduojama verslo atstovams dažniau lankytis tarptautinėse parodose, konferencijose, įvairiuose susitikimuose, kur lengviau pavyksta užmegzti pirmuosius kontaktus. Kiekvienoms deryboms privaloma tinkamai pasiruošti ir tam skirti pakankamai laiko. Didelė darbuotojų kaita Lietuvos organizacijose pasunkina derybų procesą, nes kitų kultūrų derybininkai labai nustemba sutikdami vis naujus žmones su kuriais reikia derėtis. Nuo to nukenčia sukurtas ir puoselėtas pasitikėjimo lygis.

IŠVADOS

Derybos - procesas, kurio metu stengiamasi kartu su verslo partneriu surasti abi šalis tenkinantį susitarimą. Norint pasiekti sėkmingą derybų rezultatą būtina ne tik mokėti gerai analizuoti pasiūlymus ir laisvai valdyti komunikavimo bei derėjimosi procesą, o taip pat skirti pakankamai laiko pasiruošimui prieš susitikimą ir naudoti geriausiai tinkančią derybų strategiją bei taktiką. Bendravimas yra svarbi derybų dalis, todėl reikia žinoti verbalinės ir neverbalinės komunikacijos ypatumus, gebėti atpažinti jų ženklus bei būtina žinoti kitos šalies kultūrinius etiketo reikalavimus. Kokybinio tyrimo (interviu) rezultatų analizė padėjo nustatyti pagrindines problemas kylančias derantis Lietuvos ir kitų kultūrų atstovams. Tyrimu nustatytos probleminės sritys: kalbiniai barjerai, vertėjų ir kultūros žinovų trūkumas Lietuvoje, pirminio kontakto užmezgimas, laiko ir pinigų sąnaudos ir greita darbuotojų kaita Lietuvos įmonėse.

Lietuvos verslo atstovams derantis su kitų kultūrų atstovais: rekomenduojama dažniau naudotis profesionalių vertėjų ir kultūrologų paslaugomis; aktyviau lankyti tarptautines parodas, konferencijas, susitikimus; ir skirti dėmesio derybų meno įvaldymui.

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CULTURAL EXPRESSION IN INTERCULTURAL NEGOTIATIONS

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Summary

In the development of international business, it is necessary to know the business environment of individual states during the negotiations, especially the intercultural aspects. To get success and prosper in the business world, people need to cooperate with various nations and intercultural businesses. Nowadays, Lithuanian businessmen quite often must deal with representatives of other cultures. In cooperation with people whose values and beliefs are different from ours, there is always the possibility to experience big misunderstandings or business failures. Qualitative research was carried out by interviewing managers who have negotiating experience in different market segments in Lithuania. The aim of the research was to analyze the respondents' experiences and to identify problems and challenges in intercultural negotiations.

Keywords: culture; negotiation; managers; cross-cultural negotiation.

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EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AS A KEY CONCEPT TO SUCCESSFUL POLICE LEADERSHIP AND COOPERATION IN THE GLOBAL WORLD

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Abstract. The new realities of police cooperation and leading in the international level ask for culturally attuned and emotionally sensitive global police leaders who can react to the challenges of the particular foreign environments of various countries and complex interpersonal work situations. Also for police leaders with the different frame of responsibility, it is important to be self-aware and empathetic and be able to read and regulate their own emotions while intuitively grasping how others feel and gauging their organization's emotional state. The most gifted leaders accomplish that by using a mysterious blend of psychological abilities known as EI. Therefore the purpose of the research is to explore how the EI impacts to successful police leadership and cooperation in a global world.

Keywords: emotional intelligence, leadership, police cooperation

INTRODUCTION

The development of information technologies has impacted almost every aspect of our lives, “shrinking” our world into a global village, so different economies and cultures are closer than ever. People are now aware of the cultures, traditions, lifestyle, living conditions prevailing in almost every corner of the world. Interestingly, this is going beyond awareness and into a state of integration and globalization that is a result of cross-pollinated views, ideologies, products and services. With the changing of global reality has been created a new ideological context that calls for international social responsibility and accountability that goes beyond individualism, beyond borders, highlighting the importance of global thinking, so it is obvious, that we need to extend the mode of concern for individual actions from local boundaries to a global level.

One of the brightest examples of globalization is the establishment of the European Union (EU). Under the umbrella of this union, no one Member State is alone anymore, that is why we must learn how to think and lead the processes globally, how to improve the cooperation and understanding of each other. It is important to understand, that now we are 28 different European countries, whose mission is to ensure to their citizens economic and social welfare, stability and security, as well as participation in international events (European Commission, 2014). In the same time, together with all the benefits of living in the world without borders, the globalization opened up new opportunities for criminals, what creates definite challenges for EU's police organizations as well as for police leaders.

As globalization marches on, experts are lining up to help us understand foreign cultures. But the advice often hovers on the surface- for instance, you should come in time to the meeting in Germany and know how deeply to bow in Japan. Such advices are essential for survival, but they won't help with bigger challenges, such as managing cross-cultural teams and operations or developing sustainable partnerships with organizations outside your borders. Without an in-depth understanding of a culture, the reality of what is truly happening and why it is happening can remain invisible. People's behaviors are driven by deeply ingrained cultural history, norms, values and emotions (Koivuiniemi, 2019). When we don't understand those norms, we often interpret the words and actions of others through our own cultural lens. Unfortunately, this ethnocentric perspective can easily lead to false impressions and damaged relationships.

The new realities of police cooperation and leading in the international level ask for culturally attuned and emotionally sensitive global police leaders who can react to the challenges of the particular foreign environments of various countries and complex interpersonal work situations. Scholarly works (Alston, 2009; Bar-On, 1997, 2000; Clawson, 2009; Goleman, 1995, 1998; Hatfield, 2009; Heifetz & Linsky, 2002; Kaiser, Hogan, & Craig, 2008; Mayer, Roberts, & Barsade, 2008; Nelson & Low, 2011; Northouse, 2007; Ozbun, 2011; Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Shuck & Herd, 2012; Whetten & Cameron, 2010; Yukl, 2010) and practical experiences show that Emotional Intelligence (EI) is one of the emerging concepts, which is essentially relevant to the development of efficient global leaders and for promoting better cross-cultural interaction. Also for police leaders with the different frame of responsibility, it is important to be self-aware and empathetic and be able to read and regulate their own emotions while intuitively grasping how others feel and gauging their organization's emotional state. The most gifted leaders accomplish that by using a mysterious blend of psychological abilities known as EI.

The purpose of the research is to explore how the EI impacts to successful police leadership and cooperation in a global world.

Methodology. To achieve the aforementioned purpose in this essay following methods of research would be applied:

- Method of scientific literature analysis- for disclosure of theoretic aspects presented by various scholars regarding the concepts of EI and leadership as supporting arguments for scientific reasoning;
- Method of synthesis- for presenting the comprehensive synthesis of the concepts of EI and leadership by separately analyzing and combining different elements of those notions;
- Method of content and source analysis- for the analysis of scientific literature;
- Method of comparative analysis- for analysis of the concepts and theoretical, practical aspects of successful leadership, the notions of EI and its positive effect on leadership.
- Method of historical analysis- for analysis of the historical development of concepts of EI and leadership.
- Method of empirical analysis- for generating results from the author's personal professional experience, which in turn, grounded with documents and scientific literature, will assist to elaborate recommendations.
- Methods of logic and generalization- will be used in summarizing the analyzed theoretical and practical scientific material and providing the conclusive remarks.

EI AS A KEY CONCEPT TO SUCCESSFUL POLICE LEADERSHIP AND COOPERATION IN THE GLOBAL WORLD

The challenges of globalization and an alarming tendency of cross-border crimes shoved that wellbeing of the EU citizens depends on police organization's ability to ensure a high level of security in all Member States. The problem is that no one State can solve these limitless global issues by acting separately. However, by joint efforts on European level may lead to a solution and reduce the concern of citizens. There always should be available effective and synchronized tools, which are provided by the equal vision of the problems and global management. In the same time the international cooperation within the EU and the global world is also a key to tackle this question, but one of the obstacles which disturb the implementation of internal and international security measures in particular and any reform, in general, is an absence of strong strategical and global leaders in police organizations.

Role of Emotions and EI in Police Work and Leadership

It is widely acknowledged that successful global leadership requires multiple intelligences (Appendix 1), but one of the key concepts, which has a significant impact to leadership skills is the EI, which is especially topical for the police leaders. Policing makes great emotional demands on officers (Martin, 1999), who are required to deal with myriad crisis situations while maintaining order, delivering service, and controlling the criminal element. Even more than bravery and physical strength, the work demands savvy communication and human relations skills that may be unrecognized and undervalued by officers themselves that is why police leaders must be proactive change agents with high cooperation skills utilizing EI to enhance the organizational culture of their agency. Well known leadership author Warren Bennis (2001) went further suggesting that EI, more than any other asset, more than intellect or technical expertise is the most important overall success factor in careers. It is obvious that emotions are central in every relationship aspect of our lives, including family, friendships, and the workplace. Managed proactively and effectively, emotions can improve our relationships as well as the cooperation in general. They can guide and direct our thinking to include actions that are realistic and appropriate, even saving our lives. Unmanaged, emotions can “hijack” reasoning and logic, contributing to responses we may subsequently regret. To more effectively protect and serve the public as well as take part in international operations, police officers and leaders have an obligation to learn to appropriately monitor their own and other’s emotions and use this knowledge to guide their thinking, action, and decision making. When progressive police leaders explore all available tools at their disposal to combat the current social disdain toward the police profession, a clearer understanding of EI becomes essential on different levels of policing.

EI Concept’s Development

John Mayer and Peter Salovey first coined the term EI in 1990 and have continued to conduct research on the significance of the construct. Their pure theory of EI integrates key ideas from the fields of intelligence and emotion. They further mentioned that EI is based on a model of intelligence. It proposes that EI is comprised of two areas: experiential (ability to perceive, respond, and manipulate emotional information without necessarily understanding it) and strategic (ability to understand and manage emotions without necessarily perceiving feelings well or fully experiencing them) (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). Their four-branch model identifies EI as being comprised of a number of mental abilities that allow for the appraisal,

expression, and regulation of emotion, as well the integration of these emotion processes with cognitive processes used to promote growth and achievement (Salovey & Grewal, 2005; Salovey & Mayer, 1990)(Appendix 2).

Reuven Bar-On is another prominent scholar researching the EI constructs and the creator of the emotional quotient term. From a slightly different perspective, Bar-On refers to the EI as to the concern of understanding oneself and others, adapting to and coping with immediate surroundings to achieve success when dealing with environmental requirements (Bar-On, 1997) (Appendix 3).

Daniel Goleman, a psychologist and science writer who has previously written on brain and behavior discovered the work of Salovey and Mayer in the 1990s. Inspired by their findings, he began to conduct his own research in the area and eventually wrote landmark book which familiarized both the public and private sectors with the idea of EI (Goleman, 1998). In this book, he defines EI as the capacity for recognizing our own feelings and those of others, for motivating ourselves, for managing emotions well in ourselves and in our relationships. Goleman's (1998) first model of EI identified five domains, or dimensions, of emotional intelligence encompassing twenty-five competencies. Three dimensions, self-awareness, self-regulation, and motivation, described personal competencies related to knowing and managing emotions in one's self. The remaining two dimensions, empathy, and social skills described social competencies related to knowing and managing emotions in others. As Goleman refined his model, the self vs. others distinction would remain an important dimension of his emotional intelligence typology. A statistical analysis by Richard Boyatzis (2000) supported collapsing the twenty-five competencies into twenty, and the five domains into the four: self-awareness, self-management, social awareness, and relationship management (Boyatzis, Goleman, & Rhee, 2000) (Appendix 4).

No matter of the discrepancies between definitions of EI, what is clear is that EI is distinct of what is known as a standard intelligence. EI quotient is defined as an array of skills that prove one's ability to identify and understand own behaviors, moods, and impulses and conduct him to best respond to the requirements of a certain context (Kasapi & Mikiotis, 2014). McGarvey (1997) defines EI as the talent to relate with people and grasp their emotions, a quality vital for the management of employees, attraction of citizens and colleagues.

Stys and Brown (2004) highlighted the existence of three main models of EI. The model of Salovey and Mayer (1997) defines EI as a pure **cognitive ability**. A second model by Bar-On (1997) considers EI as a form of **mixed intelligence**, driven by cognitive skills and

personality aspects, influencing the general well-being. The third model established by Goleman (1998) also suggests that EI is a **mixed intelligence** that involves cognitive ability and personality features. However, compared to Bar-On model, Goleman construction indicates how cognitive and personality aspects lead to work environment success.

Harms and Credé (2010) suggest that EI can be approached as either a trait or an ability. In the first case, EI is an innate factor that enables and promotes wellbeing. In the second case, EI is important to comprehend and manage emotions, as well as understand and integrate them into cognitions. Debates about the positioning of EI has led Mikołajczak et al. (2009) to build a tripartite model of EI introducing three levels of EI: knowledge (what individuals know about emotions and the management of emotion-laden situations), abilities (what one can do), and traits (what people actually do) (Appendix 5).

EI as a Key Concept to Successful Police Leadership and Cooperation

Daniel Goleman, the foremost contributor to the field of EI and leadership underlined that leaders with a high EI level are crucial to organizational success. They have the ability to seize employees' feelings related to their work environment, solve the issues that arise, manage their own emotions to gain the staff confidence and understand the political and social agreements within an organization (Goleman, 1998, 2001). The literature also notes a successful global leader ability to increase the performance of the organization by establishing a particular work climate (Carmeli, 2003).

The scholarly works have developed a large number of theories that outline which features define the most effective leader. The academic research studies two distinct types of leaders: transformational and transactional (Mandell & Pherwani, 2003). Transformational leaders raise interest among subordinates, create a different working environment, increase the visibility of the company goals, offers assistance in order to improve the performance of the organization employee and motivate staff to put the best interest of the company over their own interests. Alternatively, transactional leaders reward or discipline subordinates in accordance with their performance. As described by Bass and Avolio (1994), transactional leaders focus on work guidelines, task accomplishment, and employee positive outcomes. Given the similarities that exist between the features of transformational leaders and EI (empathy, inter and intrapersonal skills, self-awareness), large academic evidence document a clear relationship between the concepts (George, 2000; Daus & Ashkanasy, 2005; Harms & Crede, 2010). Complementing a leader's EI that enhances performance, employee engagement has also been

a central topic in organizational science as a determinant of success at the workplace. As it was identified, leaders with the high level of EI better involve employees in the teamwork and are more successful in the cooperation (Robinson et al., 2004; Harter et al., 2009).

As leadership is a dynamic exhaustible reality, success highly depends on the followers and situational context (Marques, 2007). The essential characteristic of a performing leader is given by his skills in successfully analyzing cases and formulating the optimal response at a given time. George (2000) highlighted the critical role of emotions in the leadership process. In addition, Marques (2007) documented that the ability to control emotional impulses, understand and manage them greatly supports successful relationship development and the solving of conflicts. Intrapersonal and interpersonal abilities associated with EI are a skill set most commonly cited by scholarly works (Dulewicz & Higgs, 2003; Rosete & Ciarrochi, 2005; Downey et al., 2006). The literature offers extensive empirical evidence on the positive effect of EI on leadership effectiveness (Goleman, 1995, 1998; Wong & Law, 2002; Coetzee & Schaap, 2004; Leban & Zulauf, 2004; Srivastava & Bharamanaikar, 2004; Kerr et al, 2006). EI's impact on management performance is one of the main discussion points in the current leadership debates. As indicated by Goleman (1997) important leadership skills highly depend on the on the competencies to understand and control emotions at the workplace; hence the ability accompanied with EI will influence the capability to lead people. In addition, since the leader' emotions influence their employees' behavior, the EI is treated as one of the major factors to distinguish between successful and unsuccessful leaders (Bagshaw, 2000; Dulewicz and Higgs, 2000). Schutte et al. (1998) suggested that EI of leaders is powerfully connected with a modern corporate culture including greater optimism, less depression and lower impulsivity levels in the working environment. George (2000) study showed that EI fostered by leaders would lead to increased employee motivation, cooperation, financial results, and productivity. Given that, the EI cannot be delineated from the notion of leadership, which explains the rationale for considering this link in any organization. Emotionally intelligent individuals perform a successful leadership (Zeidner, 2001).

Singh (2009) conclusions show that increased EI facilitates problem-solving in any circumstance, encourages and stimulates employees. Under the police working environment, relationship construct proves especially important and significant. Presently, employees are particularly attracted to a leader's ability to understand, cooperate and create powerful connections that enhance their performance. Jordan et al. (2002) stressed that emotionally intelligent individuals possess valuable skills to create cohesive and performing teams in a more

efficient manner compare to less emotionally intelligent people. EI leaders have the ability to optimally solve any issue arising at a certain moment, and adjust their style in order to obtain the finest outcomes from every employee of the company. Highly EI people stand out as successful leaders because of their predisposition to a more transformational leadership style (Zafra et al., 2008). As far as an EI leader is sensible to emotional consciousness, self-esteem, impressionability, improvement, innovation, risk-taking, service direction, communication, building of relationships and mutual flexibility (Kulkarni et al., 2009), it is possible to conclude that the concept of EI positively correlates also with the ability to ensure the successful cooperation.

There are a plethora of papers that document a substantial impact of leaders' EI on the performance of employees and organizations, so also the teams, which have EI leader show in general better cooperation skills (George, 2000; Ruderman et al., 2001; Bradberry & Greaves, 2003; Caruso, & Salovey, 2004; Voola et al., 2004; Lopes et al., 2004; Killian, 2011; Brackett et al., 2011), what is extremely important coping with the global challenges and fighting with the international crimes. The skills of highly EI leaders are crucial for the creation of an encouraging environment that facilitates constructive empowerment schemes driving subjective wellbeing (Akerjordet & Severinsson, 2008). In the same time highly EI leaders have superior abilities to help their subordinates maintain positive moods while interacting with other people and performing emotional tasks (O'Boyle et al., 2010), what is vital in police work. The ability of EI individuals to turn all positive emotions into performance and to reverse the impact of negative emotions transforming them into challenging objectives could unlock huge opportunities for any police organization as well as facilitate cooperation (Law et al., 2004). All previously meant studies show that the concept of EI is very topical for the police leaders as well as for successful international cooperation. It is also important, that among other encouraging research finding it was identified that EI changes with age and can be improved upon (Berman & West, 2008; Nelson & Low, 2011; Low & Hammett, 2012). This suggestion that the ability to augment, nurture, and develop EI skills should resonate as good news for police organizations in the local and EU levels.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Growing evidence suggests EI is a factor in predicting work performance that involves regular interpersonal contact with people, what actually is the cornerstone of the police profession, in the same time it was also identified, that the ability to understand yourself and

others in a multidimensional framework is important not only to leaders in the local organizations but to global leaders working in different countries and cultures. The overall result of researches shows that EI plays a significant role in motivation, creativity, decision making, negotiation, leadership and successful cooperation.

The high level of EI is especially important for police leaders in the period of such dramatic changes, which are connected with the globalization processes, because leading of police structures and organizations requires leadership from individuals skilled in global aspects of cooperation and it means that are required leaders, which have the abilities to persist in the face of adversity, endure in frustrating, confusing, and lonely foreign environments, adapt to different ways of thinking, and elicit the right responses in cross-cultural interpersonal relationships. Police leaders which are involved in international cooperation, even more, the local leaders must have a high level of EI, what will aloud to spark positive energy in people who come from different parts of the world and excite them. They must be able to connect those people, allow them space to cross-fertilize ideas and achieve the highest degree of collaboration. New global police leaders need to cope with cultural differences in positive ways, i.e. respect towards different cultures, willingness to learn and adapt to new cultures; they need to acknowledge the significance of cultural diversity, show readiness to embrace initiatives and opinions regardless of which culture they come from, and they need the flexibility to move around in culturally prolific environments, what is actually impossible to provide without the high level of EI. An improved understanding of EI also can act as a countermeasure to the ever-present volatility, uncertainty, complexity, and ambiguity demands of the 21st-century police officer and leaders, which must act in a global world.

During the scholarly analysis, it was identified, that for the EU the need for local police leaders of transformation to global police leaders has never been so urgent, but this process requires the development of definite competencies and there is still not a clear vision on what it means to be a global police leader. One thing is clear, that it is erroneously to promote leaders to international assignments based only on technical and organizational skills without taking into consideration the multidimensional concept of intelligence, which includes rational and logic-based verbal and quantitative intelligence, EI and CI.

The good news is that the key to making a change in the quality of police leadership is to understand that EI skills can be taught, improved upon, and put into everyday police practice, operations and cooperation. It is possible to improve EI competencies of leaders and teach them to leverage strengths and find ways to compensate in areas where they are either average or

underperforming. Taking into the consideration previously meant fact it is obvious that necessary to embrace EI as part of police leadership development programs and that way to impact on improved levels of global performance and cooperation.

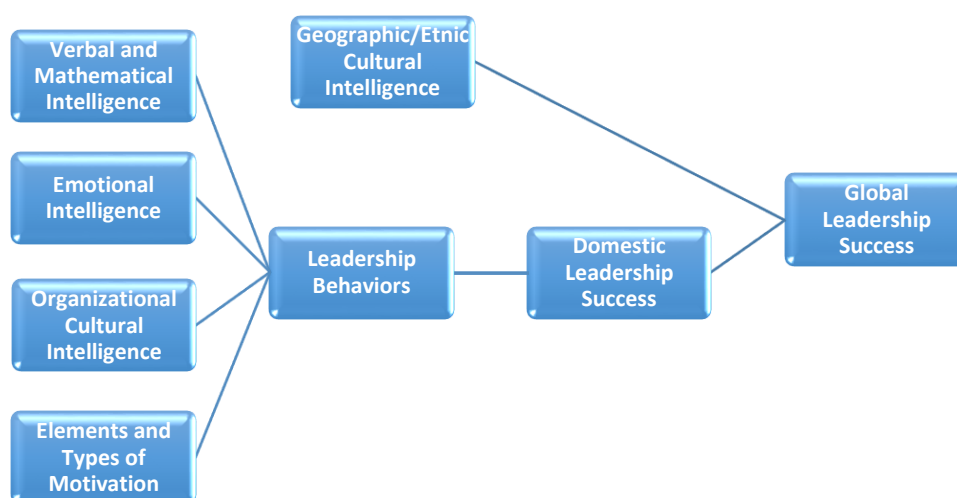
During the police leaders' selection and promotion processes, organizations must either select or promote leaders with the appropriate skills or develop its existing leaders in those skills, particularly as they relate to EI. Furthermore, it must either choose those who possess high levels of motivation to be successful leaders or develop those motivations in them.

From an organizational perspective, developing successful global police leaders is not just the task of the human resources department, rather, the entire organization must be involved in areas such as mentoring, coaching, role modeling, assessment, education, and providing experience. Only then can the organization expect the improvement of skills in police leaders and better international cooperation.

Directions of future research of EI in the context of police leadership and international police cooperation may refer to the investigation of the concept of CI. In 2003, Christopher Earley and Soon Ang claimed that EI may not transfer across borders if the symbolism and the ability to respond to the affective states of others carry different interpretations across cultures (Earley & Ang, 2003). Therefore, successful international cooperation for police leaders it is important to recognize the role of cultural and policy differences in general in order to achieve improvements and progress in police work on the national and international level.

Appendix 1

Components of global leadership success



Source: Alon I.& James M. Higgins (2005) "Global leadership success through emotional and cultural intelligences" *Business Horizons* 48, 501 — 512

Appendix 2

Mayer and Salovey's EI model



Source: https://www.researchgate.net/figure/The-Mayer-and-Salovey-1997-four-branch-model-of-emotional-intelligence-EI-abilities_fig1_317825018

Appendix 3

Bar-On's EI model

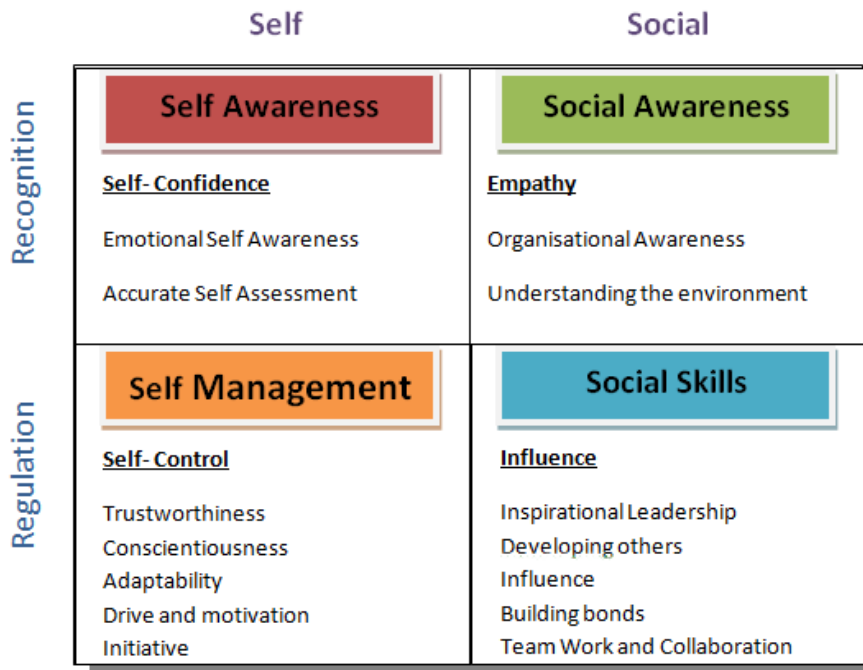


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Based on the original BarOn EQ-i authored by Reuven Bar-On, copyright 1997.

Source: <http://www.psycholawlogy.com/wp-content/uploads/2014/04/EQi-2.0-Model-of-Emotional-Intelligence.jpg>

Appendix 4

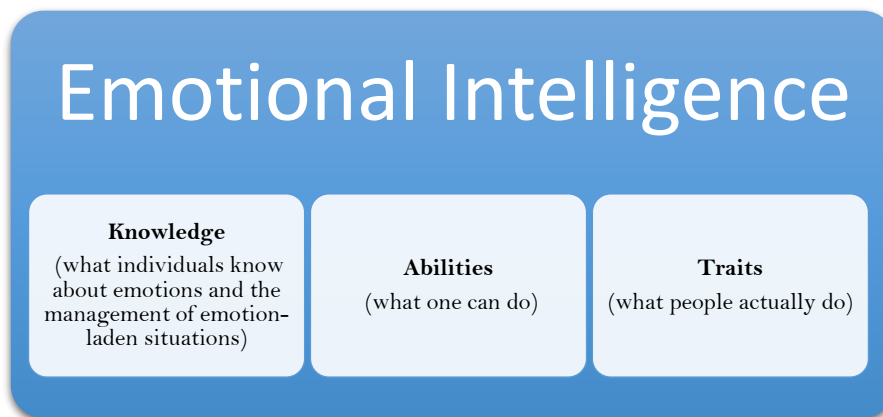
Goleman's EI model



Source: <https://www.educational-business-articles.com/emotional-intelligence-theory/>

Appendix 5

Mikolajczak, Petrides, Coumans & Luminet's EI model



Source: Mikolajczak, M, Petrides, K.V., Coumans, N., & Luminet, O. (2009). The moderating effect of trait emotional intelligence on mood deterioration following laboratory-induced stress. *International Journal of Clinical and Health Psychology*, 9(3), 455-477.

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MODERNIZING THE MANUFACTURING PROCESS IN THE CONTEXT OF INDUSTRIAL DYNAMICS CHALLENGES

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Abstract. In the context of globalization, fast-moving technologies and a rapidly evolving economy have triggered a new wave of change. Generally known as the Industry 4.0, it has been announced to underline the new industrial revolution. Many industrial, production organizations and companies are exploring this concept, but the criteria for achieving Industry 4.0 are still unclear. This article focuses on the fundamental concepts of the Industry 4.0, the structure of current production systems. The key concept of production, the structure of the supply chain and the impact of customer service on production is also reviewed to understand how digitalisation and manufacturing are related. The biggest focus is on formulating the Industry 4.0 concept aiming to distinguish and articulate the main characteristics of digitization. On the basis of scientific literature, the concept of manufacturing process and “Industry 4.0” will be analyzed, comparing Lithuanian production trends in the context of digitization.

Keywords: manufacturing processes, supply chains, customer service, digitalisation, industry 4.0., modernization, production systems.

INTRODUCTION

The ongoing globalization is causing massive changes in the current economic situation forcing manufacturing companies to develop and change. Various journals state that companies are investing heavily in digitalisation. According to Straitstimes (2017), a German semiconductor manufacturer, investing \$105 million in factories in Singapore to turn them into smart mills. In the coming industrial revolution "Industry 4.0", companies are beginning to digitize to stay on the market. Such technological initiatives fundamentally changing the life and habits of society. Industrial revolutions have always changed the way of production, transport and everyday life.

According to Schumacher (2016), the current production systems could be described as focused on increasing efficiency in manufacturing processes. These are: LEAN thinking, and

lower-value tech robots and mechanisms. Improving the efficiency of production processes was a feature of the third industrial revolution. In the fourth revolution, it brings a completely different approach to the production system. Desires to digitize all processes horizontally (through all components that create value) and vertically (through all levels of automation). Fully bonded factories, machines, and products will have the ability to work and interact independently without human intervention. Concepts such as the Internet of Things, a smart factory, cyber systems, cloud production, enable the implementation of the fourth revolution. It is perfectly understandable that such a vision is complex and complicated. It requires large investments and high-quality experts. Small and medium-sized enterprises in particular are unaware of the financing of these technologies and how they will affect their current business model.

In scientific articles, authors emphasize the importance of digitization in production (Wang, 2016; Qin & Liu, 2016; Ugerman, 2018; Heiner, 2016; Friederichsen, 2014; Brettel, 2014). They claim that companies need to implement the latest technology. A non-innovative, non-innovative company is doomed to be pushed out of the market. Innovation is becoming a necessity for the success of a company. The fourth industrial revolution is already beginning to change production processes, business models, and personal life.

The article reviews the concept of production as well as analyses the concept of the fourth industrial revolution.

Research aim is to evaluate the complexity of the digitalisation process in production during scientific literature and comparative analysis.

Research Objectives:

1. To analyse the concept of production process and its complexity on the basis of scientific literature.
2. On the basis of scientific literature to analyse the concept of "Industry 4.0" and present its complexity.
3. To analyse trends in Lithuania in the context of digitization by comparative analysis.

MANUFACTURING PROCESS

It is essential to understand what production is and why it is important. Zinkevičiūtė (2013) describes production as a complex system that covers the whole process, from the supply of raw materials to the production company, their role in the product production right through to the distribution. Other authors, such as Shekhat (2014), say that production uses resources to create products or services that are right for the market economy. This may include production, storage,

transportation, packaging. Caves (2014) in Can They Make it Better says that the production of products and services include the transformation of resources such as labor, electricity, pure materials, services supplied by other companies, and machines into manufactured products, but a different view Wang et al. (2016) claim that production is part of a larger scheme known as operations. The term "operations" covers all the systems needed to perform the job, including all services related to supply and production itself. Authors have different thoughts, but they are similar and overlapping, otherwise it could be argued that production is not a specific process, but a set of processes that include areas such as material supply, distribution of finished products, distribution of raw materials, which would be difficult to manage without the necessary tools. It is possible to improve the quantity of production, reduce production time and reduce the amount of waste in the company.

According to Mattsson and Gullander (2011), many companies today suffer from high demands on productivity, flexibility and sustainability, combined with the introduction and application of new products. This increases the complexity of production system. The company can gain a competitive advantage, meet the needs of its customers (time, cost, added value) and profit in the company by employing good management of its internal operations, production process, and external activities. There are also different types of production. Mahmoud (2014) describes 4 types of production:

- Individual;
- Serial;
- Small series;
- Bulk.

Meanwhile, LaMarco (Bizfluent, 2018) also distinguishes 4 types, but they are slightly different from types mentioned above:

- Individual (single);
- Serial;
- Bulk;
- Flexible.

The latest production system is the most up-to-date production system that emerged at the start of Industry 4.0. It requires a lot of investment, but in theory using such a system it should be possible to have personalized orders manufacturer with mass production costs. Manufacturing companies strive to generate high quality products quickly and at low cost. Digitization offers the

potential for quality improvement, flexibility and productivity (Hoellthaler & Braunreuther, 2018). Therefore, it could be concluded that digitization is inevitable in order to achieve flexible production.

SUPPLY CHAIN CONCEPT IN MANUFACTURING

The issue of improving production is: how to improve productivity. Rakickas (2010) argued that one of the ways to increase labour productivity is the paradigm of supply chain processes. Figure 1 shows the traditional supply chain model. From this picture and the author, we can say that the supply chain is an integral part of the production process and should also be considered.

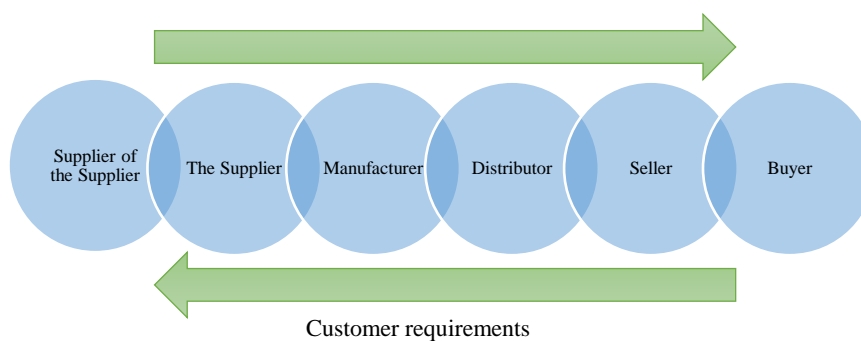


Figure 1. Traditional Supply Chain (Lu, 2011)

Lu (2011) argues that the supply chain is intertwined with participating companies that add value to the current, which transforms resources into end products or services required by the end customer. A similar view is held by Reiner (2014) and Ingra (2016), who claim that the supply chain is systematic access to item management, ranging from pure raw material through manufacturers to the end customer. From this it can be understood that the supply chain is not just the supply of raw material. The supply chain operates in manufacturing companies in many ways: manages the availability of the raw materials needed for the processes, their prices, the profitability of the produced objects, the company's infrastructure, and the ways in which companies communicate with their suppliers. In addition to these opinions, we may also include the opinion of Zinkevici (2013), which writes that the supply chain is a set of entities directly or indirectly related to the needs expressed by the customer. The opinions of all authors are the same and it is clear that the supply is understood as a whole rather than the individual components.

Industry 4.0 can have a major impact on supply chain operations, business processes and models. Luthra and Mangla (2018) discuss about the impact of digitization on the supply chain. Schlüter (2017), contributes to the opinion of the latter and argues that digitization will develop strong trends in businesses, especially in manufacturing environments. Duarte and Luthra claim that manufacturing will have a major impact on the supply chain modernization. It can be assumed that the modernization of supply is also important for the digitization of manufacturing and must be included in the whole concept.

CUSTOMER SERVICE IN MANUFACTURING COMPANIES

According to Šaulinskas (2013), if it is still possible to say that today the loyal client is a happy customers, then this is not always the case in reverse order. Today, acquiring true customer loyalty is much more difficult than giving them instant satisfaction. Customer service is another very important component of the existence of a manufacturing company. With customer service, Zinkevičiūtė (2013) advocates, that no matter how attractive the product is, the most important part is that it meets customer expectations. Customer servicing has a direct impact on the company's profitability. In addition to this, Mitrović (2015) writes that customer service indicates the desire of manufacturers or sellers to deliver the right product at the right time. According to the author, customer service directly generates the value of the product and sells it to the client. Product's material properties (production process): quality, product physical characteristics, style, usage characteristics; The product's intangible features (customer service): order simplicity, post-transaction service, reliability of delivery, flexibility, consistency of supply. All the above-mentioned authors argue that customer service is directly related to manufacturing and that in the near future the customer will have a direct connection with the manufacturing process.

THE CONCEPT OF THE INDUSTRY 4.0

The industry is part of the economy producing material goods that are mechanized and automated (Lasi, Kemper, Feld & Hoffmann (2014). Automation and moving components have started to develop in a steam machine, which have enabled additional manufacturing functions. The third industrial revolution was based on the emergence of logical controllers, which allowed for automation of the mechanisms, thus eliminating physical work. The future vision of the fourth industrial revolution includes modular and efficient production systems, characterized by scenarios in which products control their own production processes. The idea should realize

individual production in small series, while maintaining the same economic benefits as mass production. According to Brettel and Friederichsen (2014), the products in the factories will communicate with the environment and will affect the configurable systems that will be distributed according to the current situation.

Heiner (2016) states that there are two main factors that determine the development of the new industrial revolution. The first factor is the "pull" of application, driven by the need for change. This factor is caused by social, economic and political factors:

- Individualization on demand: market breakthrough from seller to buyer. This trend increases the individualization of products. In extreme cases factories are producing even one individual product.

- Flexibility: The new system requirements require a flexible product development process. The manufacturing cycle must be adaptive and flexible.

- Short development times: new technology, product development time must be shortened. The ability to innovate becomes a success factor for many companies (time to hand). Ugerman (2018) also adds that this factor must improve and even change technology, but also people's thinking.

- Decentralization: faster decision-making by companies to cope with specific tasks requires the abandonment of a hierarchical organizational system (Figure 2)

- Resources management: Shrouf, Ordieres, & Miragliotta (2014) argue that resource management needs to be more sustainable in managing resource depletion, increased prices, as well as changing social attitudes towards ecology. The goal is to manage resources more efficiently economically and ecologically.

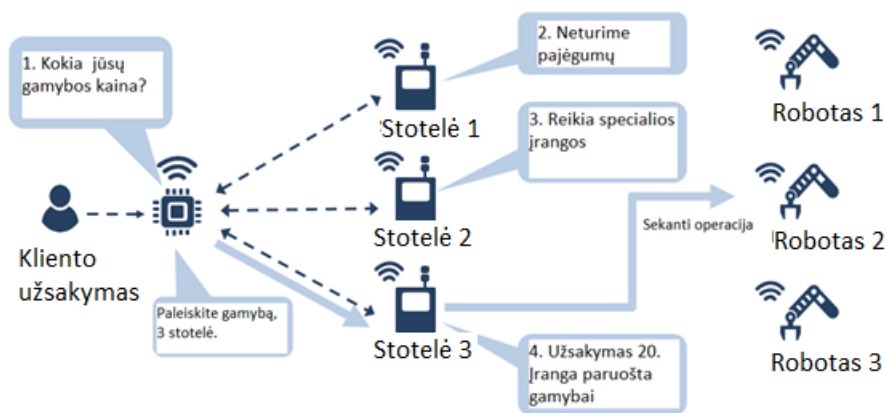


Figure 2. Decentralized Production System (Almada-lobo, 2017)

On the other hand, the industry is also undergoing a technological boost. This technological push has already affected people's personal lives (Smart phones, laptops, 3D printers, apps.) However, in an industrial context, innovative technologies are just beginning to enter the value chain, therefore we are able to identify technologically-driven advancement methods:

- Digitization and Networking: The ever-increasing digitization of production and production tools leads to an increasing database of actuators and sensors that supports control and analysis functions. Digitization processes, as well as evolving, in parallel with networking between technical components, also develop a link between products and services. All this leads to a fully digitized environment. Lee and Kao (2014) describe products as information carriers that are linked to other product modules and to the production process itself. All these are driving components, new technologies like simulations, cyber security, augmented reality.
- Increase in automation and mechanization: more and more technical assistance will be used in the work process to facilitate physical work. Automation solutions will adapt to various operations. Strandhagen (2017) suggests that automation will also have a major impact on transport, such as automated stand-alone chassis that will transport products under the factory, as well as stand-alone workstations with disposable, analytical components that can operate and optimize production processes without human help.
- Miniaturization: There is a tendency to minimize everything. Even 15 years ago, in order to be able to control robots, controllers and computers occupied a lot of space in workplaces, now computers with high-speed speed and responsibility can be plugged into a human pocket. This enables new applications, especially in the context of production and logistics. While all of the above factors are clear and known to everyone, they have the potential to affect the industrial sector in full.

Experts highlight four areas for which digitization technologies will have the greatest impact: productivity, revenue growth, employment and investment (Rußmann et al. 2015) (Table 1).

Digitization will have a significant impact on both manufacturing companies and the workforce and on companies supplying new manufacturing systems. The German example presented illustrates the potential impact of the fourth industrial revolution on the global economy.

Table 1. Impact of digitization on German macroeconomics

Area	Scale
Productivity	Over the next 10 years, more and more companies will have to deploy digital technologies, which will increase the productivity of the manufacturing sector by 90-150 billion. Eur. A 6 percent increase in productivity will be achieved.
Income	The demand for new products, new personalized products will increase revenue growth by about \$ 30 billion. Eur per year or about 1% of German GDP
Employment	Over the next 10 years, production growth will increase employment by around 6%. Over the same period, the demand for engineering in the engineering sector will increase by 10%. Accelerating automation will replace low-skilled workers. The growing demand for software, communications and analysts will increase the demand for employees with competencies in the IT sector.
Investment	By adapting production processes to Industry 4.0 trends, Germany manufacturing companies should invest around €250 billion.

Source: Industry 4.0: The Future of Productivity and Growth in Manufacturing Industries, 2015

OPERATIVE ANALYSIS OF LITHUANIA IN RELATION TO INDUSTRY 4.0

While Lithuanian manufacturing industry is enjoying a period of dynamic growth, rapidly rising labour costs and lagging productivity as well as dominance of low value-added technology sectors in manufacturing systems in Lithuania's put considerable pressure on the competitiveness of the Lithuanian manufacturing sector. Strengthening automation processes in EU industry can lead to additional competitive pressure on Lithuanian manufacturing companies.

In order to prepare specific actions / recommendations for the digitalisation and automation of Lithuanian industry, it is beneficial to analyse the existing digital industry cases in other EU Member States. Therefore, a short list of EU countries whose industry's digitalisation / automation experience will be analysed and developed in the framework of the EU Digital Scoreboard.

In order to prepare specific actions / recommendations for the digitalisation and automation of Lithuanian industry, it is beneficial to analyse the existing digital industry cases in other EU Member States. Therefore, a short list of EU countries whose industry's digitalisation / automation experience will be analysed and developed in the framework of the EU Digital Scoreboard.

The EU Digital Scoreboard assesses the activities of the EU and its Member States in many areas, from communication and digital skills to the digitization of businesses and public services. The Digital Scoreboard includes data from the Digital Economy and Society Index (DESI) and the European Digital Progress Report. Overall, the Scoreboard analyzes the country's performance through over 150 different digital economy and societal indicators.

Following the selection of the 20 most popular countries that dominate the top ten position indicators (i.e., these countries show a very high digitization potential), the following

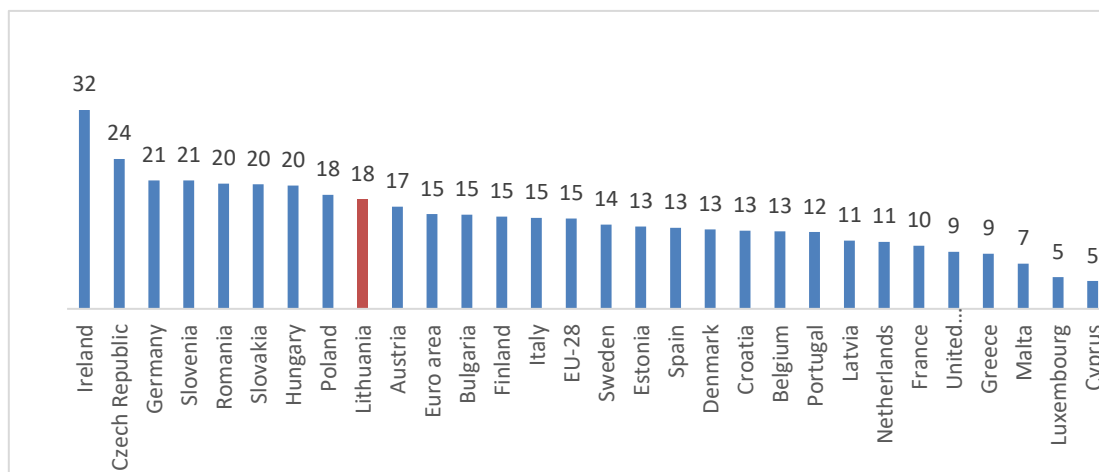


Figure 3. Share of manufacturing sector in GDP,%. Source: Eurostat, 2017

comparisons can be made.

This graph (Figure 3) shows the performance of GDP share of production. The share of the manufacturing sector in GDP is used as an indicator to determine how the manufacturing sector has developed.

Given the size of the manufacturing sector, Ireland, Germany and Lithuania occupies a leading position in which the share of the manufacturing sector in GDP exceeds the EU average (15%). Ireland has the largest share of the EU economy as a whole. In Finland, the share of production in GDP also exceeds the EU average, albeit slightly. The remaining economies are less dependent on the manufacturing sector, depending on the EU average.

There are obvious differences between Lithuania and selected economic benchmarks when monitoring the structure of the manufacturing sector (taking into account its technological development). The analysis reveals that Lithuanian manufacturing is dominated by medium and low value-added technologies in the manufacturing sector, which in 2014 accounted for more than 80% of total production. In Germany, Sweden, the Netherlands, Ireland and Denmark, close to or just over 50% of total production output comes from medium and high value-added technology in the manufacturing sector.

Thus, while Lithuania has a stable share of production in GDP, with the rapid growth of production in Europe, Lithuania's production lags behind the selected countries due to the

implementation of “innovative production”. In fact, Eurostat data shows that in 2014 Lithuania had the lowest share of high value-added tech in manufacturing industry in the EU (Figure 4).

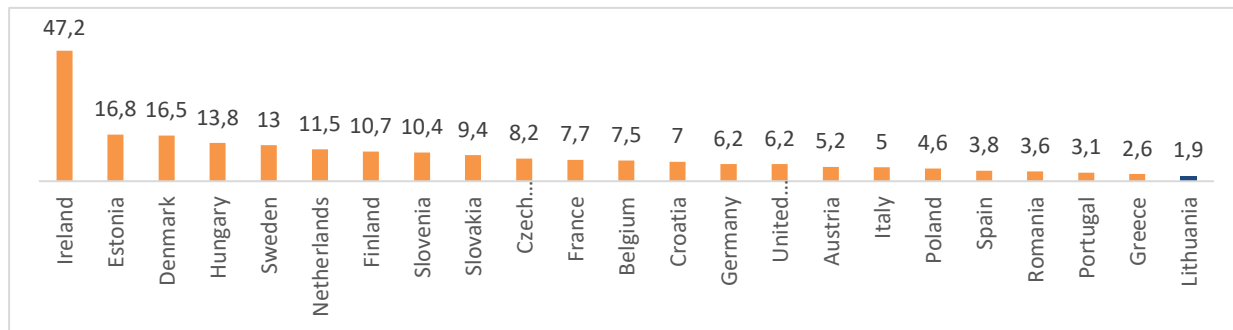


Figure 4. Some highs will add a technology sector,%. Source: Eurostat, 2014

.As can be seen in Figure 5, Lithuania lags behind the selected manufacturing sectors in terms of wages: hourly wage in the Lithuanian manufacturing sector in 2017 was 3.5 times lower than the EU average

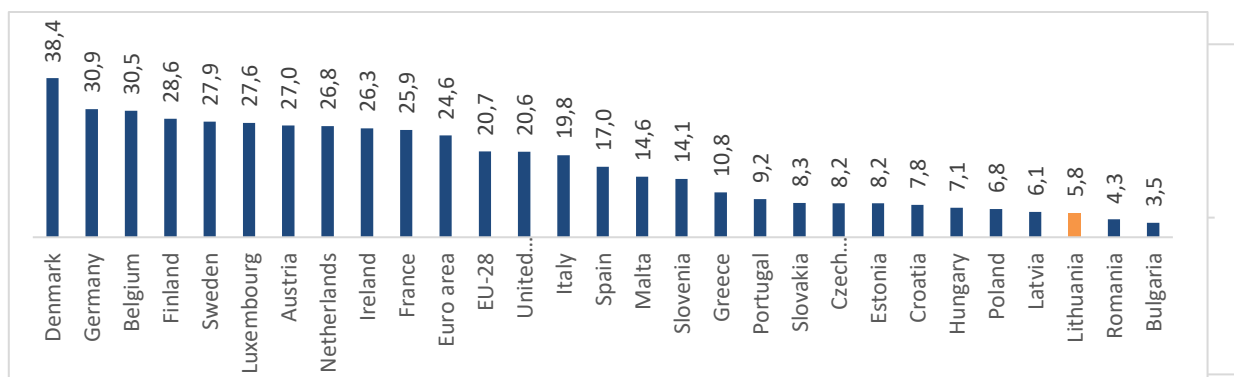


Figure 5. Wages in manufacturing sector, EUR / h. Source: Eurostat, 2017

The difference between Lithuanian and the selected economies is even greater, as most of the selected countries occupy leading positions in the manufacturing sector. An important factor that determines such noticeable wages differences is the significant difference in the production structure in terms of innovation, as Lithuanian manufacturing sector is still dominated by low value technology manufacturing and contracted manufacturing. The above-mentioned study also mentioned that in Lithuania 85 percent of the respondents said that they were not. workers in manufacturing are in medium and low-tech sectors. Eurostat data also show that in terms of employment in the high-tech industry, Lithuania lags behind other EU Member States, as shown in the chart below.

It can be stated that Lithuania ranks quite high up in terms of the size of the manufacturing sector, and holds a leading position with Ireland and Germany. Moreover, only these three countries have managed to maintain or increase the share of manufacturing to the GDP, but taking into account the structure of the sector, manufacturing in Lithuania is dominated by the medium and low value-added technology, therefore it is necessary to pay close attention to digitization of production and understanding of its implementation in Lithuania.

CONCLUSIONS

This academic article focuses on understanding the concept of production and digitization. After analysing the literature, the understanding was reached of the manufacturing system complexity and the concept, as well as identifying the main possible digitization implementation routes. The acceleration moment gained by both initiatives states, that manufacturing industry and manufacturing industry research is changing their paradigms. Digitization describes the shift towards data-focused technologies, large network information integration, communication technologies, and increased automation in keeping people in control. Enterprise goals are different, from energy storage, enterprise sustainability (social, economic) to enterprise flexibility, while maintaining quality and efficiency in the centre.

The analysis shows that Lithuania ranks relatively high in terms of the size of the manufacturing sector and, together with Ireland and Germany, holds a leading position (15% above the EU average). In addition, only these three countries managed to maintain or increase the share of production in GDP, but taking into account the structure of the manufacturing sector, production in Lithuania is dominated by the production of medium and low technology (80% of total production in 2014), while in other selected countries half of production is generated. from medium to high technology. Also, Lithuania has the lowest share of high-tech manufacturing in the EU. It can be added that the average salary in Lithuania is one of the lowest among selected countries, which has a direct impact on digitization.

It could be assumed that Industry 4.0 is to replace the entire manufacturing system, from organizational structures to products, services, and business models. The development and application of digitalisation is expected to grow and last. Companies that are not be able to acquire knowledge of these technologies and are not going to invest in projects are likely to lose their competitive edge and miss out the opportunity to lead the transformation that is just beginning.

More detailed research is needed focused on a detailed view, how Industry 4.0 technologies can be adapted to manufacturing in SMEs and in which enterprise chains digitization technologies are most relevant and profitable. Furthermore, a survey should be conducted to understand the digitization potential of companies and whether manufacturing companies are willing to digitize.

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PERCEPTION OF ECONOMIC SECURITY

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Abstract. The article examines the perception of economic security, the analysis of economic security perception responds to this information. In fact, the perception of economic security came from the cross-section of economics and political science. Scientists from different countries are currently talking and preparing various analysis about economic security. Until now, there is no unified concept of economic security, and every scientist provides his understanding of economic security. Various structures are presented, such as economic sovereignty, economic independence, stability, sustainability. The article aims to show what another understanding of economic security is.

Keywords: economic security, national security, concept of national security, perception of economic security.

INTRODUCTION

In each country activity, the problem of economic security is important and priority. Every human activity is characterized by certain threats and risks that need to be assessed in the pursuit of public, business, and personal goals. On the other hand, due to economic development imbalances and various opportunities, the significance of security is increasing. Failure to assess the consequences of security and economic reforms for human, society and the state can lead to painful failures that can even ruin the state, the vitality of society. As a result, the country's economic security is currently playing a particularly important role, as it shows the direction of the right socio-economic solutions and plays a key role in driving the drivers of economic growth.

The concept of economic security was introduced in the United States, around 1930, when the country was looking for ways to get out of the economic crisis. 1934 US President Roosevelt has set up a special Federal Committee on Economic Security to normalize and stabilize the

social situation in the country, creating legislation for the social insurance of the unemployed and the accumulation of state pensions. Since then, the issue of economic security has always been important and has gained more and more importance as the economic situation aggravates. Researchers devote great attention to economic security worldwide. As global competition grows and new strategic risks are exacerbated by the global financial crisis, the role of economic security is increasing, and it is particularly important to find a link between economic security and small and medium-sized businesses, as small and medium-sized enterprises are one of the key components of a market economy, has a decisive influence on regional economic growth and the stability of social relations. Low capital requirement, quick response to market changes and flexibility to adapt to them, new markets or niche filling, creating competition for large companies, servicing large companies, creating new and often better quality products, services, production processes, favorable family-friendly business form, possibilities for efficient professionals further training is the main advantage of small and medium-sized enterprises, revealing their effectiveness and importance.

The **object** of the article – economic security.

Purpose of the article – to analyze economic security by revealing its development concepts, showing how vary the perception of economic security.

Research methods: analysis of scientific literature, analysis of statistical data, methods of qualitative analysis and document analysis for the assessment of economic security perception.

THE RISE OF ECONOMIC SECURITY

The first reflections on security appeared in ancient times. „Security“ first time mentioned in the The Book of Ezekiel of the Old Testament. Translated from Greek, security means managing the situation. In this way, Aristotle linked security awareness with self-preservation.

The very concept of security began to be used in 1190 and meant a state of peace in the human spirit. However, this concept until the 17th century has been rarely used in this form. XVII-XVIII c. Almost all countries have agreed that the main goal of the state is common prosperity and security. During this period, the concept of security has a new meaning, i.e. calm situation, absence of real danger (physical, moral) and also new material, economic, political conditions, relevant organizations and institutions that help to create this provision. Interpretation of the concept of security is necessary for a more detailed understanding of the concept of economic security. Current modern approaches to security treatment have emerged

relatively recently - in the 20th century. it was decided by the ongoing wars, the increased risk of technogenic and ecological catastrophes. In this end, the concept of security has undergone changes, transformations from an individual to society, a state, a global space. Such changes have led to the importance of the security issue and become a priority policy for each country. If theoretical economic security research dates back to the 19th century, then institutional structures related to economic security began to be established only in the 20th century. The concept of economic security in global economic science and practice appeared in the 20th century. It is generally accepted that the concept of economic security was introduced by US President Ruzvelt in 1934, when the understanding of the necessity of economic state regulation led to the abandonment of the state practice of classical practice of economic interference and the creation of the Federal Committee on Economic Security. Since then, economic security issues have always been relevant.

EVOLUTION OF ECONOMIC SECURITY CONCEPT

The definition of the substance and content of the category of economic security makes it possible to answer the question of economic security as a scientific subject. The subject of economic security, on the one hand, is related to the ability of the economic system, the economic operators, their parts to objectively protect against threats and, on the other hand, to specific state functions as a macroeconomic regulator for economic security and for that purpose by setting up special institutes.

The perception and description of economic security came from a cross-cutting junction; economics and political science. Perhaps, therefore, in the present time, there is no unified understanding of economic security. Often, scientists, by examining the essence of economic security, give their own definitions using different combinations of economic sovereignty, independence, stability, sustainability, and economic interest.

In the opinion of foreign scientists, the economic security of the state is primary and is determined by the necessity of state sovereignty in making internal decisions, thus also in the international situation; maintaining the country's economic independence by raising the standard of living.

We will briefly analyze the development of the concept of economic security in the United States, Japan, the European Union, China, Russia, and Lithuania. The concept of economic security has been used to use another term - national security. The concept of national security (Kazlauskas, 2010; MacFarlane, 2006) as a philosophy of sustainable development of

the state was related to the so-called Westphalia Peace (1648) events, during which the concept of sovereign, sovereign ruler became the basis of a new international order in national states. The earliest concept of national security was mentioned at Yale University (USA) in 1790. The historical perception of national security has included political, military and economic areas. Theodore Roosevelt in 1904 In his report to the US Congress, he based the connection of the Panama Canal as a national security interest (Diaz-Espino, 2014). 1934 US President Franklin Roosevelt, re-elected US President during the Great Depression, used a combination of words - national economic security in his report to the nation. 1934 In the USA, the first "Economic Security Committee" was set up, the main purpose of which was to stabilize the social environment in the country. The concept of national security became the main principle of US international politics in 1947, when President Gari Truman signed the National Security Act on July 26th. As President of the United States Bill Clinton created the "National Economic Committee for the establishment and maintenance of national economic security measures". Every year, the US administration prepares and publishes a document entitled "National Security Strategy", which is a declaration of a democratic course, with opportunities and challenges facing the country. The content of this strategy is strictly regulated by law:

1. US interests, goals and aspirations that are international in nature and vital to US national security.
2. External policies, the nature of international commitments, and the level of US military capabilities that have to stop aggression against the American state and implement a national security strategy.
3. The proposals relate to the short-term and long-term use of political, economic, military and other elements of American state power to protect national interests and the achievement of vital goals and aspirations for US national security.
4. Assessing US Opportunities in Implementing National Security Strategy.
5. All other data necessary to inform the US Congress about the National Security Strategy. There is a dual way of presenting the document; secret and public.

Before World War II, the concept of defense and defense capabilities was used more. 1947 In the USA, the Law on National Security was adopted and the National Security Council was established by the President. As President of the United States Bill Clinton created the "National Economic Committee for the establishment and maintenance of national economic security measures". According to American scientists (Machovsky, 1985; Maull, 1984; Murdoch, 2001), economic security must meet two conditions:

- Preservation of the country's economic autonomy, the country's ability to make decisions for its own interests in economic development;

- Maintain an existing standard of living and its further growth.

Machovskij (1985) believes that economic security must ensure a high degree of independence from the partner in vital economic parameters, i. e. that can even affect political decisions and may be unacceptable from a commercial point of view. Maull (1984) describes economic security as the absence of sharp threats to core values. This threat arises when external economic parameters change so that the conditions for the destruction of the existing social-political system are created. More specific is Murdoch (2001), who thinks that threat only occurs when changes occur:

- the volume and distribution of income and wealth;
- at employment level, inflation, access to raw materials on the market and so on.
- economic sovereignty, i.e. the ability to control a wide range of policy instruments and resources.

In this way, according to American experts, the basis for understanding economic security is ensuring the sovereignty of the state by adopting both internal and external political. In this sense, economic security is understood primarily as a defense of the country's interests. However, the full-fledged scientific category of economic security in the US was not formulated. The situation in the European Union is different.

In the European Union, the concept of economic security has two meanings. The first point is related to the position of the European Union in the global economic system. At the European Union official portal europa.eu various references to the economic objectives of the European Union are collected and the interpretation of the concept of economic security. The European Union stresses the importance of European integration into the process of globalization of a competitive global economy. Compared to other countries in the world, historically, European countries have fewer quantitative resources and working people. The largest official organization dealing with security complex issues in Europe is the Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe (OSCE), the world's largest regional international organization, developing measures to reduce military confrontation and enhance security in Europe. The OSCE Security Concept consists of several components. It is a political and military dimension, forming the so-called "first basket", the economic dimension - "second basket" and human rights issues at the "third basket". Decisions are taken by consensus.

In France, economic security issues began to be addressed in the 1950s and much attention was paid to the economic security of the business. In the late 1990s, the French government adopted a number of regulatory measures aimed at improving the social and economic security of businesses. This was necessary because of the integration of France into the European Union. The social and economic security of France at the end of the twentieth century was regulated in three directions:

- defining corporate ownership, intellectual property, as well as corporate ownership and protection of information, i.e. asset protection for all companies;
- a permanent monitoring system for competitors on the domestic and foreign markets was introduced and the criteria by which companies lost out to competitors were defined.
- state-based regulation of crisis phenomena in the economy was carried out, as well as business professionals, on the other side. Special attention was paid to identifying and avoiding in time the threats caused by inadequate management decision-making on lack of information (Definition of Security, 2018).

The measures to ensure the economic security of UK, Italian and Spanish companies were similar. A stable and influential economic security system in these countries is based on an effective regulatory and legal framework. An example is Spain (Spain NSS, 2017), where the economic security of companies was ensured by the law "On Improvement and Protection of National Industry". In Italy, the state Schröder Ch (2008) supports foreign companies that are dependent on the goods and services of Italian companies.

Japan is the first country in the Far East that has clearly demonstrated its ability to adapt global governance and technology knowledge to the conditions of Asian society and its national interests. The Japanese government has realized that in the current economic climate, competition is intensifying in the context of economic globalization. Small and medium-sized enterprises are primarily demanding state support and assistance. It should be noted that the Japanese are able to maintain their culture, the traditional foundations of institutions and relationships, to change them only to the extent necessary to improve efficiency and competitiveness during the post-industrial era and global development of the country and its enterprises. Particular attention is paid to the management culture and macroeconomic regulation. Japan has become the world's largest creditor, with gold and foreign reserves in second place (after China). As a result, a high level of competitiveness of Japanese companies has been achieved, leading to a high socio-economic level in the country. The Japanese 2013

year revival strategy urged Japan to actively use foreign development aid to gain a higher percentage of global infrastructure projects and medical markets, which would enable Japan to revive its economy in the light of economic growth in developing countries and support the development of small and medium-sized enterprises (Kokubun T, Glosserman B., 2018). Key features in Japan include stability, sustainable development, low inflation and high household savings, a favorable investment environment, quality in education and health care, high living standards, exceptional life expectancy, and so on.

The economic security of Japanese companies is shaped by two main principles: the development of the country's economic stability; creating an internal environment to improve the country's national interests. Japan has some national characteristics, a small share of foreign investment, and the relative closeness of Japanese society, which in turn affects the country's economic security. The general doctrine of Japanese national interests was introduced in the early 20th century. It covered several areas: public security, national military security and foreign economic stability. In addition, the main task of economic security policy was to increase the influence of Japanese foreign policy on the basis of its great economic potential. The achievement of this goal has been achieved through the comprehensive promotion of market relations in the global economy. During the reorganization and development of the Japanese economic security system, two main trends could be identified. Firstly, it is the introduction of the Japanese economy into the world economy, and secondly, its partial autonomy under the alliance with the US. It should be noted that the more Japan sees itself as an influential state, the less conservative aspects remain in its economic security system.

The most important of the modern world "new Asian states" is China. In recent years, this country occupies an important place not only at regional but also at global level. China is positioning itself as a developing country. The peculiarity of the Chinese economy (the market in the socialist economy), the unique place of the country, helps it to strengthen its global economic relations, and gives a special color to global economic issues. This is especially true of the economic security problem in China. China's economic security perception is based on economic sovereignty, especially in decision-making. However, Chinese scientists (Zha D., 1999; Zhengyi W., 2004; Harney J. Stearns J., 2018) today in China have no reasons for optimism. Economic sovereignty is strongly influenced not only by internal but also by external interest groups. China's per capita resource supply is also much lower than global indicators. Industry is dependent on foreign financial capital, which squeezes all profits for itself. Many Chinese companies have to obey transnational corporations and become only an element in

their production chain. Thus, the most important threats to China are economic sovereignty. For developing countries such as China, economic security is best defined as the ability to ensure a gradual increase in the standard of living of all citizens through national economic development, while maintaining economic independence. In other words, there are two aspects to economic security: competitiveness and independent economic sovereignty.

In Russia, scientists treat security not only as an economic but also as a philosophical category. There is no consensus on security awareness. However, there are strong economic schools in Russia where economic security research is being carried out: Academician Abalkin L.I. school, Ural School of Science led by Academician Tatarkin A.I. In Abalkin's opinion (1994), economic security is a set of factors and conditions that ensure the independence of the national economy, its stability and sustainability, its ability to continually innovate and improve. There are three main characteristics of economic security in Abalkin School's economic security research:

- economic security is primarily determined by the independence of the country's economy and its ability to pursue self-sustaining economic policies;
- economic security can only be ensured by stable and sustainable economic systems;
- economic security can only be supported by economic systems that are capable of continual renewal and improvement, i. constantly evolve.

According to the Uralic School of Economics (2010), the economic security of the state is determined by a set of economic, political, geopolitical, ecological, legal and other conditions that create different conditions:

- the state's survival at the beginning of the crisis and the future development of the state;
- defending the vital interests of the state in terms of resource availability, sustainability and development dynamics and growth;
- creating internal immunity and external protection against destabilizing effects;
- state competitiveness in global markets and sustainable financial situation;
- creating good living conditions through harmonious development of each personality.

The assessment of economic security perception of Russian scientists was based on four key concepts:

- interests (national, public, social, personal);

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- independence (national economy from external markets, economic policy from external influence);
 - competitiveness (national economy);
 - sustainability (national economy, socio-economic development).

LITHUANIAN ECONOMIC SECURITY CONCEPT

Economic security in Lithuania is enshrined in legal acts: the Lithuanian National Security Strategy and the Law on National Security Basics of the Republic of Lithuania. The National Security Strategy of Lithuania (current edition, 2017) highlights the primary interests of national security:

- the vitality of NATO and the EU, the security, democracy and prosperity of all Euro-Atlantic countries;
- democracy, freedom, respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms in neighboring countries;
- global and regional security and stability;
- reliable national defense capabilities, backed up by defense needs and commitments to Alliance funding;
- economic and energy security;
- security of infrastructure in sectors of the economy that are strategically important for national security;
- information security;
- cyber security;
- national and cultural identity;
- a safe region from an ecological and public health point of view.

As we see security aspects such as energy, financial security is addressed within the framework of economic security. However, when developing internal security policy, defining its priorities and tasks, economic security is distinguished separately and besides threat analysis, crisis prevention and management are already forming tasks for the Republic of Lithuania in the fields of economic and financial security (2017):

- implement a sustainable macroeconomic policy geared towards fiscal and monetary stability and prevention of financial and economic crises;
- to participate actively in the EU single market and in the EU's economic and monetary union;

- reducing restrictions on economic activity, creating conditions for free and fair competition, striving to create a favorable environment for business (especially small and medium) and innovation development, foreign investment, export diversification;
- implement measures to prevent one Lithuanian or foreign investor from dominating strategic sectors of the economy and preventing the penetration of unclear capital into domestic enterprises, ensuring the protection of strategic economic sectors, enterprises and equipment;
- strive to reduce the social and economic disparities between and within state regions.

The first table shows the link between the economic security challenges and the means to ensure them.

Table 1. Connection between economic security challenges and measures to ensure them

Macroeconomic policy	The EU single market	EU Economic and Monetary Union	Economic activity	Unclear origin of capital and domination of one investor	Regional development
Implementing measures					
Financial and monetary stability	Free movement of persons, goods, services and capital	Coordination of economic and fiscal policy strategies	Free and fair competition	Protection of strategic enterprises, equipment	Reducing social and economic disparities
Prevention of financial and economic crises	Tax harmonization	A common monetary policy	A favorable business environment		
		The single currency, the euro	Foreign investments		
			Export Diversification		

Source: made by authors

The analysis of economic security challenges allows us to state that the object of the country's economic security is its economic system and economic indicators, competitiveness, determines Lithuania's overall rise in the EU and in the global context.

National security is also based on economic security. The Law on National Security Basics of the Republic of Lithuania (in its current version, 2018), which sets out the provisions for ensuring the security of Lithuanian domestic policy in the field of economic policy, states that the Seimas is required by law to determine which companies and facilities (including those to be established) have strategic significance for national security, even declared, what this form

of ownership can be. Economic security also includes alternative sources of fuel and raw material procurement, independent of the monopoly supplier, supply of energy resources, foreign investment, foreign entities in the natural monopoly sector and the financial system. It is important to mention that the Law on the Basics of National Security of the Republic of Lithuania distinguishes between external and potential internal risk factors and challenges posed by the geopolitical environment and potential economic risks (see Table 2).

Table 2. External and internal risk factors in the area of economic security

The external geopolitical environment is determined by external risk factors, challenges and potential economic risks	Possible internal risk factors and internal crisis in the economic sphere
Economic pressure, blockade or other hostile economic actions	Decline in jobs, production volumes and national product to critical levels
Dependence of an entire industry on any one country or group of countries	Structural and technological backwardness of the farm
Capital Investment for Political Purposes: Acquisition of Control of Ownership or Management of Energy and Other Industries Important for National Security, Financial and Credit Institutions, Major Communications (Railways, Motorways, Pipelines, Seaports, Airports)	Criminalization of the economy; Uncontrollable scale of economic crimes
Energy dependence on the resources of one country or group of countries; a mild vulnerability to the functioning of the energy system;	Banking-financial system crises and financial panic
The scale of the country's financial system destabilizing foreign debt;	The destabilization of the national currency, the depreciation of the currency reserves of the Bank of Lithuania below the critical threshold
Destabilizing interventions in the Lithuanian financial-banking system and its destructive effects	Internal debt beyond the country's financial capacity

Source: made by authors

As we can see, there are real problems facing economic security, as many risk factors and risks are of a continuous nature and difficult to identify and eliminate in a timely manner.

To sum up, the current approach to the perception of economic security, depending on what is meant by the concept, can be distinguished into three groups:

- Sustainability is a key criteria for economic security, i.e. as a whole, the conditions and factors determining the sustainable functioning of the country's economy, independence, stability, ability to innovate and improve. This opinion can be found in the works of scientists such as L.Abalkin and others.

- The second group of scientists (A. Smith, D. Rickard, A.I. Tatarkin) describes economic security through interest, bearing in mind that the position of economic and government institutions, which guarantees the protection of national interests, the social stability of politics, sufficient military potential, even in internal and external terms. unfavorable conditions of foreign processes.

• The third group of scientists (F. List and others) determines the category of economic security through independence. National economic security is said to be a state of a national economy where economic sovereignty is ensured, economic power is strengthened, and the quality of life rises.

CONCLUSIONS

The prosperity of each country first correlates with income per capita and another important factor is employment / unemployment prospects. An even broader assessment includes social, ecological goals and other non-economic objects - security, stability, life expectancy.

State economic policy has a significant indirect impact on economic security. It should be noted that threats to economic security may come from a variety of external as well as internal sources.

The country's economic security has a hierarchical (personality, state, society), multi-component structure. Economic security is an important component of country security. Such awareness increases the importance of security at all levels, especially in the economy, due to risk factors, uncertainty, accidental and interdependence role.

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CULTURAL COMPETENCE: PREPARING FUTURE LAW ENFORCEMENT OFFICERS FOR PRACTICE IN MULTICULTURAL SOCIETY

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Abstract. Evolving processes of globalization, liberalization and integration and their induced changes pose new challenges to learning/teaching of foreign languages and cultural competence development. Law enforcement officers frequently face difficulties perceiving and interpreting actions and behaviour of citizens from other cultures. It may have the negative impact on law enforcement officers' communication and prevent them from efficient performing of their duties, which include safety of the community. Therefore, while preparing future law enforcement officers it is of crucial importance to develop their cultural competence. The article covers law enforcers' attitude towards the cultural aspect of professional foreign language learning/teaching, its significance and development possibilities in studies of law enforcement at Mykolas Romeris University, Public Security Academy.

Keywords: future law enforcement officers, culture, cultural competence.

INTRODUCTION

Research relevance. Rapidly occurring globalization, liberalization and integration processes determine interaction of different cultures and multicultural academic environment where cultural problems and development of cultural competence becomes a must. Massive migration as well as a variety of different political, economic, legal and cultural changes pose new challenges for governing, economic, cultural, education and other institutions. European and world authorities are supposed to ensure respect of all world cultures, fostering of national identity and successful overcoming of cultural differences. Living in a multicultural society, which can be characterized by cultural variety, one must promote intercultural cooperation and communication, be interested in his/her own and other cultures as well as co-create harmonious and democratic society based on intercultural relations and dialogue between representatives of different cultures and religions who occupy distinct social and/or economic positions.¹

¹ Mažeikis, G. (2010). Filosofas Gintautas Mažeikis: moralė gali naikinti kultūrą ir atvirkščiai. Šiaurės Atėnai, 2010-03-03, Nr.979 [žiūrėta 2019 m. sausio 10 d.]. Prieiga per internetą: http://www.culture.lt/satenai/?leid_id=979&kas=straipsnis&st=17456

EU documents *Lifelong Learning Programme Call for Proposals 2011–2013 Strategic Priorities*,² *Developing Key Competences at School in Europe: Challenges and Opportunities for Policy. Eurydice Report*,³ *Education and Training in Europe 2020 – the Contribution of Education and Training to Economic Recovery, Growth and Jobs*⁴ state that it is crucially important to develop general competences that would enable young individuals to work and learn in multicultural situations and adjust to rapidly changing environment. The importance of one particular competence, namely intercultural competence, disregarding peculiarity of person's activity is emphasized in Lithuanian documents as well (*State 2013–2022 Education Strategy; Lithuania's Progress Strategy Lithuania 2030* (2012); *Vision „Learning Lithuania 2030”* (2012); *The New National Strategy/Action Plan of Internationalisation of Lithuanian Higher Education*. (2013) et al.). Intercultural competence becomes a necessity since homogeneity due to foundation of multicultural society rapidly deteriorates affected by globalization.

Establishment of globalization term encouraged changes of the concept 'culture'. In recent decades global culture, cross-culture and multi-culture are quoted more frequently. All these terms make a presupposition for cultural and national equality independently of geographic, historic or national culture differences and allow equal participation in cultural interaction.⁵ Globalisation processes revealed that homogeneous culture groups do not exist. They have been replaced by culturally heterogeneous groups. Culture is perceived not as a static and hermetic structure but as entirety of constantly changing values where old relationships disappear and new ones are established.⁶ Thus, culture is a dynamic process encompassing a change of norms, values and a way of life. However, different cultures are globally intermingled and, therefore, difficulties and objectives of a cultural dialogue arise such as preserving identity,

² Lifelong Learning Programme Call for Proposals 2011–2013 Strategic Priorities. (2010). [žiūrėta 2019 m. kovo 18 d.]. Prieiga per internetą: http://ec.europa.eu/education/llp/doc/call13/prior_en.pdf

³ Developing Key Competences at School in Europe: Challenges and Opportunities for Policy. Eurydice Report. (2012). Luxembourg: Publications Office of the European Union [žiūrėta 2018 m. lapkričio mėn. 20 d.]. Prieiga per internetą: http://eacea.ec.europa.eu/education/eurydice/documents/thematic_reports/145EN.pdf.

⁴ Education and Training in Europe 2020 – the contribution of education and training to economic recovery, growth and jobs. (2012). Tarybos išvados. [žiūrėta 2018 m. lapkričio mėn. 4 d.]. Prieiga per internetą: http://ec.europa.eu/education/lifelong-learning-policy/policy-framework_en.htm

⁵ Blasko, A. (2008). Diversity and Dialogue: Culture and Values in the Age of Globalization. New York: Council for Research and Values.

⁶ Intercultural competence – the key competence in the 21st century? (Theses by the Bertelsmann Stiftung based on the models of intercultural competence by Dr. D.K. Deardorff). [žiūrėta 2018 gruodžio mėn. 5 d.] Prieiga per internetą: http://www.kununu.bertelsmann-stiftung.delbst/delmedialxcms_bst_dms_18255_18256_2.pdf .

defence against euro-centric, anglo-centric etc. claims as well as perception of symbolic language significant for life and world meaning.⁷

Changes of cultural perception pose new requirements for education, which include preparation of law enforcement officers as well. EU law is multilinguistic. Its studies are not separated from learning legal French, English or German languages. As law is a part of human culture, closely related to historically established cultural traditions and changes, in global world law students feel the increasing demand for intercultural competence since communication in foreign languages with people from multicultural environment has become crucially important in their professional practice. It is especially significant in international European courts where representatives of different countries, judicial systems and national cultures seek agreement in cases sensitive culturally and historically. One of the fundamental objectives raised by EU Cultural Communication Commission is to “better perceive lifestyle, thinking and cultural heritage of other nations”⁸, which is implemented by developing cultural competence. Importance of cultural education is also emphasized in Republic of Lithuania Law on Education, which raises the following objectives: “render to the individual the fundamentals of national and ethnic culture, European and world humanistic culture traditions and values; ensure conditions for development of one’s mature national identity, moral, esthetic, scientific culture and worldview; to guarantee continuity of a nation, country’s culture, preservation of its identity, continuous creation of its values; to foster uniqueness and dialogue of the country; to provide conditions for an individual to gain the basics of civic and political culture embodying democracy traditions; to extend abilities and experience crucial to an individual as a competent Lithuanian citizen, a member of European and world community and multicultural society.”⁹

Research of intercultural competence is relevant on both international and Lithuanian scale. Numerous scientists devoted their works to investigations of methodological assumptions of intercultural competence (Pasikowska-Schnass, 2017; Bazgan, Niculescu, 2016; Mažeikienė, Virgailaitė-Mečkauskaitė, 2011; Žydzūnaitė et al., 2010). Works of researchers N. Stone (2006), D. K. Deardorff (2009), T. R. Williams, (2009) E. Virgailaitė-Mečkauskaitė (2011), L. Chodzkienė (2012) pay more attention to the issues of creating the conception of

⁷ Kim, Y.Y. (2005). *Adapting to a New Culture: An Integrative Communication Theory*. In: Gudykunst W.B. *Theorizing about Intercultural Communication*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications Ltd.

⁸ Bendrieji Europos kalbų mokymosi, mokymo ir vertinimo metmenys. (2008). Vilnius: Firidas

⁹ Lietuvos Respublikos švietimo įstatymas. Nauja įstatymo redakcija 2016 m. balandžio 7 d. Nr. XII-2290.

intercultural competence. Expression of intercultural competence is analysed in publications of numerous scientists (Barcytė, 2009; Paurienė, 2010; Kvienskaitė, 2011; Kossakovska-Pisarek, 2016; Patel, 2014; Norvilienė, 2014 et al.).

Research problem. As far as preparation of law enforcement officers at university is concerned, research into students' intercultural competence development is scarce. On the basis of scientific literature analysis and law enforcement officers' activity peculiarities G. Paurienė revealed expression of intercultural competence within the context of officers' preparation, introduced pedagogic strategy of intercultural competence development encompassing the areas of culture comparison, co-existence and anti-racism. Linguistic competence of police officers within the context of other competences was investigated by S. Rimkutė and R. Dobržinskienė. V. Smalskys, writing about trends of staff training emphasized social competence as one of the crucial competences, i.e. the ability to maintain contacts with citizens and solve conflicts.

Currently professional language learning/teaching is facing new challenges that are related to cultural diversity. Therefore, foreign language learning is perceived as a process based on holistic approach encompassing not only linguistic skills but also cultural competence. Our country lacks research concerning the impact of foreign languages on development of cultural competence. The language is a significant constituent of a nation and its culture, which reflects nation's history, traditions, geography, etc.¹⁰ Thus, culture of the nation is overtaken and assimilated when learning a foreign language. It is no less important to envisage one's own culture in wider contexts, i.e. within another culture, its evaluation and comparison with the other culture as well as communication with representatives of diverse cultures. It supplements student's personal experience, social and political judgement, fosters understanding and tolerance.¹¹ According to Pegrum, while developing students' attitude towards culture, intercultural literacy is crucially important. It includes one's ability to 'read' cultural information, to assess it critically on the basis of the already obtained knowledge as well as to experience and simultaneously assess the possessed knowledge critically regarding new cultural experience. These skills are crucial to a contemporary and future law enforcement officer, who is preparing for successful integration into global world, where cultural and

¹⁰ Šernas, V. (2006) Svarbi metodologinio kalbų mokymosi modelio dimensija. *Acta paedagogica Vilnensia*, Nr. 16.

¹¹ Pasikowska-Schnass, M. (2017) Arts, culture, and cultural awareness in education. European Parliament. [žiūrėta 2019 m. kovo 2 d.]. Prieiga per internetą: [http://www.europarl.europa.eu/thinktank/en/document.html?reference=EPRS_BRI\(2017\)608807](http://www.europarl.europa.eu/thinktank/en/document.html?reference=EPRS_BRI(2017)608807).

sociocultural differences are increasingly intermingling and misunderstandings are more frequent.¹²

Preparing law enforcement officers it is essential to analyse aspects of their competence related to development of professional linguistic competence and moral values.¹³ Development of law enforcement officers' cultural competence and attitudes towards changing culture in Lithuania have not been analysed more thoroughly. It provides grounds for relevance of law enforcers' cultural competence analysis and allows one to formulate scientific research problem: what is future law enforcers' cultural competence and what students' education at university perspectives are.

Research object – expression of MRU Public Security Academy future law enforcement officers' cultural competence.

Research aim is to reveal ways of expressing future law enforcement officers' cultural competence and its development assumptions at university:

Research objectives:

- a) To highlight future law enforcement officers' attitudes towards a cultural aspect of learning a professional foreign language and its importance at university;
- b) To find out what methods applied learning independently and during studies help develop student's cultural competence;
- c) Display possibilities of developing future law enforcement students' cultural competence at Mykolas Romeris University, Public Security Academy.

Research methods. a) analysis of scientific literature concerning preparation of law enforcement officers and cultural competence conception b) questionnaire that has revealed future law enforcement officers' attitude towards cultural competence and possibilities of its development.

Defining the sample. MRU Public Security Academy II and III course Law and police activity study programme students who are learning a professional foreign language participated in the research. The survey was conducted in February-March of 2018. 83 respondents were males (61) while the minority were females (22).

¹² Pegrum, M. (2008). Film, Culture and Identity: Critical Intercultural Literacies for the Language Classroom. T. 8, Nr. 2. [žiūrėta 2018 m gruodžio 20 d.] Prieiga per internetą: <http://www.inforaworld.com/smpp/title-content=t794297827>.

¹³ Chop, D. (2017). Addressing Cultural Bias in the Legal Profession. University of Michigan.

CONCEPT OF CULTURAL COMPETENCE

It is complicated to provide a single definition of intercultural competence because different authors (Deardorff, 2009; Mažeikienė, Virgailaitė-Mečkauskaitė, 2011; Williams, 2009; Chodzkienė, 2012 et al.) define it in different ways and suggest different patterns. Summarizing the patterns introduced in scientific literature one can claim that all authors identify three levels: cognitive (knowledge about one's own and other cultures, cultural differences, similarities, cultural norms, beliefs, values, etc.); emotional (personal qualities, attitudes, emotions, feelings, etc.), behaviour (reveals application of knowledge, abilities, attitudes, cultural experience within intercultural communication and cooperation). Each level contains certain structural components. One can identify 15 most frequently encountered structural components essential for individuals who live in multicultural society and seek intercultural dialogue (respect to other cultures, openness, tolerance to ambiguity, flexibility, empathy, curiosity, desire to discover and know, cultural knowledge, cultural perception, ability to listen to the speaker, ability to observe, interpret, compare, analyse and evaluate; the ability to solve/avoid conflicts, knowing foreign languages, understanding non-verbal language).

Having evaluated ideas about intercultural competence introduced by different Lithuanian and foreign scientists, one can define the essence of intercultural competence. Intercultural competence opens the way to the intercultural dialogue for people of different cultures. It provides conditions for constructive communication and cooperation. Intercultural competence is not the inborn quality but it must be developed throughout the lifetime.

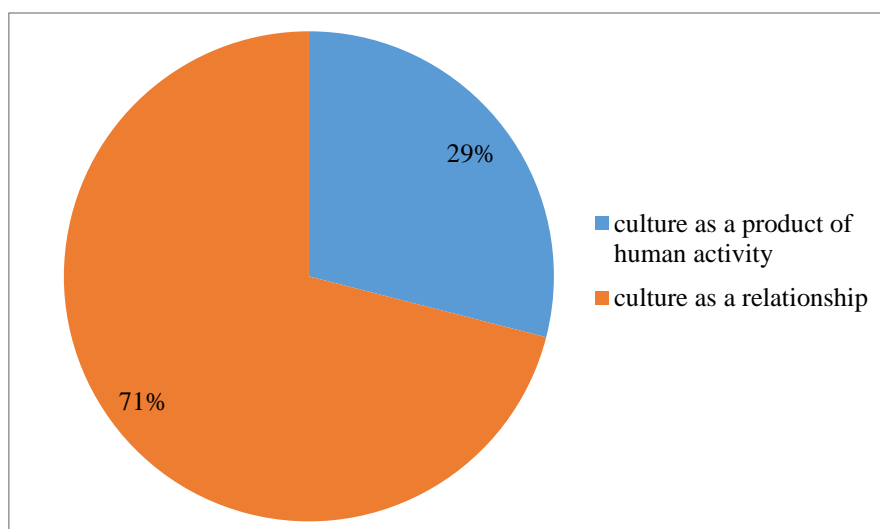
On the basis of separated cultural communication patterns, their levels and components, empiric research was conducted in order to reveal ways of expressing future law enforcement officers' cultural competence and assumptions of its development at university.

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Research questionnaire was compiled on the basis of M. Byram et al.¹⁴ Cultural dimension pattern, dividing questions into three main blocks by basic competence parameters: knowledge, abilities, moral values. Students' answers in the fourth block were used to find out learners' attitude to the aspect of cultural competence development.

¹⁴ Byram, M., Gribkova, B., Starkey, H. (2002). Developing the Intercultural Dimension in Language Teaching: a Practical Introduction for Teachers. Strasbourg: the Council of Europe.

The first questionnaire block defined future law enforcers' perception about culture, its relation to the language and the methods applied to enrich the knowledge concerning culture. The obtained answers were grouped on the basis of cultural dimensions defined in *Universal Lithuanian Encyclopaedia*: culture is individual's relationship with himself/herself, society and environment; culture – as a product of human activity.¹⁵ Distribution of respondents' answers is provided in picture 1.



Picture 1. Conception of culture by future law enforcement officers (%).

As we can see in Picture 1, 71 % of respondents relate culture to interpersonal relations whereas 29% point out culture as the product of human activity.

Respondents' opinion about relationship between culture and language is provided in table 1.

Table 1. Attitude of future law enforcers towards relationship between culture and language

Attitude	Number of responses	Percentage
You cannot learn a foreign language well if you do not know the culture of the country the language of which you are learning.	68	81.9%
Cultural knowledge helps when learning a foreign language but it is not essential.	13	15.6%
Language and culture are not related. You can learn a foreign language without knowing the culture.	2	2.0%

¹⁵ Visuotinė lietuvių enciklopedija. (2007). Vilnius, Mokslo ir enciklopedijų leidybos institutas. T. XI, p. 224-225.

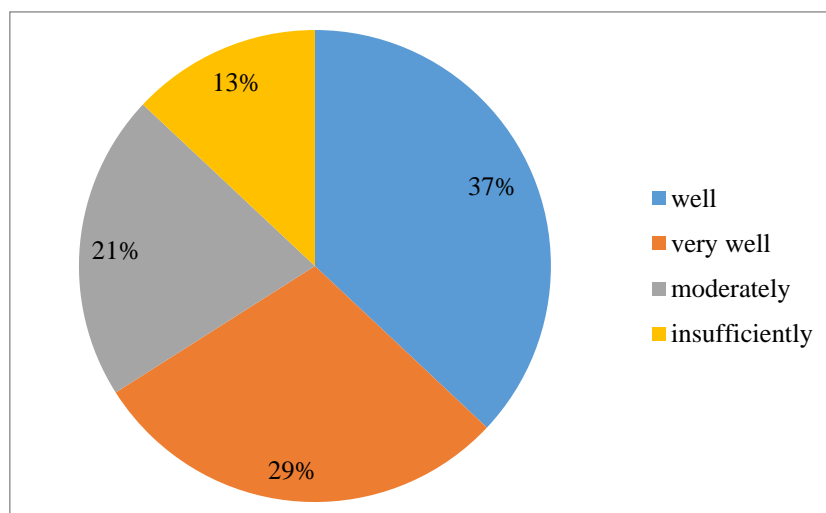
The research has shown that more than a half of respondents see the relationship between a language and culture and believe that learning of a language is an inseparable part of culture. 15.6 % of interviewees feel that cultural knowledge helps when learning a language though they do not see stronger correlation.

In order to know in what ways except for studies at university future law enforcers develop their cultural competence, students were displayed in table 2.

Table 2. Ways applied by future law enforcers developing their cultural awareness (%)

Way	Strongly help	Help	Slightly help	Do not help/not applied
Travelling	69,8	24,0	6,0	0
Television programmes	42,1	47,2	2,4	0
Surfing the Internet	45,7	28,0	21,6	3,6
Social networks	53,0	32,5	14,4	0
Fiction	48,1	22,8	21,6	7,2
Communication with foreigners	65,0	25,0	9,6	0
Computer games	12,0	12,0	6,0	69,8
Cinema	43,3	48,1	6,0	2,4
Scientific literature	40,9	28,9	23,0	6,0

Table 2 clearly indicates that students consider travelling communication with foreigners as the most efficient methods of developing cultural awareness. More than a half of respondents rate high the benefit of social networks and only slightly less than a half of respondents are in favour of fiction reading for broadening their horizons. Surfing the internet, cinema, television programmes and scientific literature are regarded as even less important. In students' opinion, computer games provide the lowest value for developing their cultural awareness.



Picture 2. Evaluation of future law enforcement officers' communication skills with representatives of other cultures (%)

In order to evaluate the cultural competence level of future law enforcement officers the question about their cooperation with representatives of other cultures was provided. The results are displayed in picture 2.

It is obvious that the bigger part of respondents evaluate their ability to communicate in different cultural environment very well (29%) or well (37%). 21 % of respondents evaluate themselves moderately while 13 % state that it is rather difficult for them to communicate with representatives of other cultures.

Similar distribution of cultural values can be observed. Compiling questions, E.P.Iljin's¹⁶ description of emotional experiences, which differentiates between positive (openness, respect and tolerance, curiosity and joy), negative emotions (anxiety and fear, anger, shame and fault) as well as the indifferent attitude towards other cultures was employed. 38% of respondents point out that they would rather communicate with representatives of other cultures and are open and tolerant to cultural differences. They respect and accept different opinions and feel competent to communicate on different topics. 41 % of students claim that they are tolerant and open to cultural differences though they avoid (feel uneasy and afraid) topics that could encourage conflict situations. 14% of future law enforcement officers state that they feel positive towards contacts with similar cultural mentality individuals and are open to new experiences. However, they notice that they face difficulties when communicating with people from completely hostile cultures. 7% of respondents state that they avoid communicating with representatives of other cultures, especially if their culture is totally different. They feel fear and lack self-confidence in such situations.

Summarizing one can claim that the vast majority of future law enforcement officers treat their cultural competence favourably. Only a small part of respondents feel that they are not competent enough to communicate in different cultural contexts.

The aim of the research was to identify the possibilities to develop law enforcers' cultural competence provided by Law and police activity study programme. There is no separate subject of culture studies in the programme. Students were provided five options, indicated in table 3.

The data analysis has shown that the majority of law enforcers see the importance of culture studies. 49% of respondents claim that cultural studies must be a compulsory subject in Law and police activity study programme. 30.1% of respondents would like to have cultural

¹⁶ Iljin, E.P. (2001). Emocijos ir jausmai. Sankt-Peterburgas.

studies as an optional subject. Only 8.4% of respondents believe that they are provided sufficient cultural knowledge and abilities when studying other specialization subjects.

Table 3. Future law enforcement officers' attitude towards cultural studies

Options	Number of responses	Percentage
Cultural studies must be the compulsory subject of the study programme.	49	59.0
Cultural studies must be an optional subject in the study programme.	25	30.1
The subject of cultural studies is not necessary because culture is widely discussed during lectures of other subjects.	7	8.4
Cultural studies should not be included in the study programme because it would be an extra workload for students that has no practical value.	0	0
I have no opinion.	2	2.0

Future law enforcement officers were asked to point out what subjects studied currently help broaden cultural horizons most. 39.7% of interviewees pointed out foreign language as the subject most developing cultural competence. 34.9% of respondents regard the subject of professional ethics as significant from cultural point of view. 13.0% students believe that psychology and law lectures and seminars develop their cultural competence most while 12% of respondents feel that the professional language takes the leading role in the field.

The research also aimed to know future law enforcement students' opinion about possibilities to broaden cultural horizons at university. 28.9% would like to have more teachers who are native-language speakers or discussions with English-speaking guests. 24.0% students believe that more cultural events should be organized. In addition, the university should show more films on the issues of culture and performances should be arranged. The same number of students (24.0%) would prefer to have more discussions on cultural issues during lectures/seminars. They would like to be introduced not only to theoretical material but also be presented filmed content. 22.8% students would like to have more possibilities to participate in exchange programmes.

CONCLUSIONS

Almost all future law enforcement students envisage close connection between a culture and a language. However, the concept of culture is perceived in two ways: 71% of respondents see culture as a relationship with oneself, others and the environment while the rest part (29%) perceive culture as the product of human activity.

The vast majority (90%) of students claim that they broaden their cultural horizons by travelling, communicating with representatives of other cultures in reality or social networks. The lowest significance is provided for computer games.

Around 70% of the subjects evaluate their cultural development very well or well. They state that they are able to communicate in diverse cultural environments as well as establish and maintain relationship with people of different cultures. However, still a rather big part of students (34%) evaluate their cultural competence moderately or insufficiently, i.e. feel discomfort, anxiety, reluctance to communicate with people from other cultures.

Future law enforcement officers envisage the importance of cultural studies in learning/teaching process. The vast majority (59%) feel that this subject must be compulsory in the study programme whereas 30.1 % of students would like to have cultural studies as an optional subject.

The larger share (39.7%) of respondents point out a foreign language as the subject that develops their cultural competence most. However, even 90% of future law enforcement officers would prefer to improve the study programme by inviting lecturers who are native-speakers of a foreign language or organizing more cultural events and extending students' exchange programmes.

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PROTECTION OF INDIVIDUAL RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS DURING EXTRAORDINARY STATES- SELECTED ISSUES

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Abstract: This article aims to discuss selected problems related to the protection of individual rights and freedoms during the period of emergency. In his letter, the author refers to regulations contained in the European Union law and the European Convention on Human Rights. Then, individual solutions adopted in such countries as Great Britain, France, Germany, Lithuania and Poland are discussed. The author puts particular emphasis on the assessment of regulations in Poland and Lithuania, bearing in mind the principle of proportionality emphasized in the case law of the European Court of Human Rights in Strasbourg.

Keywords: human rights, rights and freedoms of humans, extraordinary states, non-discrimination law.

INTRODUCTION

The aim of this article is to discuss the institution of extraordinary states in selected European Union countries. With special regard to Lithuania and Poland. The author will focus primarily on the premises of the introduction of extraordinary states and the storytelling institution aimed at protecting the rights and freedoms of the individual in the period of their particular threat. The study is a peculiar outline constituting a point for further consideration and discussion of an important issue.

Methodology of the Research. In his research, the author used primarily the method of studying literature related to the subject matter in the form of commentaries, monographs with particular reference to the jurisprudence of the European Court of Human Rights and constitutional courts.

THE DEFINITION OF EXTRAORDINARY STATE AND ITS REGULATION IN EUROPEAN CONVENTION OF HUMAN RIGHTS AND UE LAW

A state of emergency derives from a governmental declaration made in response to an extraordinary situation posing a fundamental threat to the country¹. The declaration may

¹ Born H., Beutler I., Wetzling T., Background Security Sector Governance and Reform – States of Emergency, Law D., Power J. (Eds.). (online). [cit. 25.5.2019]. Available at: <https://www.dcaf.ch/publications/backgrounders>.

suspend certain normal functions of government, may alert citizens to alter their normal behaviour, or may authorise government agencies to implement emergency preparedness plans as well as to limit or suspend civil liberties and human rights. The need to declare a state of emergency may arise from situations as diverse as an armed action against the state by internal or external elements, a natural disaster, civil unrest, an epidemic, a financial or economic crisis or a general strike.

The introduction of an emergency state in a given country is closely related to the matter of protection of individual rights. First of all, this matter is regulated by the European Convention on Human Rights (hereinafter: ECHR)². According to the art. 15 of ECHR In time of war or other public emergency threatening the life of the nation any High Contracting Party may take measures derogating from its obligations under this Convention to the extent strictly required by the exigencies of the situation, provided that such measures are not inconsistent with its other obligations under international law³. This can only happen exceptionally and in accordance with the procedure set out in paragraph 3 of this article⁴. Not all rights and freedoms guaranteed in the Convention may be subject to derogation. From art. 15 par. 2 of the Convention, it appears that this cannot be done with regard to art. 2 Convention (right to life), except for deaths resulting from lawful hostilities, art. 3 Convention (prohibition of torture), art. 4 par. 1 of the Convention (prohibition of slavery and servitude) and art. 7 of the Convention (prohibition of punishment without a legal basis), as well as art. 4 par. 3 of Protocol No. 7⁵ in connection with the *ne bis in idem* principle.

From this perspective, the correct understanding of the concept of “public danger” becomes particularly important. Within the meaning of art. 15 ECHR “public danger” should be understood, in accordance with the natural and ordinary understanding of this concept, „an

² The Convention for the Protection of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms from 4 November 1950. (online). [cit. 25.5. 2019]. Available at: https://ec.europa.eu/digital-agenda/sites/.../Convention_ENG.pdf.

³ Nowicki M.A., Remarks to the art. 15 of the Convention, In Nowicki M.A. (Eds.). European Convention on Human Rights. Commentary, Warsaw, 2017.

⁴ According to this article: Any High Contracting Party availing itself of this right of derogation shall keep the Secretary General of the Council of Europe fully informed of the measures which it has taken and the reasons therefor. It shall also inform the Secretary General of the Council of Europe when such measures have ceased to operate and the provisions of the Convention are again being fully executed.

⁵ According to this article: No derogations from this Article shall be made under article 15 of the Convention. Other two paragraphs of this article state that *No one shall be liable to be tried or punished again in criminal proceedings under the jurisdiction of the same State for an offence for which he has already been finally acquitted or convicted in accordance with the law and penal procedure of that State.* The provisions of the preceding paragraph shall not prevent the reopening of the case in accordance with the law and penal procedure of the State concerned, if there is evidence of new or newly discovered facts, or if there has been a fundamental defect in the previous proceedings, which could affect the outcome of the case.

emergency situation, crisis or danger that affects the entire population and is a threat to the organization of life of the state-forming community”⁶. In any case, the state must show why it considers that the ordinary legal means at its disposal would not be effective in this situation⁷. It is for the Court to assess whether the State has not gone beyond the 'strictly relevant requirements'⁸. The freedom of the national authorities is therefore accompanied by the supervision of the ECHR. However, the Court must take due account of such relevant factors as the nature of the rights with a derogation, the circumstances and the duration of the situation considered to be a public risk⁹.

In European Union law, this issue also finds its normative sources, but it seems that the Community only designates general directives of conduct across member states. Article 222 of the Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union¹⁰ states that The Union and its Member States shall act jointly in a spirit of solidarity if a Member State is the object of a terrorist attack or the victim of a natural or man-made disaster¹¹. In the same situation, assistance may also be granted by the Member States at the request of the state concerned. In the event of a terrorist attack or a natural disaster or a natural disaster, the EU mobilizes all available instruments, including military means made available to it by the Member States¹². Against the background of the requirements set for the EU, obligations of Member States in a similar situation are more modest. The scope of this assistance is left to the choice of the states themselves. In the declaration attached to the final act No. 37, it has been clearly stated that none of the provisions of art. 222 is intended to infringe the right of other Member States to choose the most appropriate means to fulfill their duty of solidarity in relation to a state affected by a terrorist attack or a natural or man-made disaster¹³. Member States' activities are coordinated in the Council. However, the TFUE does not regulate the matter of protection of individual rights and

⁶ Verdict of ECHR in case *Lawless v. Ireland* from 1 July 1961, case no. 332/57, § 28.

⁷ Verdict of ECHR in case *Aksoy v. Turkey*, from 18 December 1996, case no. 21987/93.

⁸ Nowicki M.A., Remarks to the art. 15 of the Convention, In Nowicki M.A. (Eds.). *European Convention on Human Rights. Commentary*, Warsaw, 2017.

⁹ Verdict of ECHR in case *Brannigan and McBride v. Great Britain* from 26 May 1993, case nos. 14533/89 and 14544/89.

¹⁰ Treaty on the Functioning of the European Union from 25 March 1957 (*Official Journal C 326*, 26/10/2012 P. 0001 – 0390).

¹¹ Further this article states that: The Union shall mobilise all the instruments at its disposal, including the military resources made available by the Member States, to: (a) — prevent the terrorist threat in the territory of the Member States; — protect democratic institutions and the civilian population from any terrorist attack; — assist a Member State in its territory, at the request of its political authorities, in the event of a terrorist attack; (b) assist a Member State in its territory, at the request of its political authorities, in the event of a natural or man-made disaster.

¹² Krzan B., Remarks to the art. 222 of TFUE, In Kowalik-Bańczyk K., Szwarc-Kuczer M., Wróbel A. (Eds.). *European Convention on Human Rights. Commentary*. WKP, 2012.

¹³ *Ibidem*.

freedoms during the period of emergency states in individual states. Leaving States with wide discretion.

PROTECTION OF THE INDIVIDUAL’S RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS IN SELECTED COUNTRIES OF THE EUROPEAN UNION DURING THE EXTRAORDINARY STATE

However, this issue is raised on the basis of the national law of individual European countries. There are several models for regulating the problem of extraordinary states. In the Anglo-Saxon countries, above all in Great Britain, the institution of martial law developed over the centuries. It is not clearly regulated in the statutory law. Which raises a lot of controversies. According to Robert Cover martial law attempts at one and the same time to do two things. It attempts to be “jurisgenerative”—to constitute a field of legal meaning, a space within which public officials are legally authorized to act as they see fit to restore order—and to be “jurispathic”—to kill off, albeit temporarily, a particular field of legal meaning, the narrative of the rule of law”¹⁴. Martial law is when a state imposes direct military control of civilian functions usually run by government. It may be declared by the parliament or government, as well as by a competent local official or military commander. Powers that can be used under the legislation include “any provision which the person making the regulations is satisfied is appropriate” to protect human life, health and safety, and to protect or restore property and supplies of money, food, water, energy or fuel”¹⁵. During the emergency of state rights and freedoms of individuals are suspended within the limits set by the “necessity” premise¹⁶. One cannot ignore the fact that the introduction of an emergency state does not imply the derogation of the Human Rights Act from 1998¹⁷. Understanding of the premise of necessity will be discussed in more detail later in this article, because it first of all requires referring to the jurisprudence of the European Court of Human Rights.

¹⁴Cover R., “Nomos and Narrative” in Martha Minow, In Ryan M., Sarat A (Eds.). *Narrative, Violence, and the Law: The Essays of Robert Cover*, Michigan University Press, 1998, 1836-1859.

¹⁵ See art. 1 of the Civil Contingencies Act from the 18 November 2004. (online). [cit. 23.5.2019]. Available at: <https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/2004/36/contents>.

¹⁶Prokop K., *Modele stanu nadzwyczajnego (Emergency models)*, Białystok, 2012, 151.

¹⁷Human Rights Act from the 9 November 1998, (online). [cit. 23.5.2019]. Available at: <https://www.legislation.gov.uk/ukpga/1998/42/contents>. In particular, the Act makes it unlawful for any public body to act in a way which is incompatible with the Convention, unless the wording of any other primary legislation provides no other choice. It also requires the judiciary (including tribunals) to take account of any decisions, judgment or opinion of the European Court of Human Rights, and to interpret legislation, as far as possible, in a way which is compatible with Convention rights.

In the Federal Republic of Germany, this matter is governed by Chapter Xa of the Constitution¹⁸, added in the 1968. Martial law, referred to differently as *Verteidigungsfall*, is introduced in principle as a result of the Bundestag finding, with the consent of the Bundesrat, that the area of the state has been armed with attack or that such an attack directly threatens. According to the art. 115a: any determination that the federal territory is under attack by armed force or imminently threatened with such an attack (state of defense) shall be made by the Bundestag with the consent of the Bundesrat. Such determination shall be made on application of the Federal Government and shall require a two-thirds majority of the votes cast, which shall include at least a majority of the Members of the Bundestag. The basic effect of the introduction of an emergency state in Germany is the transition of the takeover of sovereignty over the armed forces to the chancellor. An interesting solution is to determine the legal status of the Federal Constitutional Court. According to the art. 115G, Neither the constitutional status nor the performance of the constitutional functions of the Federal Constitutional Court or its judges may be impaired. The law governing the Federal Constitutional Court may be amended by a law enacted by the Joint Committee only insofar as the Federal Constitutional Court agrees is necessary to ensure that it can continue to perform its functions. However, the subject of protection of individual rights during the emergency state is not mentioned.

Introduction of extraordinary state in France grants special powers to the executive branch in case of exceptional circumstances. Three main provisions concern various kinds of states of emergency in France: two of those provisions stem from the Constitution of 1958, and the third from a statute. Article 16 of the Constitution provides "exceptional powers" (*Pouvoirs exceptionnels*) to the president in times of acute crisis. When the institutions of the Republic, the independence of the nation, the integrity of its territory, or the fulfillment of its international commitments are under grave and immediate threat and when the proper functioning of the constitutional governmental authorities is interrupted, the President of the Republic shall take the measures demanded by these circumstances after official consultation with the Prime Minister, the presidents of the Assemblies, and the Constitutional Council. He shall inform the nation of these measures by a message. Article 36 of the Constitution is concerned with the state of siege (in French), which can be decreed by the President in the Council of Ministers for a period of twelve days which can only be extended with the approval of the Parliament. A state of siege may be declared in case of an "imminent peril resulting from a foreign war [*guerre*

¹⁸Basic Law for the Federal Republic of Germany from 8 may 1949. (online). [cit. 23.5.2019]. Available at: <https://www.bundesregierung.de/breg-en/chancellor/basic-law-470510>.

étrangère] or an armed insurrection (*une insurrection à main armée*). Article 36 of the Constitution is concerned with the state of siege which can be decreed by the President in the Council of Ministers for a period of twelve days which can only be extended with the approval of the Parliament. A state of siege may be declared in case of an "imminent peril resulting from a foreign war [*guerre étrangère*] or armed insurrection (*une insurrection à main armée*) In the event of its introduction, the right of access to the competent court is suspended, as the competence of common courts in matters of state security is transferred to military courts, regardless of whether they are soldiers or civilians¹⁹. Fundamental liberties may be restricted during that time, such as the right of association, legalization of searches in private places day and night, the power to expel people who have been condemned for common law matters or people who do not have the right of residence in the territory. The introduction of the extraordinary state, however, does not allow to limit basic rights such as dignity, freedom, equality, or the prohibition of discrimination, irrespective of a certain legal characteristic.

In Lithuania the state of emergency is also regulated in the Constitution²⁰. According to the art. 84 p. 17 of the Constitution : The President shall declare a state of emergency according to the procedure and in cases established by law and present this decision for approval at the next sitting of the Seimas. The constitutional legislator then emphasizes that when a threat arises to the constitutional system or social peace in the State, the Seimas may declare a state of emergency throughout the territory of the State or in any part thereof. The period of the state of emergency shall not exceed six months. In cases of urgency, between sessions of the Seimas, the President of the Republic shall have the right to adopt a decision on the state of emergency and convene an extraordinary session of the Seimas for the consideration of this issue. The Seimas shall approve or overrule the decision of the President of the Republic. The state of emergency shall be regulated by law (art. 144 of the Constitution). The matter of protection of the individual's rights and freedoms is regulated, however, in art. 145 of the Constitution, which introduces an absolute prohibition of derogations from certain rights even during the state of emergency. At the same time Constitution defines rights and freedoms that can be temporarily limited. The right to privacy, the confidentiality of correspondence, the right to inviolability of the place of residence, the right to freedom of expression and expression, the right to free movement, right to freely forms societies, political parties, and associations, the right to create

¹⁹Prokop K., *Modele stanu nadzwyczajnego (Emergency models)*, Białystok, 2012, 151.

²⁰ The Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania from 25 October 1992. (online). [cit. 26.5.2019]. Available at: http://www.servat.unibe.ch/icl/lh00000_.html.

and participate in peaceful unarmed meetings may be restricted.²¹. However, it should be noted that according to article 48 of the Constitution -forced labour shall be prohibited- but „military service or alternative service performed in place of military service as well as citizens’ work in time of war, natural disaster, epidemics, or other extreme cases shall not be considered forced labour”. Besides, in the Constitution (art 111) the creation of special (with extraordinary powers) courts is specifically prohibited, with the exception of martial law. Those thing could be done by suspending the validity of certain norms of respective laws. The Constitution does not provide for any other cases of suspension of the law.

It should be noted that in the in the jurisprudence of the Lithuanian Constitutional Court the view was expressed that „the validity of restrictions of a fundamental right or freedom should be assessed by the criteria of common sense and those of evident necessity, it must be in compliance with the concept and requirements of justice and the possibilities and conditions of its restriction established in the Constitution”²². Any restriction of fundamental rights and freedoms is to be linked with the rational relation guaranteeing that by the limitations the essence of respective human right be not violated²³.

PROTECTION OF HUMAN RIGHTS IN POLAND DURING THE EXTRAORDINARY STATES

In Poland, the matter related to the establishment of extraordinary states has also been broadly regulated in the Constitution²⁴ . According to the art. 228 part 1 of the Constitution in situations of particular danger, if ordinary constitutional measures are inadequate, any of the following appropriate extraordinary measures may be introduced: martial law, a state of emergency or a state of natural disaster. Part 2 of the same article states that Extraordinary measures may be introduced only by regulation, issued upon the basis of statute, and which shall additionally require to be publicized. Interestingly enough in part constitutional legislator state that the principles for activity by organs of public authority as well as the degree to which

²¹ The freedom to have convictions may not be restricted in any way, while the freedom to express convictions may be restricted under the procedure provided for by the law and only in cases when it is necessary to protect the values pointed out in part 3 of art 25 of the Constitution, i.e., the health, honour and dignity, private life and morals of the person, or the constitutional order.

²² The Lithuanian Constitutional Court Ruling from 13 February 1997, case no. 6/96-10/96.

²³ Greicius M., States of emergency and fundamental rights : Lithuania Perspective, Comparing Constitutional Adjudication A Summer School on Comparative Interpretation of European Constitutional Jurisprudence, (online). [cit. 27.5.2019]. Available at: <http://www.jus.unitn.it/cocoa/papers/PAPERS%204TH%20PDF/Emergency%20Lithuania%20Greicius.pdf>.

²⁴ Constitution of the Republic of Poland of April 2, 1997 (Dz. U. of 1997, no. 78, item 483.).

the freedoms and rights of persons and citizens may be subject to limitation for the duration of a period requiring any extraordinary measures shall be established by statute. From the perspective of the discussed issue, the analysis of art 233 is particularly interesting. 233 of the Constitution. Above mentioned article in part 1 states that: The statute specifying the scope of limitation of the freedoms and rights of persons and citizens in times of martial law and states of emergency shall not limit the freedoms and rights specified in Article 30 (the dignity of the person), Article 34 and Article 36 (citizenship), Article 38 (protection of life), Article 39, Article 40 and Article 41, par.4 (human treatment), Article 42 (ascription of criminal responsibility), Article 45 (access to a court), Article 47 (personal rights), Article 53 (conscience and religion), Article 63 (petitions), as well as Article 48 and Article 72 (family and children). The consequence of recognition of these freedoms and rights as not subject to restrictions due to martial law or state of emergency is not the prohibition of any limitation²⁵. The ordinary rules for limiting these rights and freedoms provided for in Article 31 par. 3²⁶ of the Constitution and, possibly, the rules provided for in specific provisions regarding individual freedoms and rights (eg Article 53 (5) of the Constitution²⁷) . However, it is unacceptable to violate the essence of those freedoms and rights.

From the field of view, however, it should not be lost that art. 233 in par. 2 has significant legislative defects that raise serious doubts in the interpretation process. According to art. 233 par. 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland, it is unacceptable to limit the freedom and rights of a person and a citizen solely on the basis of race, sex, language, religion or lack of it, social origin, birth and property. This is undoubtedly a special regulation for art. 32 par. 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland prohibiting discrimination irrespective of a certain legal jurisdiction²⁸. As B. Banaszak points out, this is a solution similar to the solutions adopted on the ground of the relevant provisions binding on Poland treaties (Article 4 point 1 of the

²⁵ Safjan M. , Bosek L., Remarks to the art. 233 of the Constitution. In Safjan M., Bosek. L. (Eds.). Constitution of the Republic of Poland. Commentary, Warsaw, 2016, Legalis.

²⁶ According to the art. 31 par. 3 of the Constitution Any limitation upon the exercise of constitutional freedoms and rights may be imposed only by statute, and only when necessary in a democratic state for the protection of its security or public order, or to protect the natural environment, health or public morals, or the freedoms and rights of other persons. Such limitations shall not violate the essence of freedoms and rights.

²⁷ According to the art. 53 par. 5 of the Constitution: The freedom to publicly express religion may be limited only by means of statute and only where this is necessary for the defence of State security, public order, health, morals or the freedoms and rights of others.

²⁸ Safjan M. , Bosek L., Remarks to the art. 233 of the Constitution. In Safjan M., Bosek. L. (Eds.). Constitution of the Republic of Poland. Commentary, Warsaw, 2016, Legalis.

ICCPR)²⁹. In the author's opinion, however, this solution can not be regarded as fully correct. As noted by M. Safjan and L. Bosek, the prohibition of discrimination under art. 233 par. 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland is generally applicable to the restriction of freedoms and rights under martial law and the state of emergency. Therefore, it concerns both freedoms and rights “derogable” as well as freedoms and rights indicated in art. 233 par. 1 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland, which may be limited only on general principles defined primarily in art. 31 par. 3 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland³⁰. However, it cannot be forgotten that in every case of the legislator's interference it becomes necessary to demonstrate that the protected rights and rights “should not be noticeably lower than the rights and freedoms in which the interference occurs”, which is tantamount to adopting the principle according to which “test proportionality would amount in this approach to indicating a bundle of rights (freedoms) that would be protected by entering into other constitutional rights (freedoms).”

The author fully shares the view presented by Mariusz Jabłoński that “The author fully shares the view presented by Mariusz Jabłoński that “The catalog of freedoms and personal rights adopted in the Constitution of the Republic of Poland is not complete, for example the omission of the cardinal law of the right to legal personality or freedom from slavery and servitude. The assumption that legalization could be legalized (even statutory) of suspension or limitation seems to be a misunderstanding: regardless of the situation and the intensification of threats (dangers), it would be unacceptable to act that respects the kind of actions taken by the authorities public or other entities or people”³¹. As Bartosz Opaliński points out, “even absolute freedoms and rights (*ius cogens*), which are not mentioned in Article 233 (1) of the Constitution, during martial law gain a relative character (*ius dispositivum*)”³². This is, in the author's opinion, an approach contrary to the directives resulting from the provisions of the European Convention on Human Rights. This view is not fully approved in doctrine. K. Complak emphasizes that “[constitution] when determining the scope of freedoms and rights that can not be restricted during the course of emergency states, it extends them beyond a reasonable measure. The

²⁹ Banaszak B, Remarks to the art. 233 of the Polish Constitution. In B. Banaszak (Eds.). Constitution of the Republic of Poland. Commentary, Warsaw, 2012, Legalis.

³⁰ Safjan M., Bosek L., Remarks to the art. 233 of the Constitution. In Safjan M., Bosek L. (Eds.). Constitution of the Republic of Poland. Commentary, Warsaw, 2016, Legalis.

³¹ Jabłoński M., Ograniczenie konstytucyjnych wolności i praw osobistych w czasie trwania stanów nadzwyczajnych (Limitation of constitutional freedoms and personal rights during emergency states), Przegląd Prawa i Administracji 2016, 106, 180-192.

³² Opaliński B, Stan wojenny we współczesnym porządku prawnym (Martial law in the modern legal order), Przegląd Prawa Publicznego 2011, 7-8, 65-86.

essence of all emergency states is the possibility of depriving people of freedom only on the basis of suspicion. Such decisions are decided by the organs of the executive branch. Without this possibility, overcoming the state of emergency is impossible or significantly hampered. Here, it is enough to quote the US Constitution, which allows for the possibility of suspending the judicial control of arrest during the rebellion or invasion. This is a manifestation of the general principle expressed in the Latin *inter armist silent leges bonus*³³.

However, it does not seem that the establishment of a closed catalog of rights legally protected against discrimination was a correct solution, both in fact and in law. The list of reasons for discrimination will suggest that there is no protection of sexual orientation there, and moreover, very doubtful concepts have been used, for example: birth, race. It can therefore be concluded that discrimination against people was allowed because of nationality, political beliefs, lifestyle, especially in the sexual sphere³⁴. This is particularly wrongful considering the wording of art. 32 par. 2 of the Constitution, as well as the fact that equality, besides dignity and freedom, is a fundamental social value. It should therefore be subject to special protection, regardless of the existing situation in the country. An analogous approach is contained in art. 14 ECHR. The order for equal treatment (referred to as the prohibition of discrimination) is here referred to as "the exercise of rights and freedoms listed in the Convention". Whereas Protocol No. 12 (entered into force in 2005, but not yet ratified by Poland), adopted a general prohibition of discrimination and referred it to "every entitlement established by law", both by national and international law. There are no axiological and equity grounds to discriminate against people with a different sexual orientation or disability. Even during the emergency. One may even put forward the opposite thesis that in this period persons with disabilities require special care and care on the part of the state, because they are often not able to function independently and perform basic activities of everyday life. The regulations adopted by the Polish constitutional legislator should be critically assessed. They are contrary to both the European Convention on Human Rights and art. 32 par. 2 of the Constitution of the Republic of Poland. As it was mentioned at the beginning, the Convention introduced strictly defined conditions to fulfill a derogation in each case. Article 15 of the Convention gives the authorities wide discretion to decide on the nature and scope of the derogation measures necessary to reverse such a danger. In the first place, it is up to each state - which is responsible for the life

³³Complak K., Remarks to the art. 233 of the Polish Constitution. In Haczkowska M. (Eds.). *The Constitution of the Republic of Poland. Commentary*, Warsaw, 2014, LEX.

³⁴ *Ibidem*.

of the nation - to assess whether it is threatened by "public danger", and if so - how far should you go to try to stave off it. The Court stressed that due to direct and constant contact with the current urgent needs of the country, its authorities are generally better prepared than the international judge to decide on the existence of such a danger and the limits of the necessary derogations³⁵.

The freedom of the authorities is not absolute, however. It is at the ECtHR's opinion whether the State has not gone beyond the 'strictly appropriate to the requirements of the situation'. The freedom of the national authorities is therefore accompanied by supervision by the ECHR. In its conduct, the Court must take due account of such relevant factors as the nature of the rights with a derogation, the circumstances and the duration of the situation considered to be public danger³⁶. Especially when the measure leading to the waiver of obligations relates to the fundamental right of the Convention, such as the right to liberty, the Tribunal must be convinced that it was a genuine response to the threat and was fully justified on account of special circumstances and adequate safeguards against abuse³⁷. Evaluation from the perspective of art. 15 of the Convention should primarily focus on the general situation in a given country. It is necessary to examine the measures envisaged within the framework of derogations which, either directly or indirectly, relate to rights and freedoms regulated in the Convention. The assessment of the existing threat to the nation will become particularly important in such a situation. The test carried out at the outset may be based on the assessment that the measures in question were unjustified. This may happen when the measures are discriminatory against specific individuals on specific matters³⁸. The constituent element of the introduced restrictions is the need to issue an appropriate statement in which the State Party, determine the rights and freedoms that are derogated and indicate the territory of this derogation. The violation of this obligation was evident in Turkey in the case of *Sakik v. Turkey*, in which the Tribunal considered that it would be contrary to the object and purpose of art. 15 of the Convention if, when defining the limits of the use of a derogation, it extended it to parts of the country not specifically mentioned in the government statement³⁹.

It seems, therefore, that it is impossible to regard discrimination as a propriety on the basis of such characteristics as sexual orientation and disability. In particular, that according to

³⁵ Verdict of ECHR from 19 February 2009 in case *A. and others v. Great Britain*, case no. 3455/05, § 173.

³⁶ Verdict of ECHR from 26 May 1993 in case *Brannigan and McBride v. The United Kingdom*, case no. 14553/89.

³⁷ Verdict of ECHR from 18 February 2009 in case *A. and others v. Great Britain*, case no. 3455/05.

³⁸ *Ibidem*.

³⁹ Verdict of ECHR from 26 November 1997 in case *Sakik v. Turkey*, case no. RJD 1997-VII, § 39.

ECHR jurisprudence, the derogation of certain rights and freedoms should always be justified, but there is no rational basis for considering that such deregulation is consistent with the objectives of the Convention and the basic principles of human rights. Even considering the wide scope of the margin of appreciation concept.

CONCLUSIONS

A state of emergency derives from a governmental declaration made in response to an extraordinary situation posing a fundamental threat to the country. The declaration may suspend certain normal functions of government, may alert citizens to alter their normal behavior, or may authorize government agencies to implement emergency preparedness plans as well as to limit or suspend civil liberties and human rights. The protection of individual rights and freedoms during emergency states is mainly regulated in the constitutional and statutory acts of individual states. Constitutional regulations in Lithuania and Poland seem to be particularly wide in this respect. While the constitutional regulations in Lithuania indicate many exceptions that allow limiting rights and freedoms during extra-ordinary conditions, they do not, in the author's opinion, raise major catastrophes. In Poland, however, it is a particularly controversial matter. In particular regarding the literal admission of discrimination against people on the basis of such legally relevant features as disability or sexual orientation during, eg, martial law. Having regard to the directives resulting from art. 15 of the Convention, as well as ECHR jurisprudence, it seems that this is a completely inappropriate solution and requires changing as soon as possible.

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REQUIREMENTS FOR THE PREPARATION OF AN ELECTRONIC FORM OF AN ARTICLE

Unedited articles are being published in a periodical reviewed publication “Public Security and Order”. The content of such articles associates with various aspects of public security. Original, topical and corresponding the requirements articles can be placed in CEPOL data basis according to the recommendations of editorial board.

The article should identify the purpose of the scholarly analysis, its object and methods and prior coverage of the issue. It should include research results, conclusions and the list of sources. The article should be reviewed by two members of an editorial board or other two selected reviewers.

The article should comply with the following structure:

1. Title.
2. Author, an institution the author is representing, its address, email.
3. A detailed summary (at least 600 symbols) in the language the article is written in. The summary should briefly present the content of the article, identify the issues analyzed, and should include the basic 4-5 keywords).
4. Introduction. It should address the topicality of the topic of the article, identify the purpose of the scholarly analysis, its object and method and prior coverage of the issue.
5. The main text should include the analysis proper. It is recommended to divide the text into parts and subparts (e.g.1.2.1.,2.2.1., etc.).
6. The article should be finalized with substantiated conclusions and recommendations.
7. The list of sources should include all sources referred to in the article. It should comply with the following structure: firstly, the primary legal sources in a hierarchical order (i.e. Constitution, laws, by-laws, etc.), followed by case law. This should be followed by scholarly writings listed in an alphabetical order, and other sources (http://www.mruni.eu/mru_lt_dokumentai/mokslo_darbai/jurisprudencija/rules_on_citation_and_bibliography.doc).
8. If an article is published in Lithuanian, it should be followed with a detailed summary and keywords in English. If an article is written in a language other than Lithuanian, the summary should be in Lithuanian and should contain the same information as identified above. The summaries should be at least one page long, i.e. approximately 2400 symbols.

References should be made in footnotes, numbered consecutively in Arabic numbers. The manuscript should be 1.5 spaced on one side of an A4 list paper, margins 25 mm. The article should be no longer than 18 pages.

Pictures, schemes, diagrams and tables should be presented in a separate CD. The width of the pictures, schemes, diagrams, tables should be 84 mm or 175 mm. They may be presented in the following formats: Tagged Image Format File (TIFF), Word for Windows, Corel Draw, Excel. Text editor – Microsoft Word.

An article should be reviewed by at least two scholars, specializing in the area relating to the topic of an article. At least one of them should be from a different institution than Mykolas Romeris University. A faculty or department opinion concerning the scholarly value of an article and the need to publish it, its topicality should be attached.

Articles have to be presented to the managing editor: by April 1 (for the first edition of the year) by October 1 (for the second edition of the year).

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