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CONTENTS

From the Editor	3
<i>Radosław Rybkowski</i> University Experience as Community Building	4
<i>Stefan Jarolimek</i> Being Good, Doing Good... and Telling People How Good You Are. A Definitional Construct as a Basis for Comparative Studies	14
<i>Rihards Bambals</i> Seven Faces of Security: Applying the Human Security Concept to Disaster Research	33
<i>Inga Jekabsone, Biruta Sloka</i> Provision of Principles of Sustainability, Collaboration and Networking in Communities: the Approbation of Methodology for the Assessment of Well-being	50
<i>Jānis Kubilis</i> Main Issues Regarding Modernisation of Tort Law in Latvia	63
<i>Tatjana Ivanova, Mārīte Saulīte, Rudīte Andersone</i> Podology Education in Latvia and European Union: a Comparative Study	79
<i>Lolita Šteinberga</i> Possibilities of Animation Use in Education	98
<i>Alexander Tarvid</i> PhD Degree in Latvia: Individual's Internal Need or Demand from Labour Market?	109
The Authors	122

FROM THE EDITOR

Dear Reader,

This is the final issue for 2014 and we expect to be able to publish the next issue in spring-summer 2015.

This issue is somewhat different from previous issues in that we are publishing papers from an international conference held in Rīga earlier this year. The conference “World in Change: from Consumption to Sustainability, from Competition to Collaboration, from Hierarchy to Networks, from being Good to Doing Good” was dedicated to the 12th Anniversary of SYLFF (The Ryoichi Sasakawa Young Leaders Fellowship Fund) at the University of Latvia.

The Ryoichi Sasakawa Young Leaders Fellowship Fund is a fellowship programme initiated in 1987 in Japan to support students pursuing graduate studies in humanities and social sciences disciplines. To date, endowments of \$1 million each have been presented to 69 universities and consortia in 44 countries. The SYLFF programme is inspired by the vision of the late Ryoichi Sasakawa, philanthropist and founding chairman of The Nippon Foundation that “The world is one family and all mankind are brothers and sisters.” Details about the programme can be found at: http://www.tokyofoundation.org/sylff/about/what_is_sylff#sthash.lFSiwpsf.dpuf

The authors are both PhD students and established academics. The articles are a very heterogeneous set and cover a number of fields in the social sciences.

Some good news for potential authors: Humanities & Social Sciences Latvia has entered into an electronic licensing relationship with EBSCO Information Services, the world’s most prolific aggregator of full text journals, magazines and other sources. The full text of the journal will be found on EBSCO’s academic databases within the coming months. We are already in the Index Copernicus International.

We hope you enjoy this issue and are looking forward to the next issue.

Best wishes

Viesturs Pauls Karnups
General Editor

UNIVERSITY EXPERIENCE AS COMMUNITY BUILDING

Radosław Rybkowski

Dr. phil.

Abstract

The first European universities were founded in the Middle Ages and the historic experience still plays an important role in defining the missions of modern higher education institutions. The British scholar, Ronald Barnett, presents an analysis of the stages of university development: from metaphysical institution, described by close ties with the church, to modern university: an entrepreneurial and bureaucratic institution. Although inspired by the tradition, 21st century universities have to redefine their role in educating students and preparing their alumni to face challenges of the modern world. Extracurricular activities, such as the SYLFF program at the Jagiellonian University, help to test student's abilities and to build long-lasting social networks, necessary for a successful job career and public service.

Keywords: higher education, university, alumni, networking, economy, policy

Setting the Context

The university is one of just two surviving and still thriving institutions that already existed in Europe in the Middle Ages; the only other institution being Roman Catholic Church. The long history of European higher education is the reason why tradition is so important at any university. Even young schools tend to establish new traditions or quite often to borrow them from much older institutions. Tradition is not only reflected in university gowns, customs and celebrations; all universities and colleges refer to history in defining their mission (Barnett, 2010; Perkin, 1997; Thelin, 2004).

As Marek Kwiek points out, "traditions, values and norms play a great role in higher education" and traditional understanding of higher education in the 21st century should be preserved (2010). In a broader social context, colleges and universities are unique agents in reproducing socio-cultural system by teaching expected behaviours and attitudes new generations of the youth. At the very same time, colleges and universities are the agents of transformation by exploring and testing new ideas (Stevens, 2007; Rybkowski, 2013).

New challenges of the 21st century such as globalisation, marketization and entrepreneurialism pose problems for higher education institutions.

Reproduction and transformation are no longer processes that affect only students; they affect colleges and universities themselves. Institutions of higher education perform various roles in modern societies and economies; they produce, enhance and disseminate knowledge; they educate and train well-skilled workers; and they provide complex services (i.e.: medical care, cultural and sport events) (Bowen, 1977; Kwiek, 2013).

Modern universities, especially large research-oriented ones, have become important centres of innovation that stimulate the economic progress of regions and nations. The shift toward research-oriented approach has been recently investigated and described in many publications, both by scholars and by international and national organisations (e.g. Santiago, Tremblay, Basri and Arnal, 2008; Kwiek, 2010; 2013). While understanding the role of research, one should not forget the traditional target group of higher education institutions (HEIs): students. The role of education is “*to change students in both the cognitive and affective aspects of their personalities and to prepare them for practical affairs*” (Bowen, 1977, p. 7). The definition provided by Howard Bowen describes not only the students, but also those that completed the education: alumni.

The outcomes of university activity are not only new discoveries and technology, but first of all the alumni. In the times of change the importance of alumni for societies and economies should be reconsidered. To provide a better understanding of alumni this article starts with a concise presentation of the stages of university development, culminating in the recent paradigm of an entrepreneurial and bureaucratic university. The evolution of higher education redefined the role of alumni in the educational process and in socio-economic life. The time spent during undergraduate studies is the formative moment in the life of young people. The college/university experience plays a vital role in creating social networks that can last for decades. The community of graduates, proud of their alma mater, still represents a topic calling for further research.

Stages of University Development

Ronald Barnett in his book, *Being a University*, provides an interesting overview of university history, emphasising the changing role it has played in society. The first European HEIs were founded as “metaphysical universities”. The core activity of those schools reflected the principal question of medieval people: the mystery of God. Early universities focused on exploring religious, transcendental issues. The answers to the most important questions could not be provided through scientific experiments, on the contrary—meditation and acceptance of higher authority could have led to illumination as the source of reliable knowledge (Barnett, 2010).

Although at its beginning the university had close ties with religion and to some extent was protected by special privileges granted by the Holy See (Perkin, 1997; Ritzen, 2010); the progress of science, the Reformation and growing rationality loosened the connections with the Roman Catholic Church. The members of academia became more interested in exploring the forces of nature than the nature of unexplored mysteries of God. The university as the safe harbour for not mere thinkers, but researchers and explorers started to play an important role in political and economic plans. Since the late 18th century the university was no longer metaphysical as it entered a new “scientific university” stage (Rothblatt, 2007, Rybkowski, 2012).

A science and research-oriented university very soon proved to be an institution very useful in political plans. University reforms in Germany, France, Great Britain and the United States at the beginning of the 20th century resulted not only in the further progress of science. The results of scientific discoveries had a direct impact on the economy. Governments noticed the importance of the higher education system and started to employ university resources (human and material) in securing social and economic development. However, the context of the university, the environment in which it was operating, had changed: it was no longer the one and only institution that was able to conduct sophisticated research (it could be done by industry itself), and governments had to use scarce resources to fund various public services. Thus, the university lost its privileged position in society and was forced to compete for financial support and to capitalise its discoveries. At the moment of such changes an “entrepreneurial university” emerged (Barnett, 2010).

The entrepreneurial university had to notice the existence of various external stakeholders and had to accept the idea of closer co-operation with business. “The movement toward university-business partnership tends to delimit them [universities] as emphasizing a distinct mission–entrepreneurialism–rather than examining how the influence of corporatization cuts across university missions” (St. John, Daun-Barnett and Moronski-Chapman, 2013, p. 31). The university authorities and administration had to accept business-oriented managerial strategies because it was required by government, still the most important source of financial support. The government also noticed the role of entrepreneurialism and looked for solutions that could make the university not only a useful institution, but also be incorporated into a broader public policy context (OECD, 2004).

The university has become far too important institution to be left completely independent. The state and government has to make plans and to control the results of implemented decisions. Evaluating and

controlling has also become an important feature of contemporary public policies. The activities of universities, which are now an integral part of state (and global) economy, must be well-planned and later evaluated and controlled. This recent requirement has resulted in the creation of a “bureaucratic university”. Being a vital tool of state public policy has its costs for academia. These are not only the universities themselves to be measured and accounted. All research and teaching staff of HEIs have also to play some role in such bureaucratic machinery: the professors have to plan their actions, to apply and compete for money and to be accountable for the results achieved (Barnett, 2014).

Towards a “McUniversity”?

The call for a rigorously accountable university was also connected with the new approach to public policy that started in the 1980s and culminated in the New Public Management (NPM) approach. NPM ideology conceptualised students as customers of HEIs and the HEIs themselves as clients of a broader sector of public services. Students became a kind of ultimate product of higher education and the employability of which was laid down at the core of assessing the attractiveness and importance of various higher education systems (Kwiek, 2013). NPM was further sponsored by international organisations such as the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) and the World Bank (WB).

OECD and WB reports reflect the neo-liberal approach to higher education. It is considered to be an inevitable investment necessary for reducing poverty and stimulating sustainable economic growth. As one of the reports says, the “improvement in human capital seems to be a common factor behind the growth process of the past decades in all OECD countries, but especially so in Italy, Greece, Ireland and Spain where the increase in human capital accounted for more than half a percentage point acceleration in growth in the 1990s with respect to the previous decade” (OECD, 2000, p. 145). However, with both students and HEIs themselves treated as customers, both international organisations suggest applying free market rules to higher education systems.

The new policy framework on the one hand emphasises and on the other redefines the role of the university. Since “virtually every industrial country is moving to make university-industry links a centrepiece of its innovation systems, and the notion of a triple helix-representing the symbiotic relations yoking together the government, the universities, and the business community”, the main task of a modern government is to set the long-term goals of higher education and to adopt regulations assuring

a healthy level of competition among colleges and universities (Yusuf and Nabeshima, 2007).

An ultimate result of a combination of NPM approach in public policy and a bureaucratic university is the concept of the “McDonaldisation” of higher education. As George Ritzer explains, a “McUniversity” is not just an institution providing cheap education of poor quality. The main characteristic of such a “McUniversity” is the measurable effectiveness of every university activity. A higher education that is fully measurable, accountable, and predictable would be the realisation of the dreams of many governments. But the author of the “McDonaldisation” thesis warns: “To survive as a means of consumption, the university must learn from the highly successful cathedrals of consumption and find ways of becoming more spectacular. However, while the cathedrals of consumption focus on grand, colossal, and superficial spectacles, the university cannot take this direction” (Ritzer, 2002, p. 31).

Many years before Ritzer’s book, Howard Bowen analysed the public-private mix of higher education outcomes. According to Bowen, higher education itself is too complex to be reduced to bureaucratic machinery. He claimed that there are three fundamental functions of every university and other institutions of higher education. These main functions are:

“Education, research, and public service. Education as here defined includes both the curricular and extracurricular influences on students. Its purpose is to change students in both the cognitive and affective aspects of their personalities and to prepare them for practical affairs. Research, broadly defined, includes the scholarly, scientific, philosophical, and cultural activities of colleges and universities, as well as their creative contributions to the arts. The purpose of research is to preserve, acquire, disseminate, interpret, and apply knowledge, and to cultivate creative frontiers in arts and sciences. The clientele includes students, professional peers, various groups (such as government, business, farmers, labour unions, professional practitioners), and the general public. The public service activities include health care, consulting, off-campus lectures and courses, work performed by interns, artistic performances and exhibits, spectator sports, and so on” (Bowen, 1977, p. 8).

For many years, researchers, authorities and university officials have been focusing on the first two functions of academic institutions: education and research. *Public service*, the third of the functions of university pointed out by Bowen, has been rather neglected in investigations on higher education, partially because it is hard to estimate its value. Fortunately, this omission is no longer the case. As early as in 2010, the OECD in its report, “*Education at a Glance 2010. OECD Indicators*” noticed that in

“current calculations the public returns are underestimated”. Moreover, it concluded that “education may play an important role in ensuring social cohesion by fostering the cognitive skills, self-efficacy and resilience that underlie social and political interaction” (OECD, 2010, pp. 137 and 154).

Towards New Understanding of University Alumni

Walter McMahon in his book *Higher Learning, Greater Good* analysed the benefits of higher education of various types and tried to apply economic terms to measure them. According to McMahon, alumni play a key role in assessing the impact of higher education. The alumni represent diverse groups and have a multidimensional impact on the state, society, and economy. It is the alumni, not students, which are skilled workers, creative professionals, sensible and reasonable consumers, and engaged citizens involved in various social and political activities (McMahon, 2010).

The graduates of colleges and universities represent the most mobile group of society. Often they have skills in demand in other regions of the world and they are characterised by better language skills and entrepreneurial attitudes. These are the reason why they more easily decide to migrate nationally or internationally. For the alumni, the decision to move is easier because they have already established connections necessary to start a successful job career in a new place. Unfortunately, as McMahon notices, the actual size of such geographic externalities has never been rigorously investigated (2004).

Growing appreciation of alumni is sometimes accompanied by narrow visions of their importance. The widely discussed the UK Browne Report, *Securing a Sustainable Future for Higher Education*, perceives the alumni only as the source of possible “gifts to their institutions” and concludes that “a more widespread culture of giving will allow institutions to build up significant private funds that they can use either to support the quality of teaching or to improve financial aid or outreach for students from low income backgrounds” (Browne, 2010, p. 42). The earlier report of the OECD of the very same title and, examining the same problems, also sees the alumni only in the context of their possible giving to their alma mater (OECD, 2004).

On the other hand, American scholars, that have a long tradition of researching higher education, have already affirmed that universities should not treat the alumni only as the source of extra income. The fundamental issue is to build long-lasting relations and to facilitate networking among alumni themselves. As Jennifer Specter found in her research (based on the examination of the University of Delaware), a higher education institution must engage alumni in numerous ways. This secures “multiple avenues of

connectivity for 21st century alumni in ways that matter to them” (Specter, 2012, p. 67). Experiencing various forms of engagement during the college or university education plays a crucial role in building networks that last longer than the time of studies (Weerts, Cabrera and Sanford, 2010).

Even Howard Bowen in his publications emphasised that higher education should not be reduced to the organised classes. Extracurricular activities are equally important, especially if education is perceived not only as a sophisticated job training (Bowen, 1977). In 1987, thanks to a grant from the Tokyo Foundation, the Jagiellonian University (JU) joined the family of SYLFF (Sasakawa Young Leaders Fellowship Fund) institutions. The extra money the Jagiellonian University obtained made it possible to sponsor a new type of research-oriented extracurricular activity of M.A. and Ph.D. students. Since its founding, more than 240 fellows from the JU received SYLFF fellowships. Right from the very beginnings it was suggested (although not formally required) that the grantee should visit other SYLFF institutions with the aim of establishing stronger ties with colleagues that enjoyed similar type of support.

The description of SYLFF at the JU highlights the importance of social engagement of applicants:

The program objective is to support education of graduate and doctoral students who possess high potential as leaders in public life. A special emphasis is placed on practical implementation of the candidate's project related to the fellowship. Fellowships are granted to outstanding candidates in the field of humanities and social studies, as well as in law, economy and management studies (JU, 2014).

The aim of SYLFF at the JU is to help to build the community of engaged people that understand the challenges and needs of modern world. Former fellows of the fund experienced the importance of collaboration with people of similar perception of core problems in public life. SYLFF at the JU is the proof that students involved in extracurricular activities are eager to retain their engagement even after graduation. In 2006, a group of former fellows established an independent association: the Jagiellonian University SYLFF Fellows Association (JUSFA), with the main goal of promoting international understanding and supporting the initiatives of Tokyo Foundation (Rybkowski, 2007). Both SYLFF at the JU and JUSFA prove that education should not be a passive consumption of knowledge. Student engagement during studies, especially assisted by the university, prepares engaged citizens not only skilled workers. From the long-term perspective of national (and global) goals this is the most effective way to resolve social and political problems.

The Polish regulations concerning the national higher education system, the *Law on Higher Education*, enumerates the principal mandatory objectives of higher education institutions. Some of these objectives are rather obvious such as: “providing education which enables students to acquire and advance their knowledge, as well as gain competencies necessary for professional life” or “conducting research and development activities, and providing research services”. There is, however, one point closely connected with the idea of educating engaged alumni-citizens. According to the *Law on Higher Education*, Polish HEIs shall foster “through education a spirit of responsibility for the Polish State, the consolidation of democratic principles and a respect for human rights” (2014).

The “spirit of responsibility” cannot be achieved through the mere delivering of lectures and organising in-class discussions during college and university education. In the 21st century universities, at least Polish universities are thus obliged to assist the extracurricular activities of students because the “spirit of responsibility” is not a matter of theory, but of everyday practice.

Conclusions

Barnett suggests that the university of the future can be described as an “ecological university”. Ecology here does not mean simply a care for the natural environment. The ecological university is a space of networking; the aim of such a university is to provide connections between truth and knowledge, between knowledge and economic development, and between tradition and modernisation. Such a university becomes a bridge that connects people caring for the future; the university becomes a network-facilitator and the place of stimulating and enhancing student engagement (Barnett, 2010).

Moreover, a community of engaged student/alumni is not only a vital human resource for coping with the social challenges of modern world. As the study of the Polish scholar, Krzysztof Wach, proves, even entrepreneurial education cannot be fruitful when it is based on theory only. The students have to test their abilities and experience their drawbacks. The college experience is also the time for establishing networks of personal connections that are the conditions of any successful business (Wach, 2007). So, the university as an educational institution should not only organise classes, but provide enough space and support for building a community of engaged people.

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BEING GOOD, DOING GOOD... AND TELLING PEOPLE HOW GOOD YOU ARE. A DEFINITIONAL CONSTRUCT AS A BASIS FOR COMPARATIVE STUDIES

Stefan Jarolimek

Dr. phil.

Abstract

This article describes Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) communications as a tool of corporate self-presentation, as well as the forms of public discourse regarding a corporation's engagement in an organisational field. Numerous studies show evidence that corporations understand the term CSR very differently. Studies concerning public discourse, (for example, CSR in the news media), show varying results. Measuring the quantity and quality of CSR communications seems to be a challenge for methodology. This article proposes an analytical definition of CSR communication for academic research. CSR communication is seen as a latent construct with three indicators. The practicability of this approach is tested by CSR-reports and articles in newspapers for one organisation. The value of the approach for (international and intercultural) comparative studies, as well as its limitations will be discussed.

Keywords: CSR communication, sustainability, methodology, comparative studies, Deutsche Bank, Germany

Introduction

Responsibility and sustainability have become a core element in public debates regarding corporations. Driven by transnationalisation and globalisation (Scherer and Palazzo 2006), the concept of corporate social responsibility (CSR) spread from the U.S. to Australia and the Member States of the European Union and, in recent years, to East European and Asian countries. In recent years, CSR communications have developed to become a crucial element of corporate communications. Today, nearly all transnational corporations (TNCs) communicate their CSR engagement.

Organisational communication research focused on these self-presentations in recent years. Many studies regarding CSR focused on cultural differences in CSR and CSR-communication in single countries (e.g. Golob and Bartlett 2007; Chaple and Moon 2005; Chen and Bouvain 2009; Lock and Seele 2010; Maignan and Ralston 2002). The studies gave

a picture of a corporation's self-presentations in different countries – and different cultures. The author will argue that the meaning of CSR in practice is dependent on single conceptions for each corporation in different countries. Furthermore, analyses of public CSR communications show various understandings of how organisations use the term and various (implicit) forms of CSR communication.

But CSR is not only communicated by corporations. CSR engagement is also discussed and advocated by other societal actors like NGOs, competitors, or news media in an organisational field. To put it in a nutshell: there is firstly CSR engagement from corporations and secondly CSR communications from and about a corporation that are discussed in public sphere. But little has yet been done about the specific *public* communication of CSR. While the number of studies concerning self-presentations increases, there is a research gap where CSR representation in journalism is concerned. The challenge is at least methodological, because CSR communication is more implicit than explicit (at least in news media). But to get a clear idea of the structure of CSR communications in public sphere, one needs both: a corporation's self-presentation and news media. Especially when CSR communication is not considered as limited to strategic economic-political reasons, but is seen as a task for the society as a whole. The author therefore focusses on a societal perspective (in rejection of a corporate perspective) analysing CSR and CSR communication as a societal phenomenon and process.

As a theoretical basis the author uses the approach of neo-institutionalism that is most widespread in academic CSR debate. With reference to the neo-institutionalism, it is possible to describe this (public) discourse as an organisational field. In this organisational field there are different actors with different goals, expecting various things in the form of CSR engagement. Among these actors are organisations, competitors, NGOs and not to be underestimated: the news media.

One major topic in CSR communication analysis is the comparative perspective that is, searching for differences and similarities in CSR communications in different countries. The motives and purposes of comparisons are identical in all academic disciplines. There are the steps of (1) *descriptions* of different cases, (2) *classifications* for reducing complexity, (3) *formation of hypotheses* as a pre-stage of theories, and (4) *predictions* of similar phenomenon (Thomas 2007: 26). CSR communications research with its flood of case studies has a full range of descriptions. Some authors made typologies on the basis of their specific cases that could be used for hypotheses formation. But these (comparative) case studies are extremely different concerning CSR definition, sample, methods, countries, industries and the development stage of CSR.

By including public discourse in such a comparison, it gets even more difficult to ascertain what CSR communication really is, as NGOs or news media do not use the term “CSR” in their policy statements or articles. The inclusion of communication regarding corporations and with it an extension of the term CSR communication makes clear the main challenge: the main problem of comparisons is the comparability. An examination of the current state of research and concept critiques shows that for a systematic comparison an analytical definition is needed (Oousterhout and Heugens 2008; Jarolimek and Raupp 2011). There is also a lack of systematic comparisons of CSR communication besides small-n studies. This leads us to the methodology of CSR communication studies and to the main research question: *How could different forms of CSR communication be analysed and compared?*

On the one hand, the basis for this methodological research question is the assumption that not every form of CSR communication uses the term CSR and similar words. One main problem seems to be in sampling. What are CSR articles or papers? How is it possible to find a purposive and comprehensive sample or to gather a collection of relevant CSR data from corporate webpages? Through digitalisation of media samples of content analyses are generated through search words in databases. In this case criteria to find the right sample are needed. On the other hand it is obvious that corporations themselves use the term CSR in their own and in very different way or similar to sustainability and other concepts.

To come straight to the point, the goal of this article is not to find the best definition of CSR communication, but to find criteria for CSR communication that may help analysing CSR communication in different forms and tools: self-presentations, but also in public discourse.

In the following sections the author will first take a look on the concept CSR and organisational communication: development, definitions used in academia, as well as tools and forms of CSR communication. Afterwards the term of organisational field and its meaning as part of neo-institutionalism will be introduced before the author outlines an analytical concept of CSR communications as a latent construct.

As an illustration, the author will use the example of Deutsche Bank. The criteria will be tested on CSR reports and newspaper articles, leading to a discussion on the practicability of the criteria. At the end the author will discuss the question of how this approach could help comparing different CSR communications and argue that transparency should be the criterion for the evaluation of CSR communications.

CSR and Organisational Communication

1. History of CSR and Similar Concepts

In addition to the activity orientated reference to industrialisation, the evolution of the term corporate social responsibility started with a book by the so called “father of CSR” (A.B. Carroll 1999) Howard R. Bowen “The Responsibility of the Businessmen” in 1953. Afterwards the idea and the abbreviation CSR changed several times and had different meanings combined with different interests (A.B. Carroll 2008, Frederick 2006). Frederick arranged this process in four CSR phases and meanings. CSR 1, *corporate social responsibility*, stood at the beginning and included at least a moral charge in corporate activities. By CSR 2, *corporate social responsiveness*, low practicability and a lack of directives were criticised, as well as a general sensibility for responsible engagement was claimed (Frederick 1994). For reasons of the following non-binding nature arose CSR 3, *corporate social rectitude* (Frederick 1986), which imposed severe requirements on corporations. At about the same time and with the same background, the concept of CSP, *corporate social performance*, was established (Carroll 1979; Kang & Wood 1995; Wood 1991; Wartick & Cochran 1985). It has the goal of finding a possibility to measure corporate responsibility Fredericks (1998). CSR 4, *cosmos, science, religion*, marks the attempt to locate responsibility in Social Issues in Management (SIM) research. Today, the abbreviation CSR is known as the term of the first concept “Corporate Social Responsibility”, but with very different meanings.

Since 1980s, CSR became closely intertwined with another concept: sustainability. Its roots are seen in a United Nations report called the “Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development: Our Common Future” (UN1987). The commission, chaired by the former Norwegian Prime Minister Gro Harlem Brundtland, is also known as the Brundtland report. It was then the basis for all international ecological treaties. With time the concept broadened to not only ecological topics. The linkage between CSR and sustainability was then given through the concept of the ‘triple-bottom-line’ (Elkington 1999), and the social, ecological and economic pillars. In corporate practice, both concepts do not make much of a difference, e.g., with respect to the names of sustainability – or CSR reports.

Corporate citizenship is another term that is connected with it. The idea of a corporation as a citizen has a long tradition like CSR, also going back to industrialisation. In relation to CSR, citizenship seems to be used more often for responsible engagement that is not connected to business operations and the supply chain. The activities of citizenship seem to be more voluntary for the benefit of areas surrounding corporations or the

social welfare of employees. It seems that the idea of corporate citizenship is more often required and needed in a liberal economics system as in social markets.

In organisational practice the usage of the terms and concepts of CSR, sustainability and corporate citizenship are overlapping. This problem is handled differently by various authors in their definitions.

2. Academic Definitions

Over the years very different meanings and definitions occurred in CSR debate. One can best divide them into a range of broad and narrow meanings. To illustrate the variability the author introduces a very broad understanding, a narrow definition and an approach that stands between them.

A broad understanding of CSR can be seen in the CSR pyramid by A.B. Carroll. In his pyramid he tries to show the different social responsibilities of corporations. He describes four consecutive levels of Social Responsibility: It starts with (1) Economic Responsibilities (Be profitable), which are the foundation for all the rest. Followed by (2) Legal Responsibilities (Obey the law), i.e. play by the rules of the game; (3) Ethical Responsibilities that he connects with the "Obligation to do what is right, just, and fair. Avoid harm." (A.B. Carroll 1991: 42). The last level on the top is about Philanthropic Responsibilities (Be a good corporate citizen) that Carroll describes with the sentence "contribute resources to the community, improve quality of life". A.B. Carroll's approach accents values "making profits" and "obeying the law" already as social responsibilities of the corporation. He also integrates corporate citizenship as a part of CSR. These are the reasons why his pyramid can be understood as a broad understanding of CSR.

Beyond that much-cited pyramid-approach there are very different views on how these conceptions and responsibilities interplay. An intermediate position can be seen in the approach of German sociologist Hiß (2006: 36f.). She distinguishes three areas of responsibility in respect to voluntariness and the supply chain: (1) an inner area of responsibility (market and law), (2) a middle area of responsibility (voluntary CSR in the supply chain), and (3) an outer area of responsibility (voluntary CSR outside the supply chain). Her understanding also integrates making a profit and obeying the law in the first point, as well as corporate citizenship as voluntary CSR outside supply chain. But both are separated from the voluntary CSR in the supply chain, which can be seen as the narrow concept of CSR.

Such a narrow concept can be found in the first CSR definition from the European Commission (EC), which is commonly accepted in practice and in academia. In 2011, the EC defined CSR as "a concept whereby companies

integrate social and environmental concerns in their business operations and in their interaction with their stakeholders on a voluntary basis. It is about enterprises deciding to go beyond minimum legal requirements and obligations stemming from collective agreements in order to address societal needs. Through CSR, enterprises of all sizes, in cooperation with their stakeholders, can help to reconcile economic, social and environmental ambitions.” (European Commission 2006: 2) The European Commission (2011: 7) published a new definition in October 2011 that backs away from voluntariness. The older version is stricter and stands exemplarily for a narrow interpretation of CSR.

If one then takes a look at the variety of CSR usage in practice, it becomes clear: *CSR is what corporations do*. For some corporations CSR functions as umbrella term that brings together sustainability, corporate citizenship and other concepts. Others focus on sustainability that is the basis for all the rest. Some even see compliance as part of CSR.

The purpose now is to systematise the term CSR communication for academic comparative studies. One could use any academic definition and start analysing, but this would not reflect corporate reality. To form a picture of what CSR communication means in the practice of corporations and in public discourse, some different tools and forms of CSR communication shall be distinguished.

3. Tools and Forms

For CSR communications different formats and channels are used, targeting different publics. These forms should be subdivided into forms of self-presentation and public discourse. CSR related publications of corporations (self-presentation) are: (1) *CSR/sustainability reports* that target specific stakeholders, such as politicians, shareholders, and regulators (and interested parties, such as consumers); (2) The use of *(sustainable) labels* appeals at first to consumers in the market; (3) *Cause-Related-Marketing-campaigns* also focus on consumers; (4) *Sustainable Advertising and Campaigns* in mass media also target consumers in the market, but also try to reach a bigger public sphere with the goal of legitimacy (e.g. Farache and Perks 2010); (5) CSR communication on *corporate webpages* targets different interested stakeholders; and (6) CSR communication in *Social Media* (e.g. Facebook, Twitter) tries to reach primarily consumers, critical publics and to initiate (public) dialogue.

In addition to self-presentation, there are various forms of CSR communication regarding corporations: (7) CSR communication *in journalism* as independently worked out articles regarding sustainable and responsible corporate behaviour; and finally (8) CSR communication and discussions in the *internet* (Web 1.0, but first of all in *web 2.0*), where

there are for instance bloggers, Non-governmental organisations appeal to accuse or to defend CSR actions in dialogue not only with users, but also with corporations themselves (e.g. Capriotti 2011).

There are still other specific targets that are easily conceivable, like CSR as part of employer branding strategies. The above systematisation tried to show the main channels and audiences. Beyond these single aims of CSR communication, one could find more general goals of CSR communication. It will become obvious that no matter what goal or function one names, research will not be able to ignore it without having a glance at public discourse within the organisational field.

CSR (communications) in Organisational Fields

Theoretical explanations refer mostly to the organisational approach of neo-institutionalism (NI) (for CSR: e.g. Matten and Moon 2008; Lammers and Barbour 2008; Raupp 2011). NI connects the purpose of an organisation with legitimacy (Meyer and Rowan 1977) rather than with efficiency and asks for the possibility of structural equity or isomorphism of organisations (DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Scott 1995). To become legitimised by the environment, organisations have to meet the expectations of them. Organisations therefore show “rationalised myths” (Meyer and Rowan 1977) to the environment that meet their expectations – and because of that, they are not called into question. In this case CSR reports and CSR engagement are “rationalised myths”.

In addition, the NI-approach also takes into account the fact that the differences in the need of societal environment and the corporate need of efficiency lead to several strategies (Oliver 1991). Most prominent is the strategy of de-coupling, which is regarding the fact that “rationalised myths” are communicated to the environment, whereas business operations remain as before. If transparency is regarded as complete disclosure of information as defined by the Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), CSR communication meets only rationalised myths. Reviews that focus only on corporate disclosure will not prove in this case the “real” organisational responsibility, but – plainly spoken – the quality of communications agencies.

Research in transparency must therefore consider other possibilities of verifiability. Publications towards the relationship of non-governmental organisations (NGOs) and corporations in CSR communications refer again on the NI-approach in terms of the “organisational field” (e.g. Curbach 2009; DenHond and DeBakker 2009; Hiß 2005; Jamali and Keshishian 2008). Organisational field means, in brief, a certain organisational environment, in which there are different organisations with different expectations

and interests, e.g., competing corporations, NGOs, journalists and consumer groups. These different expectations and possible assumptions are discussed in the field and in the public sphere. Although the term organisations field is somewhat blurry, because a single organisation might be in very different organisational fields at the same time, it contains implications for an analytical model. It shows once again, that it is necessary to observe more than the organisational self-presentation in public CSR communication, for analysing public CSR communication and not the quality of agencies' outcome.

CSR communications as a Latent Construct

1. Towards a definition of CSR (communication) as a latent construct

In academia, CSR and sustainability were for a long time an issue of management, business ethics or business and society research. Numerous fundamental publications in journals like *Academy of Management Review*, *Business & Society* or *Journal of Business Ethics* illustrate this (e.g. from A.B Carroll, Wood). In recent years there are observable activities towards firmly *CSR communication*, which was before put on a level with CSR. This development finds expression in recently published handbooks on CSR communication (e.g. Ihlen et al. 2011a, Raupp et al. 2011)

As regards CSR communications, an examination of research findings, as well as observations of daily life make it obvious that the terms 'corporate social responsibility', or 'responsibility' in the sense of CSR, are rare, above all in media coverage (Weder 2012a, b), although CSR and sustainability is a societal issue, for instance through climate change (Schäfer 2012). Especially studies on media coverage of CSR showed very heterogeneous results, as compiled in the handbook-article from Craig Carroll (2011). The great rarity of CSR in the media coverage is often explained with the absence of negativity (Jarolimek and Raupp 2011). This seems to be a shaky argument for the absence of societal issues in print and broadcasting media. The problem seems to be the methodology. One cannot find so many articles, using the terms of CSR and sustainability and ethics, because this communication is becoming more and more implicit (Matten and Moon 2008 stressed already the distinction of implicit and explicit CSR, but in a slightly different meaning). Articles are nowadays marked as "green" or "ecology" and so on.

CSR, citizenship and sustainability evolved from practice over the years in different ways, before research used these terms. The quintessence of it: CSR communication is what corporations do and in addition to it how publics communicate about it. Corporations may tell us about reduction of

water pollution in operations procedures without using the iridescent and abstract term of CSR. It is the same with news media.

Therefore we assume that CSR (and with it CSR communication) is a latent construct. This means, that CSR communication is a variable that cannot be measured directly, but only indirectly by measuring other correlative indicators. "The researcher must operationally define the latent variable of interest in terms of behaviour believed to represent it. As such, the unobserved variable is linked to one that is observable, thereby making its measurement possible." (Byrne 1998: 4) In the case of CSR communications, behaviour does not mean a classic relationship of attitude and behaviour as in research, e.g., in persuasive communication (e.g. Stiff 1994). Behaviour means here corporate communication behaviour, as well as journalist communication behaviour (e.g. style, frames), how they communicate about the issues related to corporations and responsibility.

Because of the various interpretations of the term CSR, the author started by searching for a more strict definition, to obtain a clearer picture regarding what are the core activities of CSR. These could function as criteria (or observable variables) for the sometimes unobservable term (or variable) CSR. Such a tight definition can be found in the CSR Green Book of the European Commission.

With reference to the strict definition from the European commission (2006: 2), a (working) definition of CSR *communication* could be: *the communication from and about organisations addressing actions within the organisation that are (1) longer term measures (sustainable); and (2) voluntary (not legally bound). The actions reported have (3) a clear connection to the organisation's activities, but are not their objective. CSR communications can usually be found in all public communications (PR, corporate webpages, corporate magazines, as well as in journalism and in special CSR media like the CSR-report). Issues of CSR communication can be subdivided into social, economic and environmental responsibilities.*

After the description of a working definition of CSR communication and possible criteria in order to detect CSR communication, the next step is an adaptability test of this concept that is built up on a narrow understanding of CSR. The single results concerning the single case are of secondary importance. The analysis of CSR-reports and press articles shall show how the criteria work and how to change the definition to attain the goal of a definitional basis for a model of analysis.

2. Testing the definitional construct in the field

In the following example case, it shall be shown how the definitional construct works and how to modify and to broaden the narrow understanding of CSR for the reason of reality awareness. But it is only

one single example (!). It is not a real case study. With reference to the example, a case study would mean “an intensive study of a single unit for the purpose of understanding a larger class of (similar) units” (Gerring (2004: 342). The example presented here is neither intensive in breadth or depth nor does it cover a whole unit, if a unit is considered as noted above to be an organisational field of an organisation. The aim is to test the definitional construct in the field. The underlying questions are: Does it work? Is it possible to find more CSR-related articles in news media as with a “normal search string”? How does one need to modify the analytical model? It should not become too broad, but at the same time it should be able to reflect and to incorporate the meanings and issues that corporations communicate or view as CSR.

This first example case tested the approach in the field, considering CSR communication from and about the company “Deutsche Bank AG”. The stock corporation Deutsche Bank (literally: German Bank) is Germany’s largest bank with headquarters in Frankfurt am Main. It has offices all around the world including New York (USA) and Moscow (Russia). It is the largest foreign exchange dealer in the world. Through its dominant position, the Deutsche Bank seems to be a good example, because the company acts globally within a single, clearly defined industry.

a) Self-image: CSR reports from Deutsche Bank

The analysis of self-image from the Deutsche Bank focused on CSR reports in Russia, Germany and the United States. In addition to the corporate website, the CSR-reports seem to be the most practiced form of CSR communication done by corporations. The author therefore used the CSR reports of the Deutsche Bank 2010, published in 2011.

The methodology can be described as a kind of qualitative content analysis. The author analysed some general formal criteria, for example length, topics, and pictures. Because the focus is on the usability of the definitional construct, the analysis doesn’t go deeply in the text instead of recording the different meanings of CSR in practice. Therefore the author mainly focused on content of CSR actions, and if they are CSR communication as in the proposed working definition.

The Deutsche Bank has separate CSR reports for its “home base” (Signitzer and Prexl 2008) in Germany and for the USA. The Russian internet presence of Deutsche Bank displays only the global, English CSR report. The global and the German reports are the same, except in the language. Layout, content and number of pages are the same.

There are 152 pages with chapters on Dialogue/Dialog, Sustainability/Nachhaltigkeit, and Education/Bildung, Art & Music/Kunst und Musik, Corporate Volunteering/Corporate Volunteering, and Supplementary

Information/Ergänzende Informationen. The American CSR report is shorter, with 52 pages, only one third the lengths of the others. Format and lay-out are also different from the other reports. The chapter titles are nearly the same, but the chapter on sustainability, which in the German report is more than 50 pages long, has only four pages “addressing climate change” in the USA report. The CSR report in the USA contains more USA-specific CSR activities of the Deutsche Bank.

Are the communicated activities really CSR? The CSR reports contain communications about CSR activities, which clearly fulfil the criteria of the proposed CSR communications definition (e.g. sustainability). Some activities are ambiguous, such as the activities concerning education and social investments (e.g. help for women and children in India). Some activities mentioned in the report are not CSR communication in the proposed sense, such as the funding of Arts and Music. The consequences of this for the proposed definition will be discussed later.

b) Public image: media coverage regarding CSR communications from Deutsche Bank

One of the main arguments in this analytical model is that it needs more than only self-descriptions on CSR communication. Furthermore, the author argued that the usual search strings in sampling will lead to an insufficient picture on public discourse (here: media coverage) about organisational responsibility. Search strings combining items like “sustainab^{ab}”, “responsib^{ab}”, and/or “business ethi^{ab}” will not detect media content on “green energy”. This problem increases within international comparative studies caused by a variety of very different translations and language.

Instead of searching for varieties of “CSR” the author started with a search for organisation (as mentioned above, the anchor of the organisational field). Therefore the author searched for “Deutsch^{ab}” and “Bank”. Because this is “only” a test of the definitional construct, one week in 2010 was chosen non-selectively. It is the same year that was the basis for the CSR reports published in 2011. For the media sample the author used the LexisNexis-database and chose some nationwide distributed newspapers: (1) *Frankfurter Rundschau*, a German political newspaper with local coverage about the region of Frankfurt. The local coverage was included because of the assumption, that CSR in the media is often a topic for local coverage (Jarolimek und Raupp 2011), e.g. the presentation of cheques to local kindergartens; (2) *Financial Times Deutschland*, this economics newspaper was chosen because of the assumption and the results from Weder (2012a, b), implying that CSR is at first an issue of economics and not of the whole society, and (3) *The New York Times*, was chosen because of the comparative aspect and its local section.

After searching for articles that mentioned the “Deutsche Bank”, the author looked deeper into the articles, trying to identify the criteria of the narrow definition: is the event reported a measure for longer term (sustainable)? Is it a voluntary engagement of the bank? Is it relevant to organisational operations? These are the first, very broad questions in relation to the text. Future studies could possibly expand on framing, problem attribution, actors or could divide thematically with reference to the pillars of the triple-bottom-line, e.g. as from the GRI Guidelines.

For this first test the author analysed media coverage of the Deutsche Bank for one week in November 2010 (22nd-27th). Using the LexisNexis data base the author found 3 articles about the “Deutsche Bank” in the *New York Times*, but there was no CSR communication in any of the three articles from the *New York Times*. The author found 23 in the *Financial Times Deutschland*, and 15 articles in the *Frankfurter Rundschau*. The Deutsche Bank appears to be an important organisation for business newspapers, but not their CSR engagement. In the *Financial Times Deutschland* coverage, only one of the 23 articles could be considered CSR communication. The article “Titel ohne Tiefgang“(Degree without Thoughtfulness) is concerned with the serious defects in new graduates in the field of economics. Some banks, among them the *Deutsche Bank*, began internal training programs that took three years. With reference to the proposed definition, this activity is firstly a long term measure (at minimum three years for the first course), it is secondly more or less voluntary, and thirdly it has a clear connection to the daily work of the finance institute. The given article is thus CSR communication; although the key words corporate social responsibility, responsibility, or citizenship does not appear. From the 15 articles of the *Frankfurter Rundschau* in that week, 7 articles could be seen as CSR communication. Two of them are the same, published on different local/regional pages. The article called “Opernstudio” (Opera Studio) is concerned with promotion of young singers. It is sponsored by the *Deutsche Bank Foundation*. This activity (in arts and music) is voluntary, long lasting, but has nothing to do with the bank’s activities, not least because it is the *Deutsche Bank Foundation* and not the Deutsche Bank itself. The other five articles are similar, published in different parts and regional issues of the newspaper and concern the former German foreign minister, Joschka Fischer, calling for ecological rebuilding. In this context Fischer pointed out in his talk at the Sustainability Forum: “Who would have thought it, the *Deutsche Bank* renovates its towers and they stand now in the heart of Frankfurt as ‘green towers’.” This activity (renovation of bank towers) is clear CSR communication. The Deutsche Bank is considered to be a good example of environmentally responsible renovation.

Broadening the Analytical Definition and Limitations

CSR is what corporations do. Therefore, it is necessary to broaden the narrow theoretical definition to get a picture of CSR communications in organisational “reality”. Overall, the idea of conceptualising CSR communication as a latent construct did work. However, the results in the previous section exemplify only a part of the intercultural approach. But the result of the media coverage renews the questions regarding what is, and how to measure CSR communication: (1) Arts and Music: is the funding of arts and music CSR? But are arts and music in society and the promotion of young artists, responsibilities of business towards society and culture? (2) Corporation and its foundations: CSR communication about the *Deutsche Bank* and the *Deutsche Bank Foundation* the same? And (3) the same articles in regional issues leads to the question, how to obtain reliable data? This last problem is not exclusive for CSR communication, but a challenge for content analysis of media coverage. The other two issues arising have an important influence on what the author called CSR communication. The funding of arts and music seems to be important in that nearly all corporations do it. In rethinking the original strict definition, it is necessary to add the promotion of culture. This means in theory, that a concept such as corporate citizenship is part of CSR. If large parts of CSR and sustainability reports weren't considered, this would lead to a theory-based, but false picture of CSR communication.

One can think of some similar ways of responsibility communications that are not part of the narrow definition; first of all, these are connected to CSR areas, which Hiß called voluntary CSR outside the supply chain. Therefore, the third criteria for CSR (communication), i.e., “3. If there is clear connection to business activities” should be revised and updated to add “or if it is part of the promotion of arts and music and other part of sustainability actions such as corporate volunteering, sponsoring, cause-related marketing or corporate citizenship”. The other question is regarding whether to consider foundations, where corporations are involved, is more difficult. A pragmatic solution could be to consider only those foundations that have a clear connection to the corporation by sharing the same name such as in the case of the *Deutsche Bank*. Some foundations do not have this clear connection or are financed by different companies.

A general problem is voluntariness as a criterion of the latent construct. As mentioned above, the new CSR definition of the European commission (2011) backs away from the criterion of voluntariness. If the definitional construct presented here shall meet the needs of comparative studies, “voluntariness” could be a problem when in one country a CSR report is obligatory and in another it is voluntary or the result of normative pressure. Even single engagements could differ in the degree

of voluntariness, for example, given possibilities for in-house training. Nevertheless, the author believes in the idea of the voluntariness-criterion. Future comparative studies may use the named criteria and must evaluate reasonable adjustments. With an even larger amount of documents in the analysis, the results of comparative studies may show what kind of CSR communications are given in an country or culture, and what topics to what extent. They may then compare also how cultures differ in the degree of voluntariness versus law and weighting CSR engagements in or outside the supply chain. This could lead to a classification of CSR communication.

As a last step towards the concept of the latent construct and its adaptability, the author will discuss the criteria for the evaluation in comparing CSR communications. The author sees here some differences depending on the chosen research perspective.

Functions of CSR Communication

Comparisons need a standard for evaluation. Therefore models of analysis often ask for the main function. For example, comparisons of media systems may use degrees of pluralism or independence. Transferred to comparisons of CSR (communication) the question is regarding the function of CSR (communication) as a measure. CSR literature provides various functions of CSR and CSR. The distinction taken between a corporate versus a societal perspective on CSR communication seems to lead to a slightly different order of the most important functions of CSR communications.

In a *corporate perspective*, function means solving an organisational problem. The comparability to public relations reputation, trust and credibility, and legitimacy were discussed. Bentele and Nothhaft (2011) argue that CSR is a buzzword. They recommend cutting through and getting to the real communicative mechanism behind it, which they see in trust and, as a part of it, credibility. Raupp (2011) highlights the goal of legitimacy, whereas Eisenegger and Schranz (2011) discuss the goal of increasing corporate reputation. They all name major tasks of CSR communication. With regard to the most common theoretical basis, neo-institutionalism, the function of CSR communication can be seen at first in the legitimacy of business activities towards stakeholder groups and society, followed by trust, credibility, and reputation.

In a broader *societal perspective*, function means solving a problem of society. One may ask what the basis for all these communicative mechanisms is in the public sphere. The author argues that transparency is the main trigger behind it. Ihlen et al. (2011b) highlighted in their conclusion and take-away points of the CSR handbook, the importance of transparency for

successful CSR communications. Also the NGO Global Reporting Initiative (GRI), to which guidelines (GRI 3.1) nearly all corporations do refer, names the major purpose of transparency. The GRI (2011: 3) define transparency “as the complete disclosure of information on the topics and indicators required to reflect impacts and enable stakeholders to make decisions, and the processes, procedures, and assumptions used to prepare those disclosures.” Thus, in a societal perspective the author argues for different positions of actors in an organisational field. It seems more than questionable that a profit-orientated organisation in competition with others should pursue a complete disclosure of information. Credibility and reputation are also influencing factors for perceived transparency. But if transparency is regarded as the main function of CSR communication, it could be a standard for comparisons not only of different organisations, but of different positions in an actor network of corporation, competitors, NGOs, news media and citizen groups.

To sum up the primary ingredients of the analytical model, the author attaches importance to (1) a definition that names observable criteria for a different used and sometimes unobservable term CSR and (2) a basic purpose of transparency for CSR communication that is not limited to organisational self-disclosure, but inclined towards public discourse. This second point affects the verifiability of CSR communication. It would be almost impossible to verify all CSR actions around the world (is there really a new well in Africa? How many trees in the rain forest were saved by customers?). The author therefore counts on other societal groups that make these observations for one and communicate them, primarily independent journalism and NGOs in terms of political activists.

Conclusion

This article attempted to explain the weaknesses in studies comparing CSR communication, which is at first the lack of an analytical definition. The author has assumed that CSR communication is latent construct with three indicators. CSR is voluntary, sustainable and relevant to the objectives of a company. A first test showed that it works: the author could find CSR in media coverage communication that do not use typical terms like Social Responsibility, Citizenship or the like. Testing the analytical definition in the field of corporate CSR-reporting, the author found that not every CSR engagement in practice matches the CSR definition. To become a realistic CSR communication definition, the author subsumed similar concepts like corporate citizenship or sponsoring in CSR, as engagement outside the supply chain. Using this proposed analytical definition, CSR communication research should undertake an intercultural comparison that focuses not so

much on the strategies of single organisations, but on CSR communication as a problem of society, of organisations and their environments that includes the CSR communication of corporations (self-image), and on corporations as seen by news media and other actors (public image). A comparative study may focus different organisational fields related to similar issues. There are still some limitations such as different degrees of voluntariness in different countries.

Furthermore, the author examined the main objective of public CSR communication. In a societal perspective on CSR, the criterion for comparing and evaluating CSR communication should be that, which is most wanted: transparency (e.g. Ihlen et al. 2011). Authenticity and veridicality are also connected with transparency. Concepts like trust and truthfulness may be important communicative mechanisms behind CSR. But transparency seems to be the main trigger for the public perception.

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SEVEN FACES OF SECURITY: APPLYING THE HUMAN SECURITY CONCEPT TO DISASTER RESEARCH

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Abstract

The article attempts to fill various gaps. First and foremost, the possibilities arising from using the human security concept for the analysis of disaster impacts (natural or man-made hazards) are explored. Second, it attempts to fill the existing gap in the methodological approaches, which measure security and its transformations after disasters. Various attempts to measure the human security along with the latest methodologies for comparing societies by their abilities to cope with adverse situations are analysed. Finally, a three-part Human Security Analytical Tool is offered by collecting the main discoveries in the field over two decades and by providing scientific approaches to measuring human security over time in a cross-sectorial and cross-country comparative manner.

Keywords: human security, securitability, resilience, disaster, measurement, methodology.

Introduction

Despite the fact that in 2014 the human security concept marks its 20th anniversary while at the same time being used by various highly developed countries (e.g. Japan, Norway, Canada) as integral part of their foreign policy for years, it has not yet seen an upgrade to the level of 'a grand theory' neither in security or development studies (in which it has been developed), nor in any other field. There are also too few successful attempts to use the concept in field of disaster research¹, although both academic areas have many characteristics in common. For example, both do not have one particular discipline or theory while potentially benefiting from being used and further developed in cross-disciplinary research. Second, being most often applied in social sciences, consequently people

¹ For example, Sousa & Gomez (2012) have researched the interaction between security providers and affected communities in Japan after the Great East Japan Earthquake (2011) by using Human Security as an analytical lens.

are at the core of their analysis. Last but not least, both are presented as universal and comprehensive.

Although since its creation the human security concept foresees that “it is relevant to people everywhere, in rich nations and poor” (UNDP, 1994: 22), the scientists and practitioners have generally concentrated their efforts on poor and developing countries, while forgetting the developed states. Disaster research has followed a similar path mainly due to a popular belief that a disaster is a social phenomenon and people’s vulnerability to natural or man-made hazards depends on the available resources and a society’s level of development (Wisner et al, 2004). However, the recent global economic and financial crisis proved that no country or people are fully protected from harm. Japan serves as another example. Although being among the most developed states in the global arena and a long-standing advocate of human security by investing in it both domestically and internationally, Japan was not secured from the harm of ‘the triple disaster’ of March 2011. Such examples as Hurricanes Katrina (2005) and Sandy (2012) in the USA, the Christchurch earthquake in New Zealand (2011), the major floods in Germany and Central Europe (2013) prove that even countries with the highest positions in the UNDP development ranking and the largest economic and military potential in the world are not immune to the devastation of disasters. Consequently, the article approaches several questions at once, as for example: how (in-) secure are people after a disaster event? How to measure the transformations of security at societal level? How can the human security concept be applied to research the phenomenon?

The discussions on the post-2015 global development agenda are picking up speed, while the human security is gradually taking more prominent role in debates at the United Nations. The fact that the UN has adopted a resolution on a common approach to human security in 2012 (A/RES/66/290) and the Secretary General has presented a report on the matter in late 2013 (A/68/685) serve both as an illustration, as well as an incentive for academia and policy-makers to continue developing the human security concept and explore new ways for its application. This article attempts to contribute to these efforts.

Coping with Adversity: Different Approaches and Common Characteristics

Before exploring how human security and disaster research can complement each other and potentially help averting each other’s shortcomings, it is essential to understand the main differences and common characteristics of the main scientific approaches to disasters, including factors influencing people’s ability to cope with them. From

the outset, it can be concluded that there is no one, commonly accepted definition of *a disaster*. However, many disaster research strands tend to agree that the natural hazards, such as floods, earthquakes, severe storms, tsunamis or volcano eruptions become *a disaster*, if the phenomenon in addition to physical implications causes also some social consequences.

According to the United Nations International Strategy for Disaster Research, disaster is “a serious disruption of the functioning of a community or a society involving widespread human, material, economic or environmental losses and impacts, which exceeds the ability of the affected community or society to cope using its own resources” (UNISDR, 2009: 9). Following a similar path, the International Disaster Database has put forward 4 criteria to be fulfilled for a natural hazard to qualify as *a disaster*: (1) 10 or more people reported killed; (2) 100 or more people reported affected; (3) declaration of a state of emergency; (4) call for international assistance (Centre for Research on the Epidemiology of Disasters, 2009). However, social scientists are less technocratic, as for example Quarantelli has offered a twofold definition: “(1) disasters are inherently social phenomena, and (2) ... the source of disasters is rooted in the social structure or social system” (Quarantelli, 2005: 339), while arguing that “if there are no negative social consequences, there is no disaster” (Quarantelli, 2005: 347). Other popular strand, developed by Wisner, Blakie, Cannon and Davis (2004), has emphasised the root causes of disasters rather than their consequences, which lie in people’s exposure to the hazard risk and their vulnerability. They have implied that “disasters are complex mix of a natural hazard and human action” (Wisner et al, 2004: 5), while disaster risk cannot exist without both of two elements – vulnerable people and a natural hazard (Wisner et al, 2004). This article also approaches disasters through the prism of social sciences, focusing on the social causes and consequences leading the natural hazards to qualify as disasters rather than the physical harm. Moreover, the article explains inter-linkages between 3 different concepts influencing people’s ability to cope with adverse situations, such as disasters: ‘*vulnerability*’, ‘*resilience*’ and ‘*securitability*’.

What are the main common characteristics and differences between ‘*vulnerability*’, ‘*resilience*’ and ‘*securitability*’? From the outset, some argue that they are consecutive stages in the main approaches by which scientists have approached disasters. For example, Sandrine Revet (2012) has enumerated 3 such evolutionary stages over the last 4 decades: 1970s were dominated by the idea of *vulnerability*; 1980-1990s – by the idea of *risk*; while due to relating more often disasters with climate change issues the concept of *resilience* has become popular since early 2000s (Revet, 2012). From a different angle, Karen I. Sudmeier-Rieux (2014) argues that the concept of *resilience* similarly succeeded the idea of *sustainable development*, which dominated the two previous decades (1980-1990s) (Sudmeier-Rieux, 2014).

Similarly to *resilience*, the concept of *securitability* has emerged only in early 2000s as it first appeared in the context of human security in “*Latvia Human Development Report 2002/2003. Human Security*” (UNDP Latvija, 2003). However, for various reasons it has not seen a widespread use in security, development or disaster research studies.

The first of the concepts discussed in this article – *vulnerability* – by some of its advocates has been defined as “the characteristics of a person or group and their situation that influence their capacity to anticipate, cope with, resist and recover from the impact of natural hazard” (Wisner *et al*, 2004: 11). Consequently, according to Wisner’s proposed Access model the community’s ability to deal with disasters is dependent on the available resources before and after the hazard (Wisner *et al*, 2004). In the sense of UNISDR (2009), vulnerability is described as “the characteristics and circumstances of a community, system or asset that make it susceptible to the damaging effects of a hazard” (UNISDR, 2009: 30). Vulnerability thus can be understood as the root causes and reasons, explaining why people do or do not get hurt by natural hazards.

Resilience, on the other hand, is an ability rather than a characteristic describing a community’s coping with a hazard and recovering from it by “bouncing back to normal”. UNISDR has defined it as “the ability of a system, community or society exposed to hazards to resist, absorb, accommodate to and recover from the effects of a hazard in a timely and efficient manner, including through the preservation and restoration of its essential basic structure and functions” (UNISDR, 2009: 24). However, as argued by Sudmeier-Rieux resilience is not yet the ultimate disaster research concept and cannot be viewed as a substitute of sustainable development because it “parallels coping capacities or recovery strategies for dealing with shock and adversity rather than favouring long-term capacity building to reduce underlying vulnerabilities” (2014: 71). To become a useful paradigm it needs to transform from a “bounce back” to a “bounce forward” concept thus addressing properly risks and root causes of vulnerability and becoming “an ability of a system, organisation community, household or individual to change in a positive manner, when faced with diversity” (Sudmeier-Rieux, 2014: 75).

Finally, the concept of *securitability* implies that “there are both objective and subjective issues at play in achieving a sense of security. (...) Depending on whether the individual has a high or low degree of *securitability*, he or she can perceive a given situation as either an opportunity, a warning signal to avoid or prevent a risk, or a risk itself” (UNDP Latvija, 2003: 20). Consisting of two parts – ‘*security*’ and ‘*ability*’ – ‘*securitability*’ can be understood as the set of different skills and knowledge that people are equipped with to either not lose a sense of security when facing adverse situations or to quickly regain it, if it is temporarily lost (UNDP

Latvija, 2003). Moreover, the concept foresees that the security is exercised in a networked society, in which other members are considered as potential security providers building *security constellations* with their own *security strategies*. *Securability* as a concept therefore outperforms *vulnerability* and *resilience*. While *vulnerability* depends on a people's access to the resources before and after a hazard event, as well as on different characteristics, of which many are unalterable (such as gender, ethnicity, age, etc.), *securability* can be constantly upgraded and further developed as new skills and abilities can be learned and the scope of security providers widened. Similar distinctions can be observed between *resilience* and *securability*, both sharing the emphasis on a human's capacities to deal with adverse situations. However, the former foresees the returning back to the same conditions as before the hazard event, while the latter rather encapsulates a higher level of development and lessons-learned process after the event. As the sense of security is a socially constructed reality dependent on the community's ability to react as one united mechanism using each other's skills and capacities in times of need, the *securability* concept developed within the framework of human security may provide more detailed, comprehensive and multi-layered results when applied to disaster analysis.

Measuring the Human Security and the Dealing with Adverse Situations

One of the main goals of this article is to explore the previous attempts to measure (human) security and its changes in order to develop a comprehensive methodology for cross-country and cross-sectorial analysis for countries facing such adverse situations as natural hazards. However, the fact that there is no single definition of security, which is a rather a socially constructed phenomena dependent on an applied discipline for its research or the era or people, through which it is exercised, makes it a rather difficult task. Moreover, human security is multi-faceted rather than homogeneous, while covering all its dimensions throughout wide layers of society demands for a comprehensive analytical tool.

There have been various efforts in the field of human security measurement over the last decade, of which some of the best known are by Eldering, (2010); the UNDP approach used in their Human Development Reports (Human Security Unit, 2009); the Generalized Poverty Index (King & Murray, 2002); Human Security Audit (Bajpai, 2000); GECHS (Lonergan, Gustavson & Carter, 2009); the Human Security Report Index; and Human Security Mapping (Owen, 2004). Also Hastings (2011) has developed a Human Security Index, which allows the comparison of different countries by combining and analysing statistics in three different axes – economic, environmental and social. Unfortunately, all of these approaches suffer

from one or several methodological weaknesses making them impractical for disaster analysis, as they either: (a) measure only the objective side of Human Security, while ignoring security as a social construction and the human being as the main point of reference; (b) rely excessively on the data and indicators that are publicly available, instead of those best characterising human security and threats to its 7 dimensions; (c) ignore the division of 7 different types of insecurities and the need to systematically compare them with one another across countries, or over time; or (d) apply the concept only to the poor or developing countries (also referred to as LDCs), ignoring its holistic nature, although its creators had originally related it to all communities in the world (Bambals, 2012).

Stepping outside “the human security labelled” efforts, the last couple of years have been very productive for both the academic and business circles regarding creating new indexes, rankings and methodologies for comparing societies and countries each to another by their ability to cope with risk and adverse situations in general. For example, the “Resilience Capacity Index” (RCI Ranking)² compares different metropolitan regions in the USA, while suggesting that “one way to assess a region’s resilience is by its qualities to cope with future challenges, a concept we label resilience capacity” (The University at Buffalo Regional Institute, 2014). Providing a possibility to compare 90 countries across the globe, “KPMG International” since 2012 produces the “Change Readiness Index”³ “to help organisations understand which countries, for example, are likely to be more resilient in the face of short term shocks, and which countries may be more capable of exploiting opportunities and managing structural change” (KPMG International Cooperative, 2014: 3). Similar efforts regarding cross-country comparison is provided by RobecoSAM’s “Country Sustainability Ranking”, ranking altogether 59 countries by 17 indicators⁴. It even includes as 5% of total (indicator) weight country

² It uses 12 indicators along 3 dimensions (Regional Economic capacity, Socio-demographic capacity, Community Connectivity capacity)

³ The report uses the notion – ‘change readiness’ – “the capability of a country’s agents – its government, private and public enterprises, people and wider civil society – to anticipate, prepare for, manage, and respond to a wide range of change drivers, proactively cultivate the resulting opportunities, and mitigate any potential impacts”, while comparing 90 countries along 3 dimensions (Enterprise Capability; Government Capability; and People & Civil Society Capability) consisting of 70 secondary data variables and 21 primary survey question responses (with 545 country experts). The ratio between the secondary and primary data is 77:23 (KPMG International Cooperative, 2014: 7-8).

⁴ It ranks 59 countries by 17 indicators (with weighted sub-indicators) along 3 dimensions: the Social (25% of the total weight), the Governance (60%) and the Environmental (15%) (Robeco & RobecoSAM’s, 2013: 3-5). The ranking provides cross-country comparable

comparison by their exposure to environmental risks and their mitigation (Robeco & RobecoSAM's, 2013: 3-5). Finally, the "World Risk Report" is noted as having a more advanced ranking than the previous examples in terms of comparing societies by their resilience to the natural hazards, arguing that "for a country that has sufficient financial means at its disposal as well as functioning government and civil society structure, that counters recurrent natural disasters with an adaptive strategy and that is willing to invest in adapting to changes in framework conditions such as weather and climate extremes will also be hit less hard by extreme natural events" (Bündnis Entwicklung Hilft, 2013: 6). The Report develops a "World Risk Index"⁵ covering 173 countries worldwide and outperforming the previous examples by having the largest number of states, while the methodology is built on the notion of risk similar to the disaster researchers, such as Wisner *et al* (2004), therefore focusing on capacities of the particular societies rather than the hazards. However, all of these examples suffer from various similar shortcomings for them to successfully be able to analyse human security changes after the natural hazards, as they: (1) do not include all 7 human security dimensions in their chosen indicators, therefore not allowing them to be compared each to another; and (2) provide no evidence that their methodologies could be used to identify security changes that occur after a natural hazard in comparison with a period before the event. For these reasons, it is concluded that no ready-made methodology yet exists to provide comprehensive analytical possibilities for measuring human security. Hence, it has to be created.

From Basic Principles to a Comprehensive Methodology

Therefore, another aim of this article is to propose a comprehensive methodology allowing the measurement of human security and its changes in any given society over a concrete period of time. Moreover, the methodology needs to be applicable to the analysis of disaster societal impacts and produce measurable, quantitative results identifying potential security degradation along all human security dimensions. For such

results regarding country exposure to environmental risks and their mitigation (5% of total weight), which may let to get a superficial insight in differences between countries in the area of disaster management.

⁵ The Index calculates the risk of disaster in 173 countries worldwide while consisting of 4 main components: the exposure to natural hazards; the susceptibility (infrastructure, nutrition, housing and economic conditions); the coping capacities (governance, preparedness and early warning, healthcare, social and material security); and the adaptive capacities (future natural events and climate change) (Bündnis Entwicklung Hilft, 2013: 6).

reasons, several principles serving as the main guidelines for developing Human Security Analytical Tool (HSAT) are put forward:

- 1) *Definitions* – while noting the variety of human security definitions, HSAT should use the most popular one, produced by the highest authority;
- 2) *Human Security Principles* – take into account all 4 principles of human security as proposed in the UNDP Report of 1994: the universality (applicable to any society), the interdependence (people and concerns are inter-connected), the provision through early prevention, and the people-centred approach (UNDP, 1994: 22-23);
- 3) *Main Variable* – focus on the main point of reference of the concept – the human;
- 4) *Multi-faceted security* – take into account that the human security is multi-dimensional rather than a homogeneous phenomenon consisting of 7 different interlinked, equally important dimensions: political, economic, environmental, community, health, personal and food security. Disaster research should presume that all 7 dimensions may be equally endangered throughout the whole disaster management cycle; and
- 5) *Disaster event and exposure to the natural hazards* – the HSAT should recognize that a phenomenon needs both elements – a natural hazard and vulnerable people – to qualify as a disaster. The disaster needs to have boundaries in time and geographical space so the consequences of the analysed event could be distinguished from any other (Fritz, 1961: 655). In addition to the methods for capturing the perception (sense) of security and its transformations (e.g. social survey, interview, focus group, etc.), the HSAT should take a sample from the whole society rather than only the directly affected people (as the term ‘*affected*’ is considered to be rather blurred and vague).

Three Parts of the Human Security Analytical Tool (HSAT)

The Human Security Analytical Tool, proposed in this article is built upon the legacy of the people-centric human security research throughout three generations over the last two decades. Therefore, it consists of three main parts. *The first part* encapsulates the definition of human security and its multi-faceted nature. HSAT uses the most fundamental and longest-living definition of human security as defined by the UNDP Report of 1994: “safety from such chronic threats as hunger, disease and repression” and “protection from sudden and hurtful disruptions in the patterns of daily life – whether in homes, in jobs or in communities” (UNDP, 1994: 23). Moreover, the UNDP Report has argued that security, instead of being understood as homogeneous, is rather multi-faceted, while freedom from

want and freedom from fear are exercised in 7 different dimensions of human security: economic, food, health, environmental, personal, security and political security (UNDP, 1994). HSAT considers all 7 dimensions as interlinked and equally important throughout the whole disaster cycle.

The second part consists of the distinction between objective and subjective human security and the concept of *securitability*. This article applies the idea that human security is the sum of two equally important security types: (1) the actual *state of security* (objective human security) and (2) the socially constructed *sense of security* (subjective human security). Latvia's Human Development Report (2003) explains the differences between both by stating that "security is the actual state of being free from threat, while the *sense of security* is the cumulative effect of a set of subjective and objective factors" (UNDP Latvija, 2003: 19). The UNDP Report also develops the concept of '*securitability*', explained in the previous section. While it shares some similarities with '*vulnerability*' and '*resilience*', the former is rather dynamic and can be constantly further developed, including during disaster management, resulting in better set of capacities after the hazard. On the basis of the available *securitabilities*, an individual can develop *security strategies* – "emergency action plans" consisting of available skills and knowledge, as well as *the security constellations* – "configurations of security providers at different levels with coordinated strategies to deal with specific human security issues" (UNDP Latvia, 2003: 23-24). The intermediaries can either be states, providing assistance to other states or societies (development aid, disaster relief), or governmental institutions and organisations providing public services (fire-fighters, medics, police, army), or local and international NGOs (Red Cross, Doctors Without Borders, etc.) (Ozoliņa, 2012).

The third part of HSAT is the "Comprehensive Human Security Model" (Ozoliņa, 2012). It focuses on '*the area of securitability*' storing all objective and subjective instruments and actions, which are accumulated by the state and the individual and can be used to constantly strengthen *securitabilities* (see Figure 1). The instruments and capacities in the toolkit of available resources (*the area of securitability*) can be constantly developed and used, if necessary, for prevention of threats, such as natural hazards. The model is dynamic and inclusive. Instead of attributing responsibility for human security only to the state, it foresees constant interaction between the state and the individual, while the latter is given a greater role to increase *the securitability* of itself or others. Finally, the basic characteristic distinguishing the model from any other effort in the field is the international environment (where *securitabilities* can be strengthened) and the role of intermediaries (in literature also referred to as '*agencies*') – the allies and guides for the individual in the process of self-conscious realisation of available options for increasing the overall security (Ozoliņa, 2012).

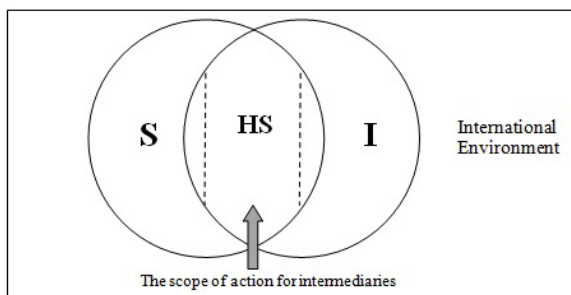


Figure 1 **Comprehensive Human Security Model**
(*S – State; I – Individual; HS – Scope of Human Security*)

Source: Ozoliņa, 2012: 55

The Human Security Analytical Tool in Action: Proposed Methodological Approach

The Human Security Analytical Tool, when applied to disaster research allows the analysis of both objective and subjective human security, both of which are equally important. Every side of the human security “coin” has 7 security dimensions (following UNDP Report of 1994). Multiple indicators are chosen for each dimension on the basis of their representativeness and the availability of inter-comparable data. The overall human security level is determined by the sum of both the objective and subjective human security (see Figure 2).

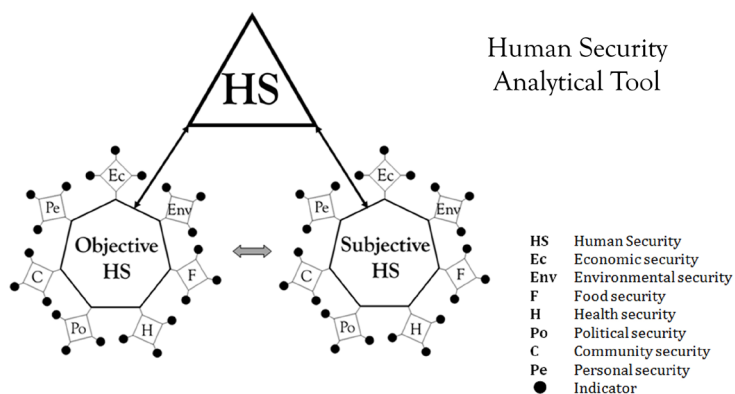


Figure 2 **Human Security Analytical Tool (HSAT)**

Source: author's own material

Measuring Objective Human Security

Objective human security (the state of security determined by the objective obstacles and their transformations over a period of time) can be analysed by attributing indicators to all 7 security dimensions and comparing how their values change when inter-compared 'before' and 'after' a particular hazard event. Although Latvia's UNDP Report (2003) introduced the distinction between the objective and subjective human security, its approach is not directly transferrable to disaster research, as it explores the subjective factors (with social surveys and interviews) only in the areas where deterioration of objective human security is identified. However, such an approach does not include all possible disaster after-effects and scenarios. For example, what, if people fear pollution in their neighbourhood, although the objective human security analysis alone does not identify it? What, if people are not able to have access to food, water or electricity due to destroyed roads, bridges or other infrastructure caused by a natural hazard? Therefore, the proposed approach suggests examining all 7 security dimensions by presuming them all as potentially being affected by a hazard. The measurement of objective human security consists of 5 consecutive steps:

Step 1 – Choosing the Right Indicators. As it can be observed in Figure 2, the first step is choosing the right indicators representing each of 7 security dimensions. To be equally weighted, HSAT proposes to choose the same amount of indicators for every dimension⁶. The chosen indicators should cover both sides of the human security – the security (*freedom from fear*) and the availability (*freedom from want*) of the particular resource. Moreover, their values should be generated, collected and published on regular basis with pre-determined intervals to ensure the possibility of data inter-comparability over a longer period of time.

Step 2 – Collecting and Assigning the Values. By using both the national and international statistics, collected and published by offices of statistics, the World Bank, the OECD, the EU, different agencies of the UN, the academia and international NGOs where the quantitative data is available or by exploiting extensive qualitative document analysis where it is not – the values for each of the indicators are collected for periods before and

⁶ Moreover, while there is no maximum amount of indicators (as a greater number generates better and more objective analysis), the minimum count should be at least 3 indicators for every dimension (the total minimum count of indicators – 21). It is based on the fact that choosing just 1 indicator may not capture the whole dimension, while choosing 2 indicators may lead to situations when both of them have different values and it may be hard to judge whether the respective Human Security dimension deteriorated or not due to a hazard.

after the hazard. The timeframe might vary depending of the particular research project.

Step 3 – Attributing the Indexes. After collecting values, an index needs to be assigned to every indicator based on its performance in the particular timeframe by comparing values before and after the hazard event. An index ranging from “0” to “1” is attributed to all indicators: “0” – if the value after a disaster is better than before it, or there is no change; “0.5” – if the value after a disaster is insignificantly worse than before it; “1” – if the value after a disaster is significantly worse than before it.

Step 4 – the Evaluation. All 7 dimensions are evaluated by their overall transformations due to a hazard based on the sum of all indexes, which is divided by the maximum possible value (the largest possible deterioration, as if every indicator generates an index “1”). The attained result can be expressed as a percentage describing how much the particular human security dimension has deteriorated after a disaster. The evaluation can also be expressed by the following mathematical formula (Bambals, 2012: 131):

$$\Delta G(G_2-G_1) = \frac{i_1+i_2+\dots+i_n}{i_{\max} \times n}$$

ΔG – transformation of the objective human security in the particular period;

G_2 – period after the disaster;

G_1 – period before the disaster;

i – the value of index (e.g. ranging from 0-1)

i_{\max} – max possible value of the index (e.g. “1”)

n – the total count of chosen indicators for the particular human security dimension

Step 5 – Transformations of the Objective Human Security. To analyse the transformations of objective human security after the hazard event, first, the security dimensions can be compared each to another to discover the most and the least affected ones. It may also be useful for developing a tailored approach to disaster relief policies, as well as regarding possible DRR (disaster risk reduction) and DRM (disaster risk management) activities. Second, the overall deterioration of human security can be calculated in several ways. First method – by dividing the sum of all indexes by the total number of indicators (if the max value for each is “1”), thus leading to a percentage of the overall security deterioration (if compared to the possible maximal deterioration). Second method – “the weakest link” – may suggest that the whole human security has deteriorated by the degree to which one of its dimensions has deteriorated the most (Bambals, 2012). However, the final analysis does not exclude other possible methods.

Measuring Subjective Human Security

In comparison to the objective side, subjective human security is rather hard to compare in terms of *'before'* and *'after'* the disaster event, as there are no such ready-made social surveys, interviews, focus groups or other methods acquiring the information about people's human security concerns on a regular basis throughout the world. Moreover, even the disaster researchers themselves argue that hazards are usually analysed after their occurrence. From such a perspective, subjective human security is better analysed by using the method of surveying people of the affected geographical space (town, region, country) and asking the respondents to evaluate themselves how their security across the whole spectrum of 7 dimensions has transformed.

From the outset, in addition to the routine dynamics of a weighted sample based on the size of the particular population and division by its gender, age and other factors, any social survey attempt should take into account the fact that security is a social construction. It is particularly true regarding subjective human security, which attempts to measure how the sense (or perception) of security may change due to disasters. In such a context, it is necessary to include in the sample respondents from the geographical locations both in close proximity to the disaster epicentre and from more distant locations. If the survey includes a question on the particular distance from the epicentre, the analysis of security perception and its variations can be conducted on the basis of such variable.

The Human Security Analytical Tool proposes to measure the deterioration of subjective human security in 3 different ways (by using the same social survey). First, the survey respondents have to evaluate themselves the changes experienced throughout each of 7 security dimensions. In order to achieve this, each dimension is operationalised with the help of at least 2 survey questions, of which the first covers the security side, while the second – the development or availability side. By using a Likert-type scale matrix of choices in the questionnaire (e.g. the possible answers: "completely agree", "tend to agree", "don't know", "tend to disagree", "completely disagree", which can be transformed later in numeric values as +2, +1, 0, -1, -2), the answers can be mathematically analysed leading to similar comparisons between the security dimensions as in the case of objective human security.

Second, the respondents should evaluate the actions and their effectiveness (in terms of providing the necessary security meeting their needs) of different state and non-state security providers (security constellations). For inter-comparable results the respondents should evaluate the whole disaster management cycle – including their performance before, during and after the particular event. On top of that,

trust of different security providers should be evaluated (also on a Likert scale basis) ranging from the proximate (family, friends, neighbours) to more distant ones, such as the government and international organisations. The proposed methodological approach suggests that trust and positive evaluation of security providers is inversely proportional to the decrease of human security. Consequently, the more people trust each other and the security providers, the more stable and resilient is the whole system against external shocks.

Third, the respondents have to evaluate their perception of danger on a numeric scale (e.g. from 1-10) of different threats and fears (each applying to one of the human security dimensions). The acquired results allow not only the comparison of each of the subjective human security dimensions to its peers, but also with the responses given in the context of a particular disaster case. In such a manner, the survey allows identifying, which human security concerns and threats people fear on daily basis and how the rankings may be rearranged in the aftermath of a particular disaster event.

Advantages and Disadvantages of the Human Security Analytical Tool

The Human Security Analytical Tool has various advantages in contrast to other previously practised methods and approaches for disaster research. First, it suggests that neither society nor security is homogeneous or abstract. Therefore, it permits a systematic and comprehensive analysis allowing the determination of which domains of security and among which segments of society have deteriorated due to a disaster. In comparison to the previous efforts in the field, the suggested approach sets a step further in making security measurable. Second, HSAT analyses the major point of reference in both human security and disaster research – the individual and his or her attitude towards threats and the means to avoid them. It includes their trust of possible providers of security. Finally, the approach can be applicable to any society in the world (as long as the surveys can be conducted and the statistics collected), including in the most developed states, which have previously been excluded from the interest area of disaster researchers. Other advantages and disadvantages are summarised in Table 1.

Table 1 Comparison of advantages and disadvantages of the Human Security Analytical Tool

Objective Human Security	Subjective Human Security
+	+
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Allows measuring security changes throughout all 7 human security dimensions with quantitative results; • Ease of access – many indicators are publicly available and updated on regular basis; • Compares Human Security dimensions each to another; • Applicable to any country and disaster (as long as the statistics are collected) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Measures the basic unit and point of reference of the Human Security concept – the individual and his or her sense of security; • Generates quantitative, measurable, reliable and inter-comparable data and results; • An inclusive method allowing the measurement of how the security perception of the whole society changes (reaching beyond the physically affected people)
–	–
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Not every Human Security dimension has a rich number of ready-made indicators; • While the method foresees a measurement of security transformations in categories of 'before' and 'after' the disaster, it does not provide a static measurement; • Interval of 1 year (which is often true regarding publication of new sets of indicator values) may not be sufficient when analysing micro-regional disasters in shorter periods of time. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social surveys may be a relatively expensive method; • Hard to determine the threshold of time, above which the results regarding either trust or threat perception may become irrelevant.

Source: author's own material

Conclusions

Human security as a concept and potentially as a new methodology can offer various benefits to disaster researchers from the perspective of social sciences unearthing some possibly new angles of analysis. While a natural hazard becomes a disaster when it meets vulnerable people and, in addition to the physical damage implicates also social consequences, human security is a concept behind concerns, risks and fears (including of disasters) at individual and societal levels. To meet securely the challenges, people have to develop *securitabilities* and build tailored *security strategies* based upon interlinked and self-sufficient networks of security providers – *security constellations*. It is not yet clear, whether *securitability* is the next evolutionary stage, replacing the concepts of *vulnerability* and *resilience* in

the international discourse of disaster management. Or should *resilience*, becoming more and more mainstreamed in both the academia and policy-making, adapted to the ideas of *securitability* and, in addition to “bounce back to the normal”, include the notion of regaining one’s sense of security. In such a way, learning and developing throughout the disaster cycle, people could achieve new experiences making them more secure and capable to resist similar events in the future. Nevertheless, the Human Security Analytical Tool, yet to experience its approbation in a comparative cross-country analysis, proposes a new method for measuring security transformations in societies exposed to adverse impacts, such as disasters.

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PROVISION OF PRINCIPLES OF SUSTAINABILITY, COLLABORATION AND NETWORKING IN COMMUNITIES: THE APPROBATION OF METHODOLOGY FOR THE ASSESSMENT OF WELL-BEING

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Abstract

The aim of this article is to present a developed and also approbated methodology (in Salaspils Municipality, Latvia) for the evaluation and improvement of subjective well-being for communities. The main findings of the conducted research: a proven methodology for the evaluation and improvement of subjective well-being in communities based on the principles of sustainable development, collaboration and networking, which assists local authorities in improving the level of subjective well-being indicators, as well as to increase trust in a democratic society stimulating behavioural changes in the actors.

Keywords: Latvia, subjective well-being, municipality, citizens' involvement

Introduction

The well-being of society is an ancient issue – all societies try to find the best possible solutions for ensuring community welfare. Recently, when new approaches to studying community well-being are being developed, it is very important to analyse the process of evaluating it. The idea of measuring community or local government well-being is relatively new. It reflects the international activities, as well as grassroots efforts, by business leaders, activists, local politicians and other stakeholders to develop approaches that can help gather information to inform local decision-makers.

Traditionally, a nation's well-being is measured by macroeconomic indicators such as GDP or GNP. However, well-being is more than the accumulation of material wealth; it is also the satisfaction of everyday life, which could be subjectively assessed by a person (subjective well-being). At

the same time nowadays local governments are becoming more and more important regarding ensuring the well-being of the community, providing sustainable development of the administrative territory and including community members in the decision making processes.

Taking into account all the above, the aim of this article is to present a developed and also approbated methodology (in Salaspils Municipality, Latvia) for the evaluation and improvement of subjective well-being for communities.

The main tasks of this article are:

- to identify new developments of inclusive local management;
- to research good practice in researching well-being at local municipal level;
- to present the results of the approbated methodology for evaluating well-being at the community level; and
- to develop a model of social inclusion in the planning processes in the municipality.

Research methods used: scientific literature studies, several stages of focus group discussions, statistical data analysis, SPIRAL methodology, and scenario method.

Theoretical Background

1. Developments of Inclusive Local Management

In general terms, local government institutions can be considered repositories of knowledge in the form of laws, regulations or specific cases. These institutions provide and deliver public services that are of key importance to citizens and business. They enable local governments to provide citizens, business and other organisations with convenient access to local services and opportunities of collaboration via different channels, including information communication technologies (ICT) (Lean et al., 2009).

As planning could be considered as one of the most significant functions of local government, citizens' involvement in planning processes are crucial in terms of inclusive local management. In the 1960s, the conventional role of spatial planning, based on a rational approach centred on the planners' technical skills, predefined goals and a positivist research tradition, was challenged. After an initial pluralist response of advocacy planning (Davidoff, 1967), a new school of planning gained adherence. These authors (see e.g. Forester, 1989; Healey, 1997; Innes, 1995), often grouped under the label of collaborative planning and inspired by critical theorists such as Habermas, share the interest in the social processes of knowledge production and communication and the power embedded in

these processes (see e.g. Fischler, 2000; Healey, 2004). Participation in the planning process is emphasised and the main role of the planner is that of a facilitator (Innes, 1995). Studies of this approach include those focussing on power and the planner as a voice of the powerless (Forester, 1989), those looking at rhetoric and planning as storytelling (Throgmorton, 1996), social construction of knowledge (Innes, 1995) and institutional approaches (Healey, 1997). Collaborative planning gained a lot of influence on planning theory but has also been criticised for ignoring actual power relations in society and for a naïve belief in a perfect dialogue (Allmendinger, 2009; Flyvbjerg, 1998; Hillier, 2000). Other criticisms concern its costs in terms of loss of integrity for the individual and incompatibility with the representative democracy model (Allmendinger, 2009; Fischler, 2000). In subsequent work, the collaborative approach has been described as taking two different turns (Monno and Khakee, 2012). Parallel to the collaborative, consensus-based model is the more radical participatory model that acknowledges power relations, conflict and productive ways of working with these (Aylett, 2010; Monno and Khakee, 2012).

At a local level, the designation community governance has included collaborative processes where the arena of public decision making involves the provision of public services as part of the community, or the representation of community interests to external agencies ensuring social participation (Edwards & Woods, 2004). Social participation may be understood to mean that stakeholders are (or have been) directly or indirectly involved or are, (or have been) impacted by development (Braun, 2010). In this context, Nzeadibe and Anyadike (2012) are of the view that the forms which the process of social participation can take may include provision of information that can assist people in problem-solving; consultation and seeking and encouraging people's feedback; direct engagement with the community and public and collaboration by building a steady partnership with the community and initiating a process of inclusively developing ideas, decisions and alternatives. Such an approach can empower the local communities to contribute towards policy and decision-making. An important role in decision-making process is played by local NGOs. Through a community governance framework NGOs become stakeholders responsible for working in partnership with other community members to bring about particular types of benefit to both their clients and the wider local community. Governance is seen here as both a technique of engagement and a moral commitment to full citizenship which include empowerment, local responsiveness and social inclusion (O'Toole et al., 2010). In Table 1 is outlined the different dimensions and types of practice for social inclusion.

Table 1 Social Inclusion Dimensions

Social Inclusion Type	Inclusive Principles	User Rights
Social	Communication and accountability	The right to leisure activities
Economic	Efficiency and equity	The right to paid work and a decent standard of living including wages and welfare benefits
Institutional	Responsiveness, effectiveness and anti-discrimination	Legal rights (voting, relationship)
Territorial	Community transport, communications,	The right to assemble in public spaces
Symbolic	Case management or group interventions that increase self-esteem, capacities and abilities, expand future prospects.	Respect for integrity of different identities and sub-cultures

Source: adapted from Wearing, 2011

The flow of gaining user rights in Table 1 follows a logic that requires formal social support interventions through service participation and inclusive practice. This framework suggests that the social elements of inclusive principles includes familial and other social supports such as those through family members and friends, the labour market, neighbourhood, local service organisations, and associations such as sporting groups. Economic elements include resources such as wages, savings, assets, social security, and benefits from the market economy. Institutional elements include justice, health, criminal justice and justice education. Territorial elements include issues of demography (migration) and accessibility such as transport, communications, and access to services in deprived areas. Symbolic elements include identity issues, self-esteem, social visibility, basic abilities, interests and motivations, and future prospects.

It has been considered that participation in decision-making processes promote the sustainable development of community. For example, the United Nations Conference on Sustainable Development (Rio+20) emphasises: “We underscore that broad public participation and access to information and judicial and administrative proceedings are essential to the promotion of sustainable development” (United Nations, 2012: principle 43, p. 14), and moreover, “we acknowledge the role of civil society and the importance of enabling all members of civil society to be actively engaged in sustainable development” (United Nations, 2012, principle 44, p. 14). In addition, citizens’ participation is said to engender civic competence

by building democratic skills, overcoming feelings of powerlessness and alienation, and contributing to the legitimacy of the political system (Soma & Vatn, 2014)

The strategic importance of urban governance in achieving a more sustainable future is increasingly acknowledged (Smedby & Neij, 2013). As early as 1992, Agenda 21 emphasised the local level for meeting sustainability challenges, by calling for the adoption of an institutionalised participatory approach to sustainable urban development and the strengthening of the capacity of local governing bodies to deal with sustainability challenges (United Nations, 1992). The EU Leipzig charter on sustainable urban development also highlighted the need for integrated urban development and governance in addition to national frameworks of governance (Leipzig Charter on Sustainable European Cities, 2007).

Since the 1990s, various strategies for urban governance, such as various types of campaign, information, voluntary agreements and green procurement (Bulkeley, 2010; Bulkeley and Kern, 2006), have been developed by local governments to meet the demand on urban leadership for sustainability; a demand associated with increased competition between cities, local political mandates, a concern for risk, and dependency reduction (Hambleton et al., 2002). Sweden has been a pioneer in urban sustainability, and more specifically environmental governance (Granberg and Elander, 2007). In 2004, the Swedish Government launched the project Building-Living Dialogue, which was collaboration based on a voluntary agreement between private actors, municipalities, a number of state authorities and the government itself (Building-Living Dialogue, 2007). Within the Building-Living Dialogue project, several programmes were developed on the topic of urban governance for sustainability, one of them being the Constructive Dialogue. The Constructive Dialogue, first applied in 2004 and finalised in 2009, was an initiative towards collaborative and integrated urban governance processes to result in a more sustainable built environment by 2025. The purpose of the Constructive Dialogue was to develop methods for constructive dialogues in urban development, involving actors from various sectors and potentially a facilitator to promote knowledge sharing and common values. Four municipalities joined in 2004, Hofors, Kalmar, Karlstad and Malmö, and two in 2007, Stockholm and Gothenburg (SNBHBP, 2007, Appendix 2). The Constructive Dialogue in these cities was mainly financed by the participating parties themselves and included several local initiatives. In parallel to these local initiatives, the Constructive Dialogue included meetings, study visits and reporting at national level; these activities also included the Swedish National Board of Housing, Building and planning, which is the authority implementing the

national government's policies relating to the built environment and land, as well as water resources, and the County Administrative Board.

2. The Evaluation of Well-being in Communities

Indicators of community well-being, sometimes called “benchmarks” or “vital signs”, are now used extensively by nation-states, regional governments, urban and rural areas, and even neighbourhoods (Besleme, Maser, & Silverstein, 1999). The Community Indicators Consortium lists and provides links to community well-being projects from around the world, including sixteen from Canada alone (Community Indicators Consortium, 2011). In the United States there are over two hundred municipalities, using some form of community well-being measurement (Gahin, & Paterson, 2011). One of the earliest and ongoing examples of efforts to track well-being is Jacksonville, Florida's Community Council Quality of Life indicator program. The council tracks one hundred indicators of well-being covering nine themes (Besleme, Maser, & Silverstein, 1999). Other well-known examples include Sustainable Seattle (Sustainable Seattle, 1998) and Sustainable Calgary (Keough, 2007). Thus, the current state of knowledge about indicators is both in-depth and extensive. What still remains challenging is how to “more effectively translate knowledge and commitment into action” in order to achieve the desired changes to community well-being (Besleme, Maser, & Silverstein, 1999).

Another direction in researching well-being is to measure the quality of life (QOL), especially it has been used in researching urban areas, as over 80% of European citizens live in urban areas; in addition, the cities are at the same time centres of production, innovation, employment, and culture, and loci of segregation, deprivation, and ethnic conflict. Amongst the notable most recent surveys are the works of Craglia et al. (2004), Mulligan et al. (2004), Mulligan and Carruthers (2011) and Lambiri, Biagi, and Royuela (2007).

One of the successful approaches how to research well-being in municipalities is using the so-called SPIRAL (*Societal Progress Indicators for the Responsibility of All*) methodology, recently developed by the experts from the Council of Europe under supervision and inspiration of Samuel Thirion, which provide the way to define and measure well-being from the subjective point of view of the persons themselves. It is a common set of fundamental values for society's progress towards the improved capacity to ensure the well-being of all through the development of co-responsibility. This methodology also ensures that such progress is jointly made with inhabitants and other social stakeholders at local level, tying it with the regional, national, European and global levels. A community of experimenters (governments and other local and regional players,

companies, hospitals, schools, associations, NGOs, researchers, etc.) was involved in developing this methodology, which expanded little by little in order to produce the methodology and make it available to as many people as possible (Council of Europe, 2008). The methodology has been already used in many countries and with good results.

Research and Discussion

The SPIRAL methodology was approbated in 8 different European municipalities within URBACT II programme project “TOGETHER for territories of co-responsibilities” – Salaspils (Latvia), Mulhouse (France), Braine-L’alleud (Belgium), Pergina (Italy), Kavala (Greece), Covilha (Portugal), Botkyrka (Sweden), and Debica (Poland). After approbation in these cities, the range of the cities where this methodology was used also increased (URBACT II, 2010).

During the research, a Local Support Group (LSG) in each municipality was created which brings together all relevant stakeholders having a stake in the policy challenge addressed by the municipality. LSG involves local authorities (including different departments within the local administration), beneficiaries/ users, NGOs, public agencies, the private sector and the civil society (citizens and inhabitants) and has proven to be a key component in the design and implementation of efficient urban policies. By collecting the answers to open-end questions, such as “What is well-being for you?”, “What is ill-being for you?”, “What do you do or could do for well-being?” the indicators and their evaluations were gained, they are the main outputs of the methodology. The indicators are divided in 8 main groups:

1. Access to means of living;
2. Living environment;
3. Relations with institutions;
4. Personal relations;
5. Social balance;
6. Personal balance;
7. Feelings of well-being/ill-being; and
8. Attitudes and initiatives (URBACT II, 2009).

The software designed by the Council of Europe updates the results of homogenous group findings, the experts put in the citizens’ written criteria data, allocating them to the right indicator group and giving estimates. Results of the research are shown in Figure1.

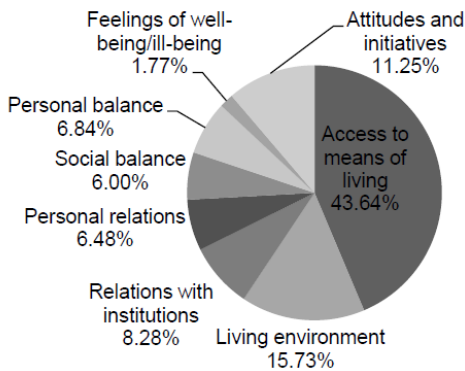


Figure 1 Indicators Synthesis of all homogeneous groups in Salaspils Municipality in 2011, %

Source: Results of Salaspils 25 homogenous groups – results gained from 3 meetings September, 2010 until May 2011 (from 2867 answers)

The results showed that for citizens subjective well-being factors are also very important – factors like attitudes and initiatives, personal balance and personal relationship and that not only objective factors – like income, certain goods – are determinant as were assumed before research in the municipality.

Next step of the methodology was developing the Local Action plan, which brings concrete solutions to problems and challenges identified by citizens for improving local policies, and dialogue between the society and the Managing Authorities. In the Salaspils municipality a Local Action plan for 2012-2014 was prepared taking into account the existing Development Programme. There were organised several meetings to bring together the administration of the municipality and the LSG in order to identify certain activities, to prioritise them, as well as to define intervention logs. For each activity there were indicated the responsible person (from the administration of the municipality and from the LSG), as well as certain financial resources. Activities mainly related to the social sector, e.g. to develop an NGO centre, to organise science camps and a science festival. Every quarter a meeting was organised in order to monitor the implementation of activities, identifying different challenges and providing solutions to them. The responsiveness of the meeting was relatively high – involved members of the LSG felt responsible for their actions and their contribution was high. These processes promoted also the next development stage of management of the municipality – it was becoming more inclusive, society became involved in decision-making processes, as well as participating in the planning processes, including financial planning.

Taking into account the necessity of the involvement of stakeholders in planning processes, there was developed and approbated a model of the involvement of society to the development of the budget of the municipality (see Figure 2).

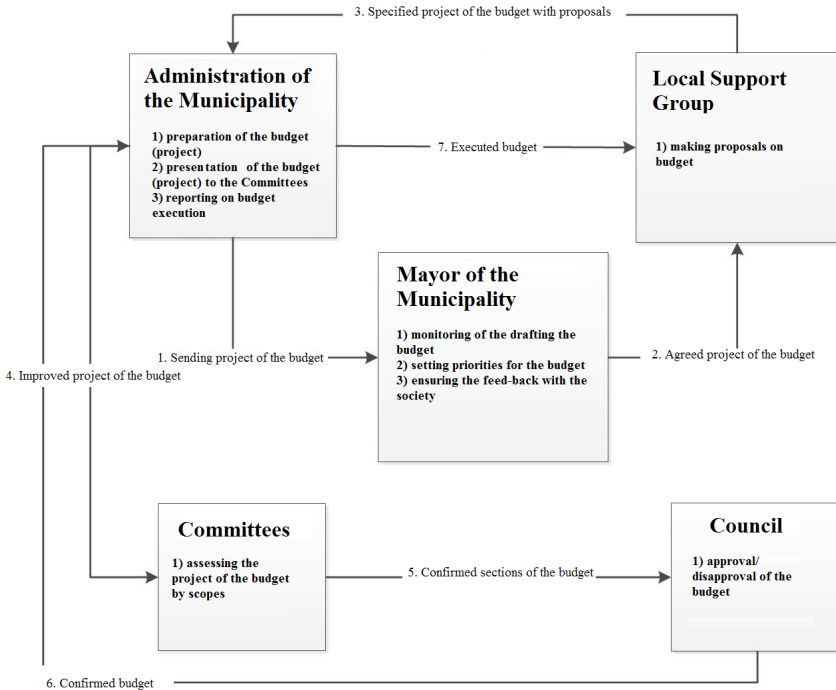


Figure 2 Interaction model for society involvement in budget planning (Salaspils Municipality case)

Source: created by the authors

The administration of a specific municipality, based on the planning documents, prepared the project of the budget for the current year. The Mayor of the municipality sent the budget project to the members of the LSG to become familiar with it and giving it at least 2 weeks. Later, during the LSG meeting, the administration of the municipality presented the budget, during which all members of the LSG expressed opinions and suggestions, which were recorded. After the meeting, members of the LSG were given a week to send proposals in writing. Afterwards, the concrete positions of the budget were discussed during the budget committee meeting taking into account the proposals of the LSG and decisions made

on acceptance or rejection. The members of the LSG could also participate during the committee meetings. In the end, the council of the municipality approved or disapproved the municipal budget. As an annex to the budget was attached the list of proposals with an analysis – what was taken into account and what was not, mentioning also the reason for that decision. After the implementation of the budget, the administration of the municipality reported on the results during a meeting the LSG.

Conclusions

One of the most appropriate methods of how to measure well-being at local level is using indicators as they allow decision-makers to make decisions and get feedback regarding the progress achieved with regard to well-being. They can also provide information regarding how the current well-being status developed and/or could be influenced in the future.

The methodology (SPIRAL) presented for evaluation and improvement of subjective well-being in communities based on principles of sustainable development, collaboration and networking, assists local authorities to improve the level of subjective well-being indicators, as well as to increase the trust in democratic society stimulating behavioural changes in the actors. Research showed that increasing the well-being of community is inextricably linked to the citizens' involvement in decision-making process using the so-called co-responsibility approach – this means that the process of increasing well-being is done in close co-operation with the community. A comparison of results of several countries has confirmed that community involvement in municipality decision-making promotes a supportive attitude of the community to municipality decisions and a better understanding of decisions taken by the municipality.

The interaction model for society involvement in budget planning approved in Salaspils municipality clearly demonstrates the implementation of the principles of collaboration and networking in planning and decision-making processes. Involvement of society in financial planning promotes dialogue between the society and managing authorities, as well as providing the social inclusion of different social groups of society.

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MAIN ISSUES REGARDING MODERNISATION OF TORT LAW IN LATVIA

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Abstract

The article is focused on explaining the role and functions of tort law in the legal system of Latvia, as well as the need for the modernisation in order to, *inter alia*, ensure a more efficient protection of the victim's rights to receive a compensation for the harm unlawfully caused to him or her and a more consistent and uniform interpretation and application of the law. In addition to general considerations on the issues related to modernisation of the law, the article addresses several particular areas that could be improved by amending, supplementing and harmonising the legal framework in Latvia taking into account the jurisprudence and doctrine of other jurisdictions and legislative guidelines prepared by acknowledged research groups in Europe.

Key words: Modernisation, Civil Liability, Tort Law, Delict, Damage, Latvia.

Introduction

This article will briefly outline some of the areas of tort law in Latvia that the author believes ought to be improved following the ideas emphasised by the doctrine, guidelines intended to contribute to the harmonization of tort law, jurisprudence of other European countries and other factors. The article seeks to provide a concise and comprehensible view on the issues related to tort law in Latvia and necessity for modernisation of the legal framework thereof as the reader may not be familiar with Latvian tort law.

What is tort law?

As the article deals with the main issues of tort law in Latvia, the notion of tort law ought to be explained. First, a distinction must be drawn between private and public law. In principle, the latter deals with legal relations between the state and an individual, whereas the former is concerned with legal relations between natural persons and private entities (Neimanis, 2004). This explanation, of course, to some extent over-simplifies the distinction as there are several areas such as labour law,

commercial law, international law, and conflict of laws, where the elements of both private and public law are present.

Second, private law seeks regulate the legal relationship between private parties in various specific areas covered by national law or international treaties, customary law etc. However, in most countries there is a civil code or separate laws usually containing the general rules; the law of obligations, the property law, the family law, and the succession law as evidenced by the Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch (or BGB) (Bürgerliches Gesetzbuch) – the civil code of Germany serving as a template for many legislators in drafting the general rules of private law in several jurisdictions and whence there has been even a larger indirect influence on even a larger number of legislators around the world (Kalniņš, 1977).

Third, the law of obligations usually contains rules on contract law and tort law (law of delicts). The contract law mainly deals with formation, validity, termination, fulfilment, altering the legal relationship of parties based on mutual consent and provides rules on various terms and conditions of several agreements that are to be applied insofar the parties have not agreed upon such terms and conditions (Torgāns, 2006). In short, contract law covers most aspects of contractual relations between private parties. Although the presented explanation would seem rather superficial and would be subject to various exceptions and supplements it serves well to highlight the main difference between contract and tort law. The latter is not based upon a contract, i.e., a mutual consent, but merely a breach of a person's rights giving rise to an action for damages or compensation (Torgāns, 2008). Hence, the contractual relations established by entering into an agreement by the parties are contrasted by the ones that arise independent of a contract often referred to as extra-contractual relations.

A contract is defined by Section 1511 of Civil Law of Latvia by indicating that a contract within the widest meaning of the word is any mutual agreement between two or more persons on entering into, altering, or ending lawful relations. A contract in the narrower sense applied here is a mutual expression of intent made by two or more persons based on an agreement, with the purpose of establishing obligations rights (Translation of the Civil law). Section 1512 further explains that the essence of any contractual obligation includes a promise made by one party and its acceptance by a second party (a unilateral contract), or a mutual promise and its acceptance by both parties (a bilateral or multilateral contract) (Translation of the Civil law). The notion of tort is expressly set by the Civil Law, Section 1635 and provides that every breach of rights, that is, every wrongful act per se, as a result of which harm has been caused (also moral injury), shall give the person who suffered the harm therefrom the right to

claim satisfaction from the infringer, insofar as he or she may be held at fault for such act (Translation of the Civil law).

Black's Law Dictionary that is amongst the most popular and most often quoted law dictionaries explains tort as a civil wrong, other than breach of contract, for which a remedy may be obtained in the form of damages or a breach of a duty that the law imposes on persons who stand in a particular relation to one another (Garner, 2009). Tort law could be defined as a body of rights and obligations concerning legal relations arising out of a tort (civil liability for a tort). The term *delict* comes from the Latin word *dēlictum*, explained as an activity, which falls short of the approved standard of conduct, misdeed, fault or offence (Glare, 1968). Although, historically the meaning of the word encompassed various violations of rights, it has been eventually narrowed down to a breach of a person's rights causing damage within the confines of private law (Zemītis, 2006), thereby excluding breaches of administrative law, criminal law, professional ethics or standard of conduct subject to disciplinary measures etc. For example, a criminal offence may or may not result in tortious liability depending on whether the penal code requires the harmful consequences as a precondition to liability (Krašņiņš, 2000).

An anticipated inquiry on the relation between the terms tort and delict may entail the aforementioned considerations. Some authors tend to use one them both in certain contexts attaching a specific meaning to it, but provided the Latin origin the term delict is more often used to form the respective term in Romance languages, whereas the term tort is more extensively used in English speaking countries (Duhaime). The Latvian law does not use the term delict, but provides various designations throughout the Law of Obligations part instead. Thus, it must be noted that usually the terms tort and delict can be used interchangeably, however, tort is a term more commonly used in common law jurisdictions.

Tort law in the context of Latvian private law could be explained as a body of rules concerned with rights and obligations arising out of an extra-contractual breach of rights causing pecuniary or non-pecuniary damage. For instance, on the one hand, the law does provide a right to the person suffering damages to bring an action against the liable party for compensation, on the other hand, it obliges the latter to restore the previous state of property, if possible, pay a compensation for psychological harm inflicted by the breach of rights or the emotional distress, pay a compensation for lost profits the victim intended to gain caused by the breach etc. (Torgāns, 2008).

The main function of tort law is revealed by the explanation itself – it is to compensate for the loss caused by the tortfeasor (Jones, Dugdale, 2010). In cases of damage to the property it may be relatively easy to assess the amount of damages caused to another as it is possible to analyse the market

value of the property at the time the damage was caused. It is slightly more complicated and yet feasible to evaluate a business or earnings of a person that have been negatively affected by the harmful act or omission. By analysing similar circumstances or by employing other conceivable criteria the court seeks to measure the pecuniary damage and determine a just and adequate compensation. Such compensation serves to remedy the wrong and corresponds to the material loss in fact caused; insofar a causal link between the misconduct and the harm can be established. In cases of non-pecuniary harm, when an injury is caused to a person, the court is not charged with a duty to evaluate the pain and suffering of the victim in monetary terms, but rather perceive and assess the severity and the extent of the harm and award a proportional compensation. The criteria for determining the amount of the compensation have been subject to polemics amongst the practitioners and academics as the law does not provide certain and strict guidelines (Joksts, 2005; Voroncovs, 2007), therefore the amounts tend to differ from case to case quite considerably, which may at times render the outcome diverse and unpredictable.

Although, other contentious functions of tort law are also often set forth such as education and ombudsman function, which to some extent the tort law may have (Allen, Feldthusen, 2006), similarly to criminal law, the tort law definitely serves to deter the tortfeasor and others from violating the rights of another. Nevertheless, historically the tortfeasor was physically punished for the injury that was caused by him or her, in the modern world the liability for a tort may not be in a form of corporal punishment (Sinaiskis, 1935; Torgāns, 2008; Torgāns, 2006; Brīvmanis, 1939). Despite the decrease in rigorousness, the liability and the obligation to compensate is not frequently wilfully undertaken and borne by the liable person. By having a justifiable negative effect on the interests of the liable party the person is thereby encouraged to act in a more diligent and careful manner, to take precautionary measures to prevent similar harm of being caused or a risk of harm materializing in future etc. In theory, others may be deterred from pursuing a potentially or intentionally harmful activity akin to the one in question as the liability is imposed to the liable person *ipso facto*. It must be pointed out that the compensation must be adequate to the harm caused by the tortfeasor and it should focus on deterrence *per se* as the tort law is foremost deals with restitution, compensation and reconciliation rather than punishment or deterrence leaving that to public law (Torgāns, 2014). Therefore, the attempts to deter the tortfeasor or other possible tortfeasors in future may only be carried out within the boundaries of a fair and adequate monetary remedy.

Another aspect of tort liability that ought to be elaborated is the psychological function thereof. It has been argued that every civil wrong creates injustice that must be remedied (Sinaiskis, 1935). Historically, this

was done by virtue of pursuing a vendetta against the tortfeasor's kinsmen that the victim or his relatives were entitled to (Osipova, 2004; Zemītis, 2006). This was later substituted by blood money (wergild) that was paid as a "price" for causing injury, death, property damage etc. (Osipova, 2004; Zemītis, 2006). However, the idea of reconciling the involved parties is one of the functions of civil liability in today's society replacing the act of a vengeance by an adequate, fair and reasonable monetary compensation that to some extent has the psychological and reconciling effect upon the involved parties.

The Necessity for Modernisation

One must take into account that the legal framework concerning general private law of Latvia can be dated back to mid-19th century or earlier (Kalniņš, 1972). The world has changed significantly since then, but the wording of the law has not. This, of course, is not to say the law is thus not applicable to the legal relations of the modern world, but it would benefit from various adjustments taking into account the specific features of the existing legal relationships today (Torgāns, 2013). The general rules of tort law should not be focused on particular issues or cases, but rather provide a general scope of protection and universal rules, e.g., on determining and apportioning civil liability in case of multiple tortfeasors, set the preconditions for civil liability, provide an insight on how the damages are calculated and the compensation is to be determined as well as limitations of liability and other general issues. *Lex specialis* may be included in laws other than Civil law.

The purpose of modernisation is not to amend the wording of the law per se, but rather to improve it where it is necessary in order to achieve the goals intended by the legislator in a more efficient and appropriate manner. The first and foremost aim of the tort law is the protection of the victim and ensuring his rights to obtain an adequate compensation for the damage caused by the tortfeasor (Jones, Dugdale, 2010). The modernisation may be connected with adjusting the rules of law to an existing and well-functioning legal system; the guidelines intended to contribute to the harmonisation of tort law, the ideas presented by the doctrine for instance etc. By virtue of modernising the legal framework legislator is opting for a better wording of the law that is more efficient, harmonised with *lex specialis* of the particular field and serves to protect the interests of the person, which has suffered loss as a result of a delict and is entitled to seek compensation thereof and yet does not unjustifiably limit the rights of the tortfeasor.

As modern technologies have been developed to an extent that may have not been foreseen centuries ago and the Civil law of Latvia has been noticeably influenced by Roman law dating back 6th century or earlier, the general law laid out therein needs to provide a scope for various special norms addressing specific torts such as injuries caused by ultra-hazardous activities, cyber torts etc. New possible torts often suggest that the level of protection must at least meet the one granted in other cases, if no particular circumstances imply a necessity for a higher level of protection.

Another aspect in favour of modernisation is that there are several discrepancies and contradictions between various special laws and the general rules of tort law. Such spheres as product liability, environmental liability and others have been influenced by European Union law, whereas the general rules of tort law imply that the liability for ultra-hazardous activities does not apply to non-bodily harm (Kubilis, 2014). Also the test of foreseeability of damage may be applied to pecuniary damage, but is not expressly permitted in cases of extra-contractual liability. Furthermore, some jurisdictions in Europe have dealt with and are familiar with rather complex legal issues such as wrongful birth, multi-causal harm, loss of a chance et al. The particular situations are not addressed by Latvian law. In certain cases, however, it may be argued that those issues would not require a legislative intervention, but it is rather a matter of jurisprudence and doctrine (Kubilis, 2013). Such issues as foreseeability of damage, shifting the burden of proof in certain cases may, however, require a change of the wording of the law. According the general law, the special norms addressing tort law, as well as harmonisation of legal framework, where it is necessary, could provide a more efficient, broader and more predictable general rules for extra-contractual liability.

Obstacles

Although the pros of modernisation mostly do outweigh the cons, there are always several obstacles in the way of introducing significant changes to the legal framework.

First, the legal practitioners, as well as the courts and governmental institutions, are familiar with the law of torts and are not inclined to adapt to a new set of rules or significant changes. Adjustments to the existing legal framework may entail inconvenience and uncertainty regarding their interpretation and application by the courts and therefore to some may not seem to be worth the gain of such legislative intervention at all. Certain aspects of liability such as causation is not usually explicitly addressed by the statutory law in other jurisdictions as well, but those aspects may be extensively discussed in the legal doctrine, to which references may be made by the court in the absence of detailed statutory law. Jurisprudence

must be taken into account when the law is being applied and a case is reviewed on its merits according to Section 5(6) of Civil Procedure law of Latvia (Torgāns, 2011). The essential role of the jurisprudence could be derived from the principle of equality obliging the court to treat similar circumstances and interpret the law in the same manner. Hence, scholars and judges of Supreme Court may as well fill the gaps in the statutory law without amending the law by the legislator that in some cases even may actually be a more efficient solution in jurisdictions that do not follow the *stare decisis* doctrine (Neimanis, 2004).

Moreover, it does require much more time, resources and effort to prepare draft amendments of the general norms rather than creating a new law or amending and supplementing the special law as the general rules would have to encompass a much broader range of extra-contractual relationships, while it is absolutely acceptable for the special law to focus only on particular areas such as professional liability for instance. Amending the general rules of law by including regulations for a specific extra contractual relationship would be a seldom used approach (Neimanis, 2004). Furthermore, the intended wording could undergo various changes in the legislative process that may transform the intended improvement to a slightly different norm compared to the one that was originally proposed (Wintgens, 2007).

It must be noted that not every concept developed in another legal system is compatible with the national law and several legal concepts are subject to ongoing polemics such as the application of *prima facie* evidence, shifting the burden of proof and many others (Van Boom, Lukas, and Kissling 2007). In other words, legal concepts are often not as crystal clear and unanimously accepted as it would appear. Therefore, without thorough assessment of the counter arguments, a legislative step to implement a new concept might not reach the intended aim and the consequences may be adverse. Nonetheless, such debate prior to any amendments is an inevitable part of actually improving the legal system in general and especially tort law. Despite the aforementioned possible obstacles in the way of modernisation that in certain cases do prevent new concepts from being implemented, it is mandatory that every new idea is considered in light of those factors.

Some Particular Issues

The need for modernisation is best reflected by actual issues related to tort law in Latvia. It would not be possible to provide an exhaustive list of all possible aspects requiring some improvement herein, but the most important ones ought to be emphasised.

In Latvia, as well as, for example, in Germany statutory law regulates the law of torts quite briefly (Markesinis, Unberath, Johnston 2002) and the general rule in tort law throughout most legal systems is somewhat similar, i.e., the liable person has the obligation to compensate for the loss (also to pay a compensation for non-pecuniary damage), which has been caused by unlawful conduct. Although explanatory and more detailed rules usually entail the basic norm, the Latvian law tends to remain quite abstract and ambiguous thereby creating room for various interpretations of certain aspects of the law.

One of the issues in particular is connected with the preconditions of civil liability for a delict. The law does not explicitly provide a list of preconditions for general civil liability, however, jurisprudence has established three preconditions: misconduct that involves the assessment of some aspects of blameworthiness, pecuniary or non-pecuniary damage and a causal link between the two (Torgāns, 2008). Initially it was maintained that wrongdoers fault is one of the preconditions, however, the vague notion of fault has led to a conclusion that proving fault is not a prerequisite for inflicting the obligation to compensate for the damage caused (Torgāns, 2013). In recent years, the case law has shifted in favour of abandoning the assessment of a person's fault as a separate precondition for liability, but certain considerations of blameworthiness have been integrated in the analyses of misconduct. Contrary to the trend marked by the case law, the wording of the law has not been amended by eliminating several references to fault, degrees of fault, distribution of liability based on the extent of fault (Torgāns, 2005; Kārklīšs, 2005; Torgāns, 2013). Although, it could be argued that the references to fault may be interpreted in line with the generally supported approach that fault is not a precondition for civil liability, the law may need to be amended accordingly to conclude the paradigm shift; as despite the compelling stand of the courts and the doctrine the wording of the law has not been significantly changed in this regard despite the rather significant change at policy level.

Liability for Ultra-Hazardous Activities

Abandoning the concept of fault as a precondition for civil liability leads to another issue related to the so-called no-fault liability or strict liability. The strict liability under Civil law is generally applicable to a person engaging into an ultra-hazardous activity that creates a predictable, but inevitable risk of damage to another and imposed under special rules relating to the responsibility for the safety of goods and services, etc. Section 2347(2) of the Civil law provides that a person whose activity is associated with increased risk towards other persons (transport,

undertakings, construction, dangerous substances, etc.) shall compensate for losses caused by the source of increased risk, unless he or she proves that the damages have occurred due to force majeure, or due to the victim's own intentional act or gross negligence. If a source of increased risk has gone out of the possession of an owner, holder or user, through no fault of theirs, but as a result of unlawful actions of another person, such other person shall be liable for the losses caused. If the possessor (an owner, a depositor, a user) has also acted without justification, both the person who used the source of increased risk and its possessor may be held liable for the losses caused, having regard to what extent each person is at fault (Translation of the Civil law). It must be noted that the norm in questions was not originally included in the Civil law, but was enacted by amendments effective on 1 March 1993.

To begin with, the place of the norm in question in the Civil law would amongst the main issues related to the interpretation and application of Section 2347(2) of Civil law of Latvia on the liability for damage caused by abnormally dangerous activities. The said article is included in a subdivision on personal injury actions, which could suggest that the liability regime does not cover damage caused to property. In other countries mostly the rules on ultra-hazardous activities are included in parts of civil codes that are applicable to both pecuniary and non-pecuniary damage (Гражданский кодекс Российской Федерации, Civil Code of the Republic of Lithuania). The wording of Section 2347(2) also does not suggest that the legislator intended to address only the personal injury cases despite the fact that Section 2347(1) and Sections 2348-2351 are concerned with personal injury cases exclusively. Also there is *lex specialis* that also imposes strict liability, but does not limit it to personal injuries. These and other considerations lead one to believe that it is possible that the legislator did not wish to narrow the scope of the norm to personal injury cases as it could be concluded by using a systematic interpretation of the law. It must, however, be noted that this particular problem could be resolved more efficiently by applying the norm analogously to pecuniary damage caused by ultra-hazardous activities rather than approaching the issue on a legislative level.

In addition, the terminology employed by the Section 2347(2) does not clearly differentiate between activities that do create an abnormal risk of damage to another and that do not. It is not clear whether the source of danger is considered to be explosives, weapons, manufacturing plants, dangerous substances or an activity, whereby the said items or substances are being used. The examples set by the wording of the law also are somewhat misleading as a conclusion that motorised means of transport in 21st century creates an unforeseeable and abnormal risk and danger

would seem to be quite controversial. Some of the substances such as the poison or toxic substances may create such risk without being involved in any activities whatsoever (Vēbers, Torgāns, Šulcs, 1986). Therefore, the legal framework does not provide precise and unambiguous criteria to determine, if the particular activity is in fact abnormally dangerous, and does not set clear preconditions for the liability. Probably it could be proposed that a focus is shifted from the activity or substance itself to the particular surrounding circumstances as the same activity and substance may have different level of dangerousness depending on the situation, time, location and other factors. As regards the preconditions for such liability, one could suggest that liability does differ from the general liability for a tort as the strict liability regime in question is based on materialization of a certain identifiable risk created by an abnormally dangerous activity rather than depends on the conduct of the operator (Kubilis, 2014). Thus, the preconditions for liability would be: a certain risk created by an ultra-hazardous activity, materialisation of that risk, pecuniary or non-pecuniary damage, a causal link between the materialisation of the risk and the damage and an absence of liability exclusions (Kubilis, 2014).

These amongst other suggestions might contribute to harmonisation and modernisation of the interpretation and application of the liability for damage caused by abnormally dangerous activities in Latvia.

Notion of Misconduct as a Precondition for Civil Liability

According to Section 1635(1) of Civil law every breach of rights, that is, every wrongful act per se, as a result of which harm has been caused (also non-pecuniary damage), shall give the person who suffered the harm therefrom the right to claim satisfaction from the infringer, insofar as he or she may be held at fault for such act (Translation of the Civil law). Thus, under Latvian law the concept of wrongful conduct as a precondition for extra-contractual civil liability is not ambiguous in cases, where an explicit prohibition of certain conduct has been breached.

Latvian statutory law may be interpreted in a way that there is a general prohibition to inflict harm or injury to another person or cause damages or pure economic loss. In this regard the defences provided by the law ought to be taken into account, i.e., self-defence, the defence of consent (*volenti non fit iniuria*), the defence of exercising one's rights, thus eliminating the prerequisite of unlawfulness of a person's conduct and restrictions relating to the tortfeasor, i.e., children under age of 7, a person following an order of a superior are not to be held liable (Torgāns, 2008).

However, the wording every wrongful act per se may be slightly confusing, leading to believe that wrongfulness is derived from an

interdiction set by the law rather than related to any act or omission causing harm to another. Where a specific rule of law has been violated and thereby harm has been caused, it is clear that such act or omission could be considered wrongful under both interpretations, but where by exercising ones rights damage has been caused as the liable person did not take the necessary precautionary measures to avoid causing the harm and thus acted negligently, the notion of wrongfulness may not be as clear. Furthermore, in case one has exercised his or her rights it shall not be considered an unlawful act according to Section 1636 (Torgāns, 1998). Probably the law ought to be interpreted in a way that, if harm has been caused to another without lawful justification, it would constitute an unlawful act. The liable party may have acted intentionally or negligently, but in case it cannot be justified under any of the defences set forth by the law the conduct of the liable party would most probably constitute wrongful conduct as the precondition for civil liability. Save the aspect of blameworthiness, the wrongful conduct as a precondition of civil liability ought to be clarified by the legislator due to at least two reasons. First, it would put an end to the disagreements on whether or not fault is or a precondition for liability under Latvian statutory law, second, it would emphasise the importance of determining and assessing the standard of conduct not only in cases where provided by the law itself, but also taking into account such aspects as professional standard of conduct that bears a particular importance in medical malpractice cases, where an incomppliance with such standard may not always be instantly noticed.

Causation and Foreseeability of Damage

Another set of issues worth addressing is connected with causation and foreseeability of damage. A causal link as a precondition for civil liability has not been extensively examined by the doctrine and it is not universally agreed how to define what a causal link actually is or how to prove it in cases, where damages or compensation for non-pecuniary harm has been claimed (Kubilis, 2014). Although a causal link must always be established to impose liability for damage caused to another, the concept of causation is not defined or explained by the law and occasionally causal link is not interpreted in a coherent manner and thus, the liability is not determined correctly. A causal link as a precondition for civil liability serves to indicate one of the examples where it is not necessary for the legislator to amend the law, but it might be an efficient approach to provide doctrinal guidelines on how to deal with cases of multi-causal harm where lack of scientific knowledge or uncertain facts significantly hinder the possibility of proving the existence of a causal link (Kubilis, 2013). In those cases

the victim is not well protected under the existing legal framework as the causal link, e.g., in cases where a personal injury has been caused by exposure to asbestos, toxic waste or other chemicals several years before any noticeable manifestations can be observed, as a precondition for the liability of a person or a company may be hard to prove.

Also, in cases of multiple tortfeasors where their actions or omissions constitute concurrent (Art. 3:102, European Principles of Tort Law), alternative (Art. 3:103, European Principles of Tort Law), uncertain causes (European Principles of Tort Law, Art. 3:105) or in cases of *nova causa interveniens* (European Principles of Tort Law, Art. 3:104) the causal link under the existing legal framework may be hard to establish or the decision rendered may be unfair to one of the parties involved. It takes a complex assessment of the circumstances of the case to find a just solution in the mentioned types of cases and probably the victims could benefit from an amendment of the existing legal framework providing guidelines on how the liability should be determined and apportioned as suggested by the doctrine (Torgāns, 2009).

Also it has been acknowledged that a person shall not be liable for damage that the person could not have foreseen by amending the Civil Law on 1 July 2009 accordingly (Torgāns, 2013). The scope of Section 1779.¹ of the Civil Law addressing the issue at hand, however, may be unjustifiably limited to contractual liability. Hence, Section 1779.¹ of the Civil Law ought to be applicable when assessing the remoteness of damage and reduction of the liability insofar the damage has not been foreseeable in cases of extra-contractual liability.

Without going into very detailed issues related to causation, the aforementioned considerations could lead to a conclusion that the methodology of determining the causal link especially in the complex cases could be addressed by the legislator. Despite the lack of fundamental necessity for such a supplement to the legal framework, it could ensure a more predictable outcome of the cases, as well as more efficient protection of the victims in complex cases. As regards certain issues such as the foreseeability of the damage the law could be either amended or the existing norms could be applied analogously to extra-contractual liability.

Non-Pecuniary Damage

Several problems with the law on the compensations for personal injuries, especially non-pecuniary harm, can also be identified. Probably amendments to Civil law ought to be considered in this regard.

One of the most discussed issues is connected with determining the amount of the compensation for non-pecuniary loss in cases of personal

injury and death (Torgāns, 2014). The criteria that should be taken into account when assessing the severity of personal injury and its consequences ought to be further specified. Certain methodological aspects are provided by the law, but the outcome does tend to vary from case to case. It must, however, be pointed out that the jurisprudence has adopted some criteria to ensure that equal or similar awards are granted in cases having the factual circumstances akin to one another. Presumably the solution to this issue lies within the powers of non-governmental institutions or the doctrine rather than the powers of the legislator, although this still is a pressing issue as the actions for compensation in personal injury cases are quite frequently brought and no precise criteria that the parties could rely upon have been acknowledged. In addition, there are other issues related to personal injury claims such as the application of Section 5 of the Civil law, Civil Procedure law that are subject to further elaboration and research as the approach thereof slightly differs from one jurisdictions to another and a flawless solutions may not be easy to find.

Although the civil liability for personal injury, especially in cases of non-pecuniary damage, is determined by taking into account the factual circumstances of the injury to the extent that they are relevant in assessing the severity and consequences of injury, the claimant should not be denied the possibility to receive a compensation for the pain and suffering inflicted upon him or her, when all facts cannot be supported by evidence although it is *prima facie* certain that the defendant might be liable for the injury (Cane, 1997; Bar, Drobnig, 2004; Owen, 2000; Stauch, 2008). In some cases, where a plausible alternative to the liability of one person is hard to substantiate, the doctrine of *res ipsa loquitur* could be considered in this regard as solution in order to lighten the burden of proof, e.g., in cases concerned with compensation for personal injuries caused by negligence of medical personnel, due to breach of safety regulations at work, and other accidents. It must be highlighted the balance of the rights between the parties may not be shifted in favour of the claimant without a reasonable justification especially in cases where the damage is of an unusual and biased nature. The defendant normally ought to maintain the right not to compensate the claimant for the loss that has been caused by the victim's contributory negligence, another person, force of nature or accidental loss.

Conclusions

Tort law is a part of private law that often is perceived as the opposite of contract law as the legal relationship arising from a tort is based on law itself rather than the consent of the parties to enter into a contractual

relationship. Tort law has an essential role *inter alia* by protecting the victim and granting him or her a right to claim a compensation from the liable person for the damage that has been unlawfully caused to him or her by the latter and obliging the liable person to provide an adequate and just remedy to the victim.

As evidenced by some practical issues that the courts or the parties come across in rather complex litigations, the legal framework addressing the rules and regulations on torts and tortious liability in Latvia could benefit in certain cases from amendments, supplements and the concepts developed by doctrines and jurisprudence in other countries, as well as the legislative guidelines, model rules and the improvements suggested therein.

Only by thorough analyses of the necessity and usefulness of any legislative change one could come to a conclusion, whether or not the legislator ought to proceed with amending the law. The best solution for any legal issue that is not addressed by the existing legal framework must be first and foremost sought *inter alia* by analyses of the nature and origin of particular issue and the involved legitimate interests thereof. Modernisation should not, however, be narrowed down to legislative changes exclusively. The goal of modernisation of tort law could also be achieved by interpreting and applying the existing law, by applying the norms analogously or by addressing the issues in the doctrine that can sometimes serve as tool for interpretation of the law.

The aforementioned particular issues in need of modernisation by virtue of legislative intervention do not render an complete list of the issues of Latvian legal framework on tort law, but merely indicate some particular problematic aspects of Latvian tort law in theory and in practice that ought to be duly addressed in accordance with the jurisprudence and the doctrine of other countries, the findings and the considerations of European research groups and the results of research projects intended to harmonise the legal framework in Europe and other sources of law.

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PODOLOGY EDUCATION IN LATVIA AND EUROPEAN UNION: A COMPARATIVE STUDY

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Abstract

This article deals with Podology and podologist education, which in Latvia is a relatively new field of medicine: the State standard for foot care specialist professional education has been (in place) introduced only since 2007. The education of these specialists is particularly important in health care practice and the development of medical science in the country. The article reflects foot care specialists' education in Latvia and is compared to some other European countries – Poland, Switzerland, Germany, England, Malta and Italy, in a theoretical comparative analysis.

The programmes and study courses in the European Higher Education Area comprise several common of components, for instance, providing foot problem prevention and mitigation especially those related to clinical practices. The content of the programmes and study courses is related to pharmacology, diabetology, surgery, as well as courses related to local needs, but they differ in the number of allocated hours; in each country this content reflects the accents and the state of matters in the whole system of specialist education in medicine.

Keywords: Podology, medical professional education, podiatrist higher education, Latvia, Europe

Introduction

Since 2007, legislation related to Podology addresses the adjusting of the state of matters in this branch of medicine and health care with the achievements in theory and practices in the world. Much has been done since then, especially in education. In addition, the current demographic situation and tendencies in Latvia together with these processes in Europe foster changes in the age proportions of residents towards an aging of the population with all the related consequences: increasing number of

people with cardiovascular problems, diabetes, support musculoskeletal deformities, and other diseases, which demand the boosting of the health care and medical treatment system in general and Podology as an important component of this system. The latter needs special attention also because it is a comparatively narrow and new field of medicine, which has recently become important, also in the labour market and it still remains an underdeveloped branch of medical provision in Latvia. Targeted development of podologist education, information and education of the population, co-operation with employers, promotion of related information on health care and preparation of people for self-care, as well as the possibilities of podological professional assistance is a vast field of educational activities. The investigation of the experience of other countries therefore is an important source of improvement and further development of the theory and practice of Podology in Latvia.

Podologist professional education in Latvia corresponds to the 1st level of tertiary professional education, and since 2008, the programme is run by the P.Stradins Medical College of the University of Latvia. The programme leads to knowledge, skills and attitude towards the provision of quality professional medical care appropriate for this profession. According to the State standard, the components of specific medical content is coupled with the theories and practices of psychology, pedagogy, sociology, biotechnology, environment, information technologies etc. related to it (LU PSK, 2011). The implementation of the programme by pedagogical tools follows the students' learning-centred paradigm and develops the learners' ability for life-long professional development; the programme includes the fostering of a podologist's personal qualities, further professional development including their ability of adaptation in a changeable professional field and integration into wider social settings, as well as appropriate attitude development and the usage of value criteria in practice.

Investigation of tertiary graduates' professional activities (Krūmiņš, 2007) leads to the conclusion that when the graduates joining the labour market in compliance with their professional education it is impacted by several factors – some of them are objective (need for the particular specialists in the field, quality of the completed educational programmes, offered wages, etc.); other factors should be qualified as subjective (lost satisfaction with the chosen profession and unwillingness to work, unacceptable working conditions and demands, etc.). The graduates of the tertiary programme “Podology” implemented at P.Stradins Medical College of the University of Latvia report, that 69% of the novice podologists start their professional career in foot care; of them 18% start their practice in the beauty parlours regardless of the obtained profession, qualification and the right to function in the fields of medicine. About 4% of the

graduates have found employment in the European labour market, and 9% continue studies in the programmes of medicine sciences, health care, and rehabilitation specialities; the further studies are related to and influenced by previous education as they lead to higher salaries and access to better workplaces (LU PSK, 2014).

Changes in world economic fields and legislation in Latvia interfere with the educational environment of this country, student priorities and teaching modes. In this context it is important to keep ongoing the dialogue between educators and employers on the quality of learning outcomes, competencies of the graduates, as well as better provision of the tertiary programmes and employer participation in these improvements (Jundzis, 2012; Scheele, 2005; Kelberere, 2012).

In order to facilitate the quality transition from graduate podologist to practicing podologist in Latvia and to provide better opportunities for their professional development it is valuable to investigate the experiences of implementing the European qualification framework and obtaining the adequate competencies (knowledge, skills, and abilities) in other European countries. The comparative study becomes even more important because in the qualification and tertiary programme framework of Latvia is included bachelor, 1st and 2nd level professional, and masters programmes. Also in other European countries there are different possibilities to obtain podologist professional education – at professional schools, colleges, universities. The European network of tertiary educational institutions implementing podology programs is a helpful means to view this field of education (*European Network of Podiatry in Higher Education*) ENDPODHE, which aims at linking the efforts of these institutions in Europe. The network deals with the programmes, which implement not less than three year full-time programmes and award podology qualification. The strategy of this organisation is in accordance with the Bologna process and fosters co-operation, mobility and creates a single benchmark of podology education in Europe (ENPODHE, 2014). Latvia has not joined the ENDPODHE network yet because the educational institutions in this country are still implementing two year full-time educational programmes in Podology. It should be noted that in the foot specialist profession are used two terms – *podology* and *podiatry*, as being synonymous. Podiatry is the field of healthcare dedicated to understanding the anatomy, mechanics and pathology of the foot, and the diagnosis and treatment of its diseases (Medical Dictionary, 2012). Field specialists are called *podologists* – a specialist in the treatment of feet, and *podiatrists* – a medical professional, a physician devoted to the study and medical treatment of disorders of the foot, ankle and lower extremity. The term originated in North America, but has now become the accepted term in the English-speaking world for all practitioners of podiatric medicine. Podiatry is practiced as a specialty

in many countries, while in many English-speaking countries; the older title of “chiroprapist” may be used by some clinicians. In many non-English-speaking countries of Europe, the term that may be used is “podologist” (The Columbia Electronic Encyclopaedia, 2013), which is also used in this article. The level and scope of the practice of podiatry varies among countries, podologist qualification levels can be compared by using a single European reference – European Qualifications Framework (EQF). The European qualification framework (EQF) serves as a single reference system and aims at fostering the consequent principle of a person’s life-long education and targets usage of cross-country mobility. EQF also provides Latvia an opportunity to describe its educational system, the awarded degrees and qualifications, as well as opens it for comparative studies. At the same time the residents of Latvia are enabled to better understand the educational systems of this country, as well as possibilities, awarded degrees standing for particular levels of education and qualifications of the other European countries (AIC, 2012).

The aim of this article is to highlight the educational programmes of podology in Latvia and several European countries for further improvement of curriculum. Following the aim, a theoretical analysis and a comparative study were completed.

Podology Education in Latvia

Health care services in the European Union (EU) and European Economic Area countries since the late 1970s are provided in accordance with the regulations of social security schemes to employed persons and their families. Jurisdiction of health care organisation and its implementation within each EU Member State is clear from the European Community Treaty (MK, 2005). Latvia observes and does its best to respect the fact that one of the most important factors of quality health care services for citizens at each level of health care is well prepared health care professionals involved in the process, or human resources, their qualification, appropriate number of specialists and their location in accordance with the social needs. Health care professionals must be competent performers of medical procedures, patient and skilled educators and also community supporters.

Changes to the state laws of Latvia brought about also changes in the direction of Latvian medical training programme development: on 20 March 2001, the Cabinet adopted Regulation No. 141, “Standard of First Level Professional Higher Education” (Ministru Kabineta noteikumi Nr. 141, Noteikumi par pirmā līmeņa profesionālās augstākās izglītības valsts standartu, 2001) and on 20 June 2001 the *Saeima* (Parliament) adopted the Law “On Regulated Professions and Recognition of Professional Qualifications” (*Saeima*, LR 2001).

For licensing and accrediting a programme which results in a fourth level professional qualification it must meet the requirements of standards of professions adopted in Latvia and the education leading to it. To complete a correct comparative study one must take into consideration that Latvian higher vocational education, in parallel with bachelor and master programmes, is divided into two levels: 1st level professional higher education (college) programmes, the acquisition of which graduates are awarded 4th level vocational qualification (foot specialist education is included here) and the 2nd level professional higher education study programmes leading to the 5th level professional qualification.

College programmes comprise 80-120 credit points (120-180 ECTS credits), they are designed for students to obtain the profession, and graduates can continue their studies in the 2nd level professional tertiary educational programmes.

Podology 1st level higher professional study programme at a college lasts for 2 years, the students cover 80 credit points (CP) (one credit point corresponds to 40 working hours), consisting of student contact hours and independent work. The study programme is implemented throughout the semester, with a total duration of 40 weeks. The Podology study programme is designed for full-time studies and consists of individual courses the amount of which is generally from 1 to 5 CP. Each academic year consists of 10-17 courses, practice and development of a project. To complete the programme each student writes a research-based qualification paper and defends it.

The Foot specialist profession is included in the medical Classification according to the rules adopted by the Cabinet Regulation No 192, Annex 2, paragraph 6 “Medical personnel and medical support staff register, recharge and maintenance procedures” (MK, 2009), as well as by the regulations of the Cabinet Nr. 268 on Provisions for medical professionals and students, who cover 1st or 2nd level professional higher education programmes for medical, therapeutic expertise, and their theoretical and practical knowledge (MK, 2009)

The Podology professional standard adopted in February 2007 corresponds to the 4th level of professional qualification and since 2008 professional training is implemented at the Medical College of P.Stradiņa Latvian University. Until then, patients’ foot care, diagnosis and prevention had been a duty of other medical personnel – nurses, physician assistants and physicians who were involved in the care of patients with diabetes. In 2004-2008 the professional educational programme “Healing podiatry specialist” had been implemented by the Podiatry school at Health Center-4 Ltd.

The Medical College constantly works for the professional development of podology specialists; each year new improvements are being launched

for the training programme “Podoloģija”. The specificity of the Medical practice states that students must participate in the process of treatment; this practice is included into the programme.

On average, 60% of the study process takes place outside the college at hospitals and other medical institutions, which use appropriate medical and diagnostic equipment and are accepted as appropriate clinical places. Those specialists of Medicine, who are involved in pedagogical work and research, as well as in medical practice, are certified educators; they actively participate in the programme development at the college. Foot specialist education is a theoretical and practical preparation for productive operation of the profession, professional qualification and advancement.

A podologist in Latvia or foot care specialist (English. – Podiatry; German. – Podologie) is a medical person holding the 1st level professional tertiary education, which is assigned to the 4th level of professional qualification, registered as a medical practitioner, and whose professional activities are pursued independently or in a care team subordinate to the Ministry of Health and/or Ministry of Welfare, as well as to the subordinated institutions of these ministries and/or any form of legal belonging to a company (Podologa profesijas standarts, 2012).

Podology Training in the European Space of Tertiary Education

Podology as a branch of Medicine in the world rapidly developed after the 2nd World War. Now there are two possibilities to obtain a podology education. For instance, in Germany, Switzerland and Latvia there is a possibility to obtain the 4th level professional qualification, while in several other European countries podologists can obtain the 5th level professional qualification.

To identify the experience of European countries in the implementation of vocational training, in accordance with the Bologna Declaration, which aims to create a common European Higher Education Area and to achieve a pan-European harmonisation of study programmes and degrees and initiate the development of European co-operation in quality assurance of foot specialist studies, a programme ‘Podology’ has been worked out by the Medical College of P.Stradins Latvian University; the programme has been compared to those in the other European countries. The study randomly selected professional programmes of podology in six European states – Poland, Germany, Switzerland, Italy, the UK and Malta.

During the comparative investigation in Latvia and other European countries some similarities in programmes have been seen to those in Latvia (PSK, LU, 2014) and Germany (Heimerer Schulen, 2014) regarding organisation and duration of studies; the findings are reflected in Table 1.

Table 1 Podology Education in Latvia and Germany

Country	Latvia	Germany
College/ university	P. Stradins Medical College of the University of Latvia.	Sozialpflegeschulen Heimerer GmbH.
Education	1 st level tertiary professional; 4 th level qualification.	Professional (<i>Ausbildung</i>).
Kind of studies, organisation	Full-time studies, 40 CRP (60 ECTS) per year. The programme meets the requirements of the standard for 1 st level professional tertiary education and awarding the qualification. The compulsory content includes study courses, practice at a health care institution not less than 16 CP (24 ECTS), qualification paper not less than 8 CP (12 ECTS).	Full-time and part-time studies; 2000 hours of classes (theories and professional practical studies as denoted by study and examination instruction) and 1000 hours of practice outside the college (podology practices) and at state clinics). Highly educated specialists and professionals with practical and theoretical experience provide deep knowledge at the highest level. Partnerships with the Steinbeis foundation in Berlin, as well as the high school in Utrecht/ Netherlands. Close relationship between professional training and the high school programme provides further qualification and competitiveness to students on the European labour market.
Duration	2 study years/4 semesters, 3200 hours of classes; 80 CP according to the legislation of LR (120 ECTS).	2 study years/4 semesters of full-time studies or 3 study years/6 semesters of part-time studies; 3000 classes according to the legislation of Germany.
Fees	Free-of-charge (covered by the State budget).	60 € per month + state subsidies.
Awarded specialization, degree	Podolog (does not award an academic degree).	Podolog (does not award an academic degree).
Generic study courses	Psychology and basic andragogy, research. Enterprise education, development of appropriate competencies, applied informatics in medicine, a foreign language, medicine terminology of Latin, environmental sciences, introduction to professional studies and principles of ethics.	German language and literature, Law/citizen education, and records management, Psychology/ Education/Sociology, Ethics.

Country	Latvia	Germany
Profile study courses	Anatomy, Physiology/General Pathology and Pathological Physiology, General Medicine, Surgery, Pharmacology, Endocrinology, Orthopaedics, Nursing process in podology, Dermatology, Emergency assistance, nails correction methods, diabetics' foot care, foot care Healing, Practical skills in podology, physiotherapy and ergonomics in podology, basic skills of massage.	Fundamentals of Physics, Chemistry, Anatomy and Physiology, General and Special Pathology, Pharmacology, Hygiene and Microbiology, First aid and bandaging, Prevention and Rehabilitation, Theoretical foundations of podological care, the overall podological treatment measures, physical therapy aids in podology.
Practice	16 CP (24 ECTS); 640 hours. Mobility inside and outside the country in partnership institutions is welcome within the life-long learning programme of ERASMUS.	1000 hours.
Co-operation with stakeholders and employment	Between the college, professional associations, specialists from other countries, employers and career development services. Co-operation is implemented in several directions: providing practice; education and practice of quality assurance; Implementation of projects. College teachers work with the Latvian, European and global trade associations; associations and institutions, resulting in improved programme of study will enrich the academic experience of staff. Co-ordination of co-operation, exchange of experiences of vocational education relevant to the labour market, conference to discuss international study programmes involving employers and graduates.	Graduates hold high level of acceptance on German labour market; almost 100% of undergraduates find job. Close relationship between theory and practice we are in foster constant improvement of programmes towards latest evolutions of the labour market; students are fully benefiting from this close co-operation. Some more partners are: Ministry of Education, Labour Agencies, European Social Funds, the Professional Integration Programme from the German Army, as well as various institutions for rehabilitation.
Admitting to the next year/ level	Successfully covered the programme, passed the planned examinations of each study course.	Passed examinations in learning cycles.
Final evaluation, assessment, degree or/ and qualification	Qualification paper 8 CP (12 ECTS), awarded qualification 'podolog'.	State examinations include written, oral and practical parts. The graduates are awarded the right to use professional label – 'podolog'.

In several other European countries – Switzerland (Berufsfachschule Zofingen, 2014), the UK (New College Durham, 2014) and Poland (College of Cosmetology and Health Sciences in Łódź, 2014), the foot care specialist studies at colleges last for 3 years (Table 2).

Table 2 Podology Education in Switzerland, Great Britain and Poland

Country	Switzerland	Great Britain	Poland
College/ university	Berufs-und Weiterbildung Zofingen Bildungszentrum.	New College Durham.	Wyższa Szkoła Kosmetyki I Nauk o Zdrowiu w Łodzi.
Education	Professional (<i>Ausbildung</i>)	Tertiary education, EQF 5 th level.	Tertiary education, EQF 5 th level.
Kind of studies, organization	Full-time studies, admitting once in 3 years. The main part of the study course has been worked out in co-operation with the Federal bureau of vocational education and technologies – FATB – and Association of Swiss podologists.	Full-time studies, modular system leading to Bc, Mg and further doctoral degree in co-operation with Teesside University. Integrated theory and practice allows students to develop their clinical skills in assessment, diagnosis and treatment; expand knowledge of normal and pathological processes in patients Where knowledge transfer is essential to underpin future study lectures and tutorials are regular. Sessions are supported by additional learning materials and links to Virtual Learning Environment, NCD Online.	Full and part-time studies include lectures, demonstrations, class learning, and practical classes. College participates in ERASMUS program.
Duration	3 study years, 3600 hours according to the Swiss legislation.	3 study years, 180 ECTS.	3 study years, 180 ECTS.
Fees	5000 CHF (1900 CHF state subsidies).	£ 7500.00 per year.	2400 zloty per semester of full-time studies.

Country	Switzerland	Great Britain	Poland
Specialization, academic degree	Podolog (without an academic degree).	Bachelor in podiatry.	Bachelor of medicine, methodology and cosmetology with specialisation in podology.
Generic study courses	Entrepreneur management education, communication, management of personnel, organisation of a professional environment.	There are not enough data available for this item to give specific information for the course. It may be because the course size is small, or because it is a new course	Introd. to Psychology, social communication, introd. in labour law, marketing services, advertising, foreign languages, hygiene, micro biology, biology genetics, biophysics, aesthetics, informatics.
Profile study courses	Podological symptoms and treatment, risk of patient care, foot statics and dynamics, dermatology, pharmacology, professional ethics and data protection, anatomy, physiology, Infectious diseases, hygiene, Technical aids.	<u>Module 1</u> Clinical practice 1, human physiology, dermatology, functional anatomy, research 1. <u>Module 2</u> Clinical practice 2, drugs in podiatry, local anaesthesia (analgesia), musculoskeletal pathology, research 2. <u>Module 3</u> Clinical Practice 3, nail surgery, pharmacology, practice podiatry biomechanics, research 3.	Anatomy histology, physiology, pathological Physiology, biochemistry, immunology, Pharmacology, initial medical assistance, therapeutic skin care, cosmetology, dermatology, cosmetic formulas, physiotherapy, cosmetic chemistry I Courses II: professional ethos, dietology, toxicology, aesthetics, dermatology, meth. of cosmetology, diagnostics, sensoric and smell knowledge, herbal medicine, natural cosmetology, aroma therapy, plastic surgery, bachelor exam and BS seminar.
Practice	720 hours.	Clinical Practice primarily undertaken within the Durham School of Podiatric Medicine clinical facilities at Bishop Auckland during all 6 semesters of the full-time program.	Cosmetology 540 h Podology 60 h (5 ECTS).

Country	Switzerland	Great Britain	Poland
Co-operation with stakeholders and employment	Graduates are prepared for opening a private practice, its organisation and development.	Upon graduation students are eligible to apply for membership to the Society of Chiropodists and Podiatrists and the Health and Care Professions Council (HCPC) register.	Graduates are prepared for studies in masters programmes; the programme meets the demands of the European standards, opportunities for positions in physiotherapy, beauty parlours, special podology service in Poland and other EU countries.
Admitted to the next year/ level	Covered 100% of the practices, attended at least 80% of classes.	Covered 100% of clinical practice, attended at least 80% of classes.	
Final evaluation, assessment, degree or/and qualification	Final assessment: written, oral and practical parts, assessment for practice. Graduates are awarded Podology qualification.	Bachelor paper and final examination.	Bachelor paper and final examination.

Professional podology education and academic bachelor degree in health care sciences provided in Europe is also provided by universities, for instance, in Malta (University of Malta, 2014) and Italy (University of Milan, 2014) (Table 3).

Table 3 Podology Education in Malta and Italy

Country	Malta	Italy
College/ university	The University of Malta.	The University of Milan.
Education obtained	Tertiary, 6 th level EQF.	Tertiary, 5 th level EQF.
Kind of studies, organization	Full-time. Co-ordinated by internal rules, a code of ethics, state laws; accreditation governed by the quality assessment centre NCFHE. ERASMUS projects.	Full-time. Training organized in mono-disciplinary and integrated courses, lectures, workshops, professional internships, seminars, and conferences.
Duration	4 years, 240 ECTS.	3 years, 180 ECTS.
Fees	No information.	690 € entrance fees, 3600 € study fees per year, possible state subsidies.

Country	Malta	Italy
Specialization, degree	Bachelor of Science (Honours) in Podiatry	Bachelor of podology
Generic study courses	Medical Ethics, Communication, Research, Introduction to podological Science, Psychology, Data Processing and Analysis, Statistics.	Foreign Language, Morphology, Pathology and Hygiene, research methodology in humanities and health sciences, Business Basics.
Profile study courses	Anatomy, Pathology and Physiology, Practical skills in podology, General Medicine, Biomechanics, Dermatology, Podology, Haematology, Pharmacology, Gastroenterology and Endocrinology, Anaesthesia, sports medicine, Physical Therapy, rheumatologist, diabetology.	Physiology, Skin diseases, inflammatory and metabolic diseases, musculoskeletal rehabilitation, pharmacology and chemistry, Surgery, Physical science and imaging, neurology, general medicine and therapies.
Practice	Clinical practice 32 ECTS.	Clinical practice 60 ECTS.
Co-operation with stakeholders and employment	New graduates in podiatry will be able to pursue their career in both the public and private sector. Students can continue studies in Podiatry and can register for any post-graduate certificate or diploma or a Masters programme at any local or foreign university.	Graduates can pursue careers in podology services in hospitals or public, private accredited clinics in a freelance or employed capacity.
Admitted to the next year/ level	Successfully covered the semester courses with 60 CP per year.	Attended 75% of classes and passed the semester examinations
Final evaluation, assessment, degree or/ and qualification	Final examination consists of theoretical, practical parts and clinical practice.	7 CP final exam consist of presentations and discussions on the practical work and research in the specialty.

Findings of the Comparative Study

The comparison study of the programme “Podology” run by the Medical college of P.Stradiņa Latvian University confirms that the Latvian foot specialist vocational qualification (level 4 Latvian Qualifications Framework) corresponds to the 5th level qualification of the European framework: the Latvian education system comprises five levels of professional qualification, while the EU higher education area set 8 levels of professional qualification (AIC, 2012). This is a significant factor for student mobility and further education opportunities in the EU. In several European countries (Latvia, Germany, Switzerland, Poland and the UK) professional programmes in podology are being implemented at colleges

in full-time studies. In the Medical College of P.Stradiņa University and at the German “Sozialpflegeschulen Heimerer” college, the duration of full-time studies is two years, while the Swiss “Beruf und Weiterbildung Zofingen Bildungszentrum”, Polish “Wyższa Szkoła KOSMETYKA i Nauk o w Zdrowiu Łodzi” and British “New College Durham “ colleges run 3 year programmes of full-time studies.

Part-time 3 year studies are offered by the above mentioned German and Polish colleges. In Poland, part-time studies lead to a medical bachelor degree in cosmetology without specialisation in podology, the latter is offered only by full-time programme. The main focus in these colleges is put on practice-oriented learning, and the process includes interactive lectures and practical classes in two and three year programmes.

College programmes combine theory and practice to strengthen clinical skills, diagnosis and treatment, as well as expand a student’s knowledge of the physiological and pathological processes. Parallel to the lectures, students attend seminars and clinical practice each week. Latvian, like the German, Swiss and British colleges practice various forms of assistance including lectures, practical individual and group activities, discussions and case studies. College curricula and analysis of student achievements show that the possibilities provided by the curricula are appropriate to acquire the planned knowledge and skills, as well as to meet the demands of the labour market, which include communication and presentation skills, critical thinking skills, ability to work in a group and to comply with the multidisciplinary health care principles of teamwork. The Polish college study process is organised in lectures, workshops, demonstrations, student collaboration with dermatologists, and skin disease treatment. A comparison of the Latvian and Polish programmes lead to a conclusion that the Latvian Medical College, despite a shorter cycle of study, provides training with a broader spectrum of clinical courses and particular attention to diabetics. Cosmetology and Health Sciences College in Lodz allocates a limited time to prosthetics, diabetic foot care and treatment (for prevention); instead this college offers medicine aesthetic, which can be explained by the provided basic cosmetology.

It is essential that in spite of differences the colleges meet the demands of the 5th level of higher education and a bachelor degree according to the European Qualifications Framework. The British “New College Durham” awards a bachelor degree in podiatry and the Lodz College a bachelor degree in health sciences with a specialisation in cosmetology and podology, while the Medical College in Latvia awards the 1st professional higher education diploma with a foot specialist qualification. In Germany and Switzerland as in Latvia, the foot specialist programmes lead to a vocational education, but an academic degree is not awarded.

For example, in Switzerland the Bologna reform process is not yet complete and academic degrees are still awarded on the basis of the previous system, where three to five year studies result in a Licentiate or Diploma. To enrol in Swiss universities, a certificate of secondary education *maturità* or its equivalent of a foreign education certificate must be submitted. The Latvian certificate of secondary education is not recognised as an equivalent to the Swiss *Maturità* certificate. To enrol in a Swiss university one must pass a Swiss state examination (Freiburger or Friborg test), or provide proof of enrolment in a Latvian university. Upon successful completion of “Beruf und Weiterbildung Zofingen Bildungszentrum” college programmes a foot specialist diploma is obtained, with the right to open, organise and develop a private practice.

In foot specialist education in European colleges or universities, such as the University of Milan, three year full-time students can obtain a bachelor degree in podology; in Malta – 4 years of full-time studies lead to a bachelor degree of health sciences in podology. These universities offer students both theoretical and practical knowledge, implementing co-operation projects with international organisations and European mobility programs such as ERASMUS.

Curricula at all colleges and universities include student independent work to acquire the latest literature and research in podology. The study process at 5th and 6th level emphasises the students’ independence in learning teams and development of research skills. The Universities of Malta and Milan provide comparatively wider environmental e-learning options available in a Moodle system. The University of Malta offers extensive studies abroad, which can be explained by the demographic situation in Malta; currently this university enrolls 6% foreign students, while the Faculty of Medicine at the University of Milan is well known for its clinical, scientific standards and research-based learning. The Faculty is proud of the high scientific achievements in the country, both in traditional subjects and the most recent medical research areas in genomics and molecular science.

According to the criteria of the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS) the curricula differ slightly – the compared British, Polish Colleges, as well as the University of Milan provide programs of 180 ECTS. The Medicine College in Latvia provides the programme ‘Podology’ of 120 ECTS, in accordance with Latvian law (MK 2001), which corresponds to the 1st level professional higher education, and in turn which corresponds to the EQF 5th level of 120-180 ECTS (AIC, 2012). The achievements and awarded diploma are considered relevant by the graduates to continue their studies in the European Higher education Area.

The podology programme run by the Malta University differs: it goes to 240 ECTS and corresponds to the 6th EQF level; therefore it is not

comparable to the programme delivered by the Medical College in Latvia. The comparative study reveals similarities in the structure and sectorial distribution of courses of the analysed programmes in Latvia, Germany, Switzerland, Poland, Italy and Malta. The mainstream or generic part of the programmes in Latvia, Germany, Switzerland, Poland, Malta and Italy provide the basics of entrepreneurship, information technology, research, psychology and ethics; a slight difference – the Latvian programme does not provide Latin and a basic course of safety at production sites. In its turn, environmental science courses as physics, chemistry, microbiology and hygiene are included in the programmes of Latvia, but in Germany and Switzerland the content of these courses is integrated into the profile courses. Slight differences are observable in the study courses of the programme in Latvia: the mainstream or generic educational courses include “Introduction to professional studies and ethical principles”, while Malta’s and Poland’s programmes of podology have “Introduction to the profession”, but Switzerland’s programme offers “Professional creation of an environment,” which basically involves insight of foot specialists in professional activities, the organisation of work and patient podological care, regardless of the course title. Some more differences appear when analysing the suggested optional courses: in one programme optional courses include a part of the main content which in others the same content can be a part of a mainstream or a profile course. More details are reflected in the Tables.

Programmes in Latvia, Poland and Italy among the mainstream courses provide a foreign language: in Poland and in Italy it is English, in Latvia the students choose either German or English. German students continue learning their native language, but in the UK and Malta programmes of podology do not include languages because English is a common language for a vast territory.

The programme model in the UK differs because the courses are divided into general education and profile courses, but the study courses are classified into three levels (modules). Module 1 includes the 1st clinical practice, human physiology, dermatology, functional anatomy. Module 2 consists of the 2nd clinical practice, use of drugs in podiatry, local analgesia, muscular and skeletal abnormalities. Module 3 includes the 3rd clinical practice, nail surgery, pharmacology, biomechanics in practical podiatry, research. The UK College’s modular system allows students to obtain a bachelor, masters and doctoral degrees in health sciences, in collaboration with the University of Teesside, thus ensuring consecutive education for students.

Programmes in Germany, Switzerland and Latvia provide in-depth courses in podological care, materials to be used, nail correction methods, orthopaedic support, which can be explained with the awarded professional

qualification in these countries according to the professional standards. The practice accounts for a substantial part of the study at all levels of education – in Germany it is 1,000 hours, or 1.3 of the total volume of studies, in Switzerland – 1500 hours, in Latvia and Poland – 640 hours or 24 ECTS. Programmes in the UK, Italy and Malta have a different number of workshops: they constitutes 60 ECTS in Italy, 32 ECTS in Malta, but in the UK, Modules 1 and 2 allocate six hours a week for the clinical environment, which will reach 12 hours a week in Module 3. A relatively large part is played by college internship in the above mentioned countries, and also Latvia provides students appropriate professional preparation; student groups (up to 10 students) are organised for practice in the offices of preclinical education and health care institutions where they work with different groups of patients to meet their specific needs. Therefore, some programmes have a specific accent on some spheres of practice: the Swiss programme of podology puts an emphasis on orthopaedics, in Poland – on aesthetics in dermatology and beauty etc. (more details in the Tables). Practice takes place also in universities and public hospitals (Universities of Milan and Malta) where there are clinical bases, other educational institutions use the best equipped classrooms and innovative preclinical facilities; clinical practice is held in public and private health care institutions. A significant number of practical classes, which amount from 24 ECTS at Colleges in Latvia and Poland to 60 ECTS at the University of Milan, meet the short-cycle higher education criteria, integrate theory and practice, aspire to future foot specialists' studies, provide quality knowledge and develop their experience.

Financing experience differs from country to country: in Latvia tuition fees start from 60 EUR per month, while in the UK it reaches £ 7500. In all countries where the comparative study has been completed, scholarships (including European funds) are available, and it depends on a student's achievements. In Latvia all students are provided budget places; the University of Malta (the exact amount is not specified) and the Swiss College, a part of the programme (1900 CHF) is subsidised by the state and therefore the programme is accessible for all applicants.

In co-operation with the employers the young professionals already begin their clinical practice at the beginning of their studies, thus they enter practices as early as possible and are provided a supervisor: in Switzerland and in Germany the programmes are focused on the local labour market, where young professionals have the opportunity to work in foot-care centres, social homes, provide care at home or start their own private practices; University of Malta awards the graduates an internationally recognised qualification and job opportunities in several EU countries in the region. The study shows that the new EU countries

(for example, Poland, Malta) have strongly oriented the programmes to the labour market, while the older EU countries (for example, Germany, Switzerland, the UK) prepare podologists for the labour market of their own country.

The final tests/qualification examinations in the compared countries have only slight differences to follow the accents of the programmes, they are oriented towards practical skills and a podologist's competencies: at the Medical College in Latvia the students pass their qualification test and submit a qualification thesis (8 CP), in Germany and Switzerland the qualification examination includes oral, written and practical parts, at the Malta University the students pass a theoretical and practical examination and submit a qualification thesis (7 CP), in the UK and Poland the students pass an examination and submit a bachelor thesis. There are differences in the levels of the awarded qualifications: in Germany and Switzerland the graduates are awarded the qualification 'podolog' and the equivalent of EQF is not denoted, the college in Latvia awards the graduates the 1st level higher professional education (corresponds to the 5th level EQF) and qualification 'podolog'; in the UK and Italy – the graduates are awarded a bachelor degree; in Malta – bachelor of health science in podology; in Poland – bachelor of health science in cosmetology with specialisation in podology (6th EQF).

The amount of the German and Swiss programmes of podology is not represented in ECTS. The numbers of ECTS also differ: 120 ECTS programme in Latvia, 180 ECTS in the UK, Poland and Italy and 240 ECTS in Malta. However, the number of hours, the content, and type of practical training or qualification are appropriate data to compare, and the findings provide valid and reliable conclusions.

Conclusions

1. In the investigated programmes and countries there are used interchangeably two notions – “podology” and “podiatry”, experts of this branch of medicine are respectively called – “podologist” and “podiatrist”; the term “Chiropodists” can be considered to be outdated. In the English-speaking countries, mainly in the USA, the terms “podiatry” and “podiatrist”, in some other countries “podology” and “podologist” are used. In Latvia since 2007 there is a branch of medicine “podology” and a profession “podologist”.
2. The foot specialist training in Europe covers 2-4 years of full-time and part-time programs, which are implemented by colleges and universities. Despite the differences in the credit points, structure of the programmes, accents or diplomas and degrees awarded, the

programmes are similar in the major areas, and differences are not decisive if we take into consideration the quality of the specialists and demands of the labour markets.

3. All the investigated programmes are designed to meet mainly the local needs for the foot-care specialists, but the countries with their economic structures still unstable and being in a phase of redirection towards market relations, are oriented also to the European labour market. This is essential for the employment and well-being of the house-holds.
4. The comparative study highlights some essential qualities of the programmes for further investigation and implementation in Latvia: combination of the courses leading to the professions with courses leading to a bachelor degree; provision of additional specialisations; structure of the programmes and organisation of studies; relations between classes and clinical practice etc.

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POSSIBILITIES OF ANIMATION USE IN EDUCATION

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Mg. sc. education

Abstract

In the context of technologies and media, in the last twenty or thirty years in education there has actualised a generational gap, namely, teachers as representatives of the older generation in the teaching process use traditional communicative language codes and are focused on book, linguistic text as a main cultural symbol, but new generation students are used to multimodal text, in everyday they learn and process information mainly through pictures, moving images and sounds. Therefore in education actual are both substantive and methodological changes, because traditional education is not suited to the way how the new generation learns. Therefore, a teacher's ability to use and encourage students to create video-audio materials in the learning process, as a way to encode and decode information in various modes, is an essential prerequisite for education in the 21st century. The author's teaching experience and theoretical literature studies reveals that animation as an audio-visual text, as visual, linguistic, audial code representation successfully can serve for educational purposes. Animation can be used both as an educational resource, and as an effective teaching method. This article, while linking animations pedagogically to psychological reasons for new generation learning needs of the 21st century, reveals aspects and approaches of animation use in education.

Keywords: media education, `digital natives`, animation, animation as a learning tool, multimodal learning environment

Introduction

Torsten Husen (1974) published a book entitled "The Learning Society". It expresses the idea of education system's disability to answer the demands and needs of society, and emphasises the "explosion" of knowledge and technologies. He foresaw, that a society which learns, will be a society of knowledge and information and that simultaneously there will be a rapid aging of knowledge (Husen, 1974). His foresight came true – globalisation, development of information technologies has contributed to a sharp increase of the amount of information and the information flow rate. The modern era is defined as the era of the information society (Kārnītis, 2002), which means that today, success in social relations and in the labour market is guaranteed by a person's ability to use the

most important resource – knowledge. Knowledge and information have become key drivers in the development of all fields of human society. Systemic knowledge is represented by language, specific stock of symbols; as such they can be stored and distributed. For centuries, knowledge and information was represented, stored, and distributed in book format mainly in linguistic code systems. However, the environment of modern technologies and media in the last twenty or thirty years has changed a lot, not only human life and social relations (system of values, attitude, thinking, communication), but also the representative code system of information, thus revealing a huge gap between a new generation, which has grown up in an environment of information technologies, and the old generation, who just learning to adapt to an environment of technologies.

Modern children grow up in media constructed digital environment, where there is easy access to information and entertainment; they haven't lived without computer technologies, mobile phone, MP3 players or tablet PCs. They are used to living in an image cultivated world – screen era, where reality is represented not only with verbal text, but also with pictures, moving images, symbols, icons, signs and brands; they fearlessly operate in an environment of technologies in contrast to the majority of adults. It is a generations, who's *native* language is digital – “*digital natives*” (Prensky, 2001, Jukes & Dosaj, 2006). *Digital natives* demand speed, instantaneous access to information, time, place and options. These children of the modern generation learn in a virtual environment, with images, sounds and video and not so much with text and language. Representatives of industrial society constructed their picture of the world conceptually; the child who lives in the information society constructs his or her picture of the world with the help of figuratively visual notions (Rubene, 2011). Consequently, images are not only a visual art mean of expression, but it is also the language of the new society. The function of images, like text, is to visualise, present, herald, and tell, but if text is perceived as a linear information system, then the reading of images is complex and comprehensive. Although text in historical culture has played a dominant role in the 21st century, the image cultivated era has changed the dominant communication and representation symbolic codes, which are used in information encoding and decoding, by using sign systems in the context of a specific communication statement.

For centuries in Western culture, the dominant form of thinking and approach was linear, narrow and deeply analytical, which was dominated by the orientation of logically mathematical and linguistic intellect (Gardner, 1994; Fišers, 2005). Thus the education system stressed (and is still stressing) brain hemispheres, which are responsible for sequential, logical, analytical thinking, and development. However in 1981, professor, neuropsychologist and neurobiologist, Nobel laureate in medicine Roger

Sperry together with colleagues David Hunter Hubel and Torsten Nils Wiesel discovered two ways of thinking: left brain hemisphere, which is sequential, analytical, logical, works with linguistic, numerical codes; and right brain hemisphere – simulative, intuitive, synthesising, works with visual codes (as cited in Fisher, 2005; Pink, 2006). If the left hemisphere of the brain is responsible for understanding word and text, facts, and numbers, then the right hemisphere of the brain is for understanding images and context. The world which, thanks to modern technology and media, is largely constructed with visual images increases the role of right brain hemisphere (Pink, 2006). This is for the new generation, the *digital natives*, the dominant hemisphere of the brain. The research of American scientist M. Prensky (2001) confirms that while working with computers and doing the same work, adult and child employ different parts of the brain. Consequently, while learning in the digital environment *digital immigrants* use old thinking, information acquisition, and processing approaches, which are consecutive, and linear, while *digital natives* acquire information in a comprehensive and parallel way (Juke & Dosaj, 2006). This means, that children in the postmodern media and consumer culture are fundamentally different from others twenty or thirty years ago: they react, think differently, learn in another way, thus they also process information differently (Jukes & Dosa, J., 2006; Prensky, 2001). This explains the gap, which is actual in the education system, namely, teachers as the representatives of the older generation in the teaching process use traditional communicative language codes and are focusing on the book, with linguistic text as the main cultural symbol, but the new generation is used to multimodal text; everyday they learn, process information mainly through pictures, moving images and sounds. Therefore actual is essential substantive and methodological changes in the education system, because the traditional education system, which accepts the language in the traditional way and is based on reading and memorising, doesn't fit to *digital natives*, and their learning needs. One of the first researchers, that along with cultural changes revealed the necessity of education transformation in relation to understanding of a new language and communication skills, is English professor, researcher Gunther Kress; he admits that: "We could never consider literacy (or "language") as the only, main or even prominent tool of representation and communication." (Kress, 2003). The transformation of the modern education system is the one of the main needs in a multimodal approach realisation for learning language and communicative skills, meaningfully using the technologies and media of 21st century as the cultural symbols (including comics, animation movie, video games, music clips etc.) It coincides with both media culture grown up generation of children and young people's educational and daily needs, also with labour market demand, and with a modular approach (Fišers, 2005) within the meaning of human intelligence; it is a theory of diverse human intelligence (Gardner, 1994; Armstrong, 1998).

The author's teaching experience and theoretical research allows her to propose a statement that animation as an audio-visual media performs the multimodal approach in language learning, because the message of moving images (audio-visual media) is represented through image, story, and sound. The moving image takes a significant place in today's culture. G. Kress (2006) emphasises that the art of multimedia and the communication industry is based on moving images; they have multimodal semiotics. Animation has a central place in the language of moving images, because it is an art that constructs reality frame-by-frame and it is a cornerstone of communication sciences and the entertainment industry of the 21st century (Maureen, 2003). An animation movie not only entertains, but also is able to inform, educate, and simultaneously give a chance to gain experience, identify oneself with the heroes of the stories and experience a variety of emotions. Therefore, animation must be studied not only as an art and discipline of communication science, but also its teaching and educating potential must be identified and used. The goal of this research is to analyse theoretical approaches and practices for the use of animation in an educational context, revealing the use of animation experience and perspectives in the pedagogy of the 21st century. Literature and analyses of sources were used as research methods. The research was based on 29 literature sources.

Experience and Perspectives of Animation Use in Education

To study animation in the information society era, one must be interdisciplinary; to be more precise, animation must be studied not only as an art and a component of communication science, but also as pedagogic phenomenon. The use of animation in the educational process gives one an opportunity to learn not only subject matter, but also to work with multimodal language code systems.

The word *animation* comes from the Latin language word *animare*, which means revive, fulfil with life. The term *animation* is understood as a sequential display of photographed pictures at a constant speed and in certain size of fixed frame, thus achieving the illusion of movement. In the Latvian language there are used such words as *animation* and animated cartoon, which are seen as synonymous.

Animation is based on image, which existed alongside with the linguistic language as an important information tool for amplification. Since its inception animation has experienced great technological transformations, nowadays its potential is to synthesise a variety forms of art: painting, graphic arts, theatre, music, dance, literature, sculpture, and computer graphics. Every artistic genre like every media has its own unique language

and own symbolic communicative code system. Animation as an audio-visual media works with diverse language code systems: verbal and visual, as well as technical codes (composition of a frame, the use of light and shadow, the selection of music volume and intensity, camera position etc.).

Scientific research and teaching experience reveals that animation can be used in work with different age groups (ranging from 6 years old to adult age groups), also in different educational fields, promoting two aspects of the use of animation in education:

- 1) **Work with an existing animation movie**, to use it as didactic material in the learning of teaching material. Thus promoting animation as a cultural value and reveal its place in curriculum, and to use animation characters as educational agents, which promotes learning of teaching materials (Edison, 1911; Atkinson, 2002; Tverskyand, Bauer Morrison, 2002).
- 2) **Use of animation film making as a pedagogical process** (Burrn & Durran, 2006; Hall, 2008; Gunn, 2006; Algave, 1999; Gravel, 2006; Gravel, Church & Roger, 2009; Hayward, 2010; Pedersen, 2007; Hoban, 2007). In the adventure animation making process, a person is encouraged to diverse creative activities. The person gains understanding of how to use linguistic, visual, audial, body language, address the audience, how in educational process with the help of image and sound to show things, which traditionally are used to form a verbal text.

Ideas regarding the use of moving images in education occurred almost simultaneously with film as an emerging of direction of art. In 1911, in the American newspaper "Harper's Weekly" of 4 November was published an article "Edison and the New Education". In this article the American inventor Thomas Edison promoted the idea that the new discoveries, that is, moving images, should be involved in education, and should be used in school practice. He believed that schools should be attractive and they should attract the children's attention, exactly as moving images could be an educational resource in different subjects: history, language, mathematics, geography etc. (as cited in Inglis, 1911). As technology evolved, this idea was also actively embodied in pedagogical practice. Consequently, it can be concluded that the watching and analysing of animated movies is a traditional approach in making use of animation film in education.

Animation film making is complex work, which includes different types of competences – narrator, craftsman, directors, photographer, operator, sound operator etc. In respect of the development of technologies and computer programs in the 1970s, mainly in America and England, are published the first books for beginners, which can be used to create animated movies (Anderson, 1970; Barton, 1972; Bourgeois& Hobson, 1979; Cleave, 1973 etc.). It was found that animation can be made at home not

only by professional animators, but also children. Consequently it can be concluded that in the 1970s animation film making exists in children's non-formal education. Thanks to new technologies and simplified animation editing programs (Stop Motion Pro, Monkey Jam, SAM Animation etc.), since the 1990s, in the United States, European countries (including Latvia) and Russia animation film making was begun to be used in children's formal education, namely, in interest education, that is, implemented in interest educational programs, projects, camps, workshops, where children gain an insight into the animation film making process.

In the beginning of 21st century individual enthusiasts, animators, under the leadership of teachers of United States, Australia and European countries (Denmark, Norway, Sweden, England, France, Spain etc.), an idea originated that animation film making can be successfully used not only in interest education, but also as a teaching tool, to learn learning content in general education, and to work with children in special education. Utilising educators and animators experience and the creation of animated movies in education (lessons, all-day group lessons, projects, camps, interest education classes etc.) the following can be identified:

- 1) Teachers (Gunn, 2006), who represent the **disciplinary approach**, respectively, learn animation as an art discipline within interest education and performing artistic media pedagogy.
- 2) Teachers, who see the use of animation in education in a wider context, respectively, who use an **integrated approach** in their pedagogic work and perform animation film making as a pedagogic process to learn a subject (Halla, 2008; Algava, 1999; Gravel, Church, Roger, 2009), or also as a work form/method in special education (Haivards, 2010), thus performing a critical media pedagogical approach.

Table 1 Approach and Aspects of Animation Use

	Traditional use of animation		Perspective use of animation	
Learning approach	Disciplinary approach		Integrated approach	
Aim of learning	to achieve animation production and analysis skills		to use animation as a tool/ method to achieve other learning aims	
Field of formal education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Free time education • Professional media producer education 		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-school education • General education • Special education • Social education • Media Education 	
Aspects of the use of animation	Animation viewing, analysis	Animation production	Animation viewing, analysis	Animation production

Source: Author's own table.

Teachers and animators, sharing their experience about the use of animation, show the potential of animation and diverse use in work with today's new generation. Consequently teachers, who use the integrated approach, perform pedagogic innovations, emphasising the need of educational transformation in education content and methodology. The author sees extensive animation capabilities and perspectives in media pedagogy, because animation is an audio-visual media, which can be transferred to the message and act on society. Therefore animation movies and their creation process are within one of the latest pedagogical sub-sectors – media pedagogy. By using animation as a pedagogical tool, it is possible to develop a student's media and information competence (UNESCO, 2013) in the learning process by updating access, evaluation, and creation components. Animation use in school actualises the Len Masterman defined representative media pedagogical paradigm (Masterman, 1998), which was developed at the end of the 1970s, respectively, media pedagogy has to provide knowledge by which means the media reflects reality and how media effects humans, and it should also provide people with the skills to use media in their communication (Masterman, 1998). As was noted by professor/director Borge Pulgholm from Denmark, in a course "Animation as a Teaching Tool"; "When children have a practical opportunity to make animation movies, they are encouraged to understand and think about the message, which is behind any media." (Pulgholm, 2008). Exactly while making an animation movie, children and, young people learn not only to consume, but also to independently generate ideas and visual characters as media. Consequently children learn not only to live in a virtual world, but they create, design it themselves and function in it. Media pedagogy is a new pedagogical direction and the place of animation is not yet defined in it.

By studying the use of animation options and perspectives as an innovation in pedagogical theory and practice it can be concluded that the need for animation pedagogical discourse learning in teacher education becomes actual, because innovation in a school's pedagogical process is the basis of the adult human desire to learn, to improve his or her competence and performance themselves as professional teachers.

Pedagogical-psychological Justification of Animation

In the era of the Enlightenment, a comprehensively educated, reasonable, free of bias person became the ideal. The idea of a comprehensively developed personality in the context of pedagogy was taken up by T. More, T. Campanella, J.A. Comenius, J.J. Rousseau etc. While making an animation movie, children are faced with diverse responsibilities and exercises: story script writing or reading, story layout drawing, character,

background and the production of other requisites, watching the movement of the body and recording, photography, text and sound recording, choice of music, and learning of animation programs. The work process improves communicative competence, develops artistic abilities, encourages creative imagination, promotes associative thinking, practice patience, and increases confidence. It is an opportunity to comprehensively develop a child's personality: to develop a child's physical, emotional, intellectual, and social spheres. Therefore the author links the animation making process with the Howard Gardner multiple intelligence theory and multimodal learning theory.

At the end of 20th century H. Gardner together with a group of scientists in England and at Harvard University, conducted a study and found that there are many ways how people learn and explore the world and that the way of intellect is not just one concept, but it is a complex notion, which consists of a variety of abilities and skills. After becoming acquainted with H. Gardner's multiple intelligence theory (Gardner, 1994), the author agrees with this theory, in that intelligence can manifest itself in many different capabilities – linguistic, logically mathematical, musical, spatial, movement, tactile, visual, interpersonal and intrapersonal, and usually one of them is the leading ability. In addition, intelligence has its own language code system.

It is essential to work with diverse language code systems in the learning process. Scientists in cognitive psychology such as Mayer and Marois (as cited in Fadel & Lemke, 2008) have proved that it is possible to significantly increase the effectiveness of learning, if the learning process is combined with verbal and visual modes (scholastic film, comic book, video game, animation movie etc.). Consequently, the most impressive sense of message is presented with words and images. However, traditional schools in their programmes are mainly focusing on verbal word, respectively, mainly with mono-modal symbolic code systems, and developing the linguistic and logically mathematical intellect. For centuries school has been a place where one acquired mostly textual information, teachers always wanted students to acquire the skills provided in text format and reproduce it. However, contemporary schools should encourage children to think, observe, to draw conclusions, argue, discuss and act creatively, by using multimodal language systems and developing all of the types of intelligence (Fišers, 2005). A child can learn and act creatively not only with words and numbers, as it is traditionally accepted in Western education, but also using drawing, photography, body, and sound. Teachers regardless of the subject have to find a way how to work with all types of abilities during lessons, encouraging comprehensively developed personalities, because today's labour market no longer expect mass education from educational institutions. Today's schools and universities no longer can

produce factory style workers or representatives of certain professions. There is growth in the demand for person's capacities and abilities, which can be diversified. Today the need is for a comprehensively developed, decision making and critically thinking personality, who is able to find creative solutions for every situation.

Respecting the needs of today's new generation and in line with multiple intelligence theory, one can conclude that in the 21st century education it is important to ensure a **multimodal learning environment**, thus admitting the role of visually audial communicative codes, which is represented directly through technologies and media, because it is clear that the role of technologies and media will increase in society. Animation as an audio-visual media offers one of the ways how to organise multimodal learning in class, because multimodal learning can provide:

1. Using multimodal learning resources. In lessons using the animation movie as the learning media it is possible to provide learning with text, image, and music. Studies in cognitive psychology show that thus acquired information remains in the memory at 50% (as cited in Fadel & Lemke, 2008).
2. In the learning process using learning methods, **where the student has the opportunity to practice a variety actions and interact with classmates**. Directly in the creating of animation movies in the learning process, students have an opportunity to operate in practice and to construct knowledge in a multimodal educational environment, because, while organising animation movie making, one is working with a verbal language code system, music, and sound codes, and also with a visual code system. Research in cognitive psychology shows that information acquired in this way is the most effective way how to keep information in continuous memory (as cited in Fadel & Lemke, 2008).

Consequently the use of animation in education is an appropriate way how to work with today's new generation, who in the acquisition of information request the multimodality of technology and media environment. Animation offers the opportunity to work with a variety of language code systems, thus respecting and developing H. Gardner's defined diverse intellects.

Conclusion

The educational system has the power to build a sustainable community-minded citizen, because the education system forms a human capital of general and professional knowledge and skills, develops the potential of personal attitudes and values, creating a competent and required specialist in labour market. Therefore, education policy makers

and implementers, while forming future citizens, should take into account the changes, which have been made by modern technologies and media, and with the latest research in cognitive psychology and should accept the notion of comprehension of language through a multimodal discourse. Digital technologies, the new media of today, offer a host of opportunities and social benefits in economics, politics, art, culture and also education. A teacher's ability to use and encourage students to create video-audial materials in the learning process, revealing the various language code systems as a way to encode and decode information in diverse modes, is an essential prerequisite for education in 21st century.

Teachers, implementing the multimodal approach in teaching language and communicative skills, have to show the various ways of using media and information technologies in the educational process and methodology. This means there is a need to reduce the gap between *digital natives* and *digital immigrants*, to reduce the gap between cultural symbols that are used by children and young people every day and learning environment. However, this means that teachers have a necessity to improve their professional competence constantly, so they are innovative, flexible and creative and function in the rapidly changing, multimodal information environment and raise their competitiveness in labour market. A teacher's openness to interdisciplinarity, to new successful teaching practices is an important factor, providing sustainable community development in the educational process.

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PHD DEGREE IN LATVIA: INDIVIDUAL'S INTERNAL NEED OR DEMAND FROM LABOUR MARKET?¹

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Abstract

Facing the prospects of a drastic fall in demand for PhD studies due to a coming demographic trough, higher education institutions in Latvia will face greater competition in the market for doctoral students. In these circumstances, it is vital for them to understand the reasons that guide graduates to choose to continue their studies at PhD level. This article presents the first study on the motivation of enrolment in a doctoral programme in Latvia, the factors important when choosing the place to study and the information sources useful for prospective students. Substantial heterogeneity of goals pursued by respondents across fields of study was identified. At the same time, the characteristics of the university and the programme and information sources considered most important by respondents do not differ across the goals they pursue, although there are important nuances that higher education institutions should take into account when tailoring their marketing communication to their target audience.

Keywords: Latvia, higher education institutions, PhD studies, marketing, labour market

Introduction

European countries differ widely on the popularity of PhD studies in the population aged 25 through 49 (see Figure 1, Demand for Doctoral Education in European Countries). According to Eurostat data², the share of this population involved in doctoral studies in 2012 ranged from 0.05 per cent in Malta to 1.17 per cent in Finland. In most³ of these countries, the absolute number of PhD students was growing in 2006-2012. The most active growth happened in Slovenia; where cumulative annual growth rate (CAGR) over this period exceeded 25 per cent. In some European countries,

¹ Parts of this study were published as Tarvid, A. (2014). Motivation to Study for PhD Degree: Case of Latvia. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, 14, 585-594.

² Data on thirty countries: 27 EU countries and Switzerland, Norway and Iceland.

³ Data on cumulative annual growth rate for 2006-2012 not computable for Germany due to unavailability of data on the number of PhD students prior to 2011.

a downward trend in this indicator started together with the global financial crisis of 2008-2009. Some of these countries, such as the UK (CAGR of 0.1 per cent) or Portugal (CAGR of -1.1 per cent), rebounded, while others, such as Italy (CAGR of -1.6 per cent) or Finland (CAGR of -1.5 per cent) saw their numbers of PhD students continuously sliding down. An extreme case of such a decrease is Spain, where the annual fall in this indicator was 9 per cent in 2010 and 67 per cent in 2012, leading to a catastrophic CAGR of -18.5 per cent during 2006-2012.

In this spectrum, Latvia stands somewhere in the middle. In 2012, it had the 18th largest share of PhD students in the population aged 25 through 49, namely, 0.36 per cent. The cumulative annual growth rate of the absolute number of PhD students was 5.7 per cent, the 12th fastest result. During 2005-2012, the share of PhD students of all tertiary students rocketed from 1.1 per cent to 2.6 per cent (see Figure 2, left panel), although this largely happened because the popularity of bachelor and master’s studies dropped during the global financial crisis.

This might sound as great perspective for higher education institutions (HEIs) providing education at this level. But the perspective is actually bleak. While increasing interest has been expressed to doctoral education, demographic projections show that the education industry in Latvia is going to encounter a severe drop in the number of potential students in the nearest future (see Figure 2, right panel). Comparing the number of people in five-year age groups, the size of the 15-19 age group is around

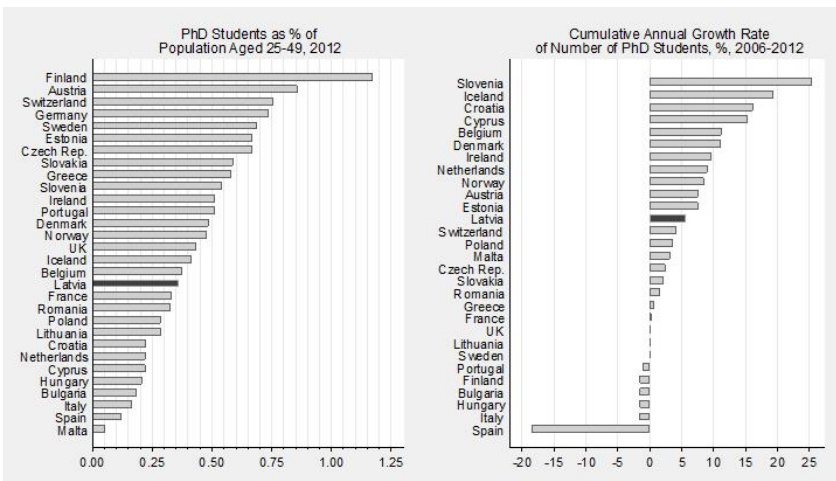


Figure 1 Demand for Doctoral Education in European Countries

Source: developed by the author based on Eurostat data

30 per cent smaller than that of the 20-24 age group. And the sizes of 0-5, 5-9 and 10-14 age groups are not growing. This means that in less than 5 years, higher education institutions will see a significant permanent drop in the demand for doctoral studies, boosting the competition on this market. In these circumstances, institutions understanding the motivation of graduates to enter PhD studies better than others are likely to have competitive advantage.

Studies on the motivation for enrolling in doctoral education have not yet been made in Latvia and are scarce in other countries. Existing studies show that for around half of students, intrinsic motivation was more important than expected labour-market returns (Del Carmen Calatrava Moreno & Kollanus, 2013; Leonard, Becker, & Coate, 2005). There is also evidence that personal factors are more important than labour-market factors in programmes structured around the master-apprentice model compared to those with predefined structure and duration (Del Carmen Calatrava Moreno & Kollanus, 2013) and in professional programmes compared to traditional programmes (Biddle, 2013).

This article has two aims, which represent two decisions made by PhD students. The first decision is whether to start doctoral studies, and the article explores the goals graduates attempt to reach by getting PhD degree. Particular attention is paid to differences in the importance of various goals across fields of study. The second decision is how to choose the place to study. Prospective students choose the higher education

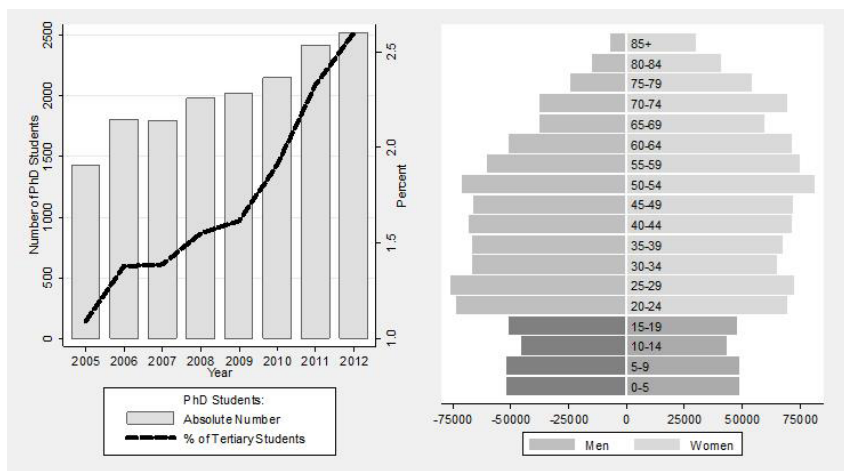


Figure 2 Number of PhD Students in 2005-2012 (Left Panel) and Population Pyramid in Latvia in 2013 (Right Panel)

Source: developed by the author based on Eurostat data

institution based on a particular combination of factors and search the information about programmes using various sources. The article identifies the most important factors for choosing the place to study and information sources used by graduates. The study is based on the data gathered by a special-purpose survey fielded in 2014 in 14 major universities in Latvia.

Short Background on PhD Education in Latvia

From 32 accredited HEIs, 21 provide access to doctoral education. More than 20 fields of study are covered. There are fields, such as management, computer science or economics, where several HEIs compete by providing doctoral programmes to prospective students. In other fields, e.g., theology or veterinary, only one specific HEI provides education at doctoral level and, thus, has a monopoly over these fields. Students willing to obtain a PhD degree in one of those fields have two options: either study at that HEI or choose an HEI abroad. The three largest HEIs are University of Latvia, Riga Technical University and Latvia University of Agriculture.

Public financing of higher education and research is very weak. For instance, in 2010, public expenditure on education was 0.80 per cent of GDP, compared to the EU-27 average of 1.26 per cent of GDP (Eurostat data). In public HEIs, there are a limited number of state-funded places where tuition fees are waived. Some, but not all, of the students who obtained a state-funded place may receive a state scholarship amounting to €114 per month for PhD students and €85 per month for PhD candidates. This is lower than even the minimum wage, which by 2014 rose to €320 from €114 in 2005.

An alternative way of financing available in most, both public and private, HEIs during 2009-2013 was the European Social Fund (ESF) scholarship. First and second year PhD students who obtained the scholarship received €854 per month in 2009-2010 and €640 per month in 2011-2012. Last year PhD students and PhD candidates received €1138 per month. This is several times higher than average net wage (€516 per month in 2013, up from €250 in 2005) and higher than tuition fees on most programmes (€1,700 through €9,100 per year in 2014). In addition, the ESF scholarship provided €1423 for participation in international conferences. Not surprisingly, the competition to get it was fierce.

Data Collection

Data for this study were collected using an online survey. The custom-made questionnaire had 33 questions, which included both closed and open-ended questions. The target population was current PhD students and

candidates within all fields excluding medicine and sports. Individuals who already had a PhD degree were excluded so that no additional bias related to errors in memory is introduced. Those who only planned to enrol were also excluded, because their responses would have been speculative. The link to the survey was sent to all current PhD students and candidates of 14 major HEIs⁴ in collaboration with their administration.

Of all individuals who received the link, 207 completed the survey and additional 99 completed the core questions on motivation. In total, thus, there were 306 responses, which is around 12 per cent of the population of PhD students (in 2012, it was around 2500; see Figure 2, left panel).

Goals Pursued when Starting PhD Studies and the Motivation behind Them

As already mentioned, individuals typically have some goals they want to reach by enrolling in an education programme. The questionnaire asked students to state their main and second main goals they pursued when enrolling in a PhD programme. Then open-ended questions were asked where the respondents had to provide a short description of an occurrence or observation that made them believe that having a doctoral degree would help them in achieving each of these two goals.

Combining the main and the second main goals together, these might be grouped into three categories by popularity (see Figure 3). The most popular goals are achieving something new, continuing their learning or research experience (which they liked), better career prospects and the possibility to contribute to science and global development. In the second place by popularity were realisation of a long desire (those respondents who answered that they always wanted to have a PhD degree), achieving better competitive position in the labour market and responding to a demand by current or prospective employers. The least popular were higher social status, better salary and the availability of scholarships.

In further analysis, two categories of goals will be considered. *Personal goals* comprise continuing learning/research experience, long desire, new achievement, possibility to contribute to science and global development and social status. *Labour-market goals* consist of better competitive

⁴ University of Latvia, Latvia University of Agriculture, Riga Technical University, Daugavpils University, Ventspils University, Riga International School of Economics and Business Administration (RISEBA), Riga Stradins University, Banku Augstskola, Liepaja University, Art Academy of Latvia, Transport and Telecommunication Institute, Turība University, Rezeknes Augstskola, and Baltic International Academy.

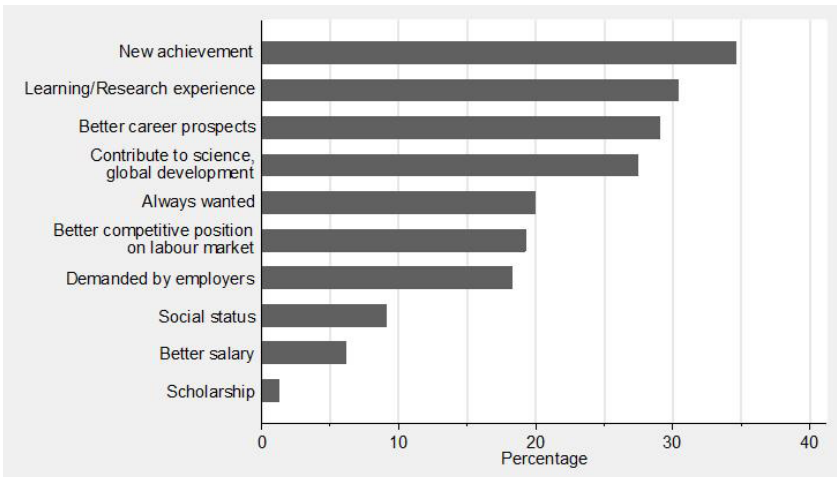


Figure 3 Goals Pursued by Respondents when Going for PhD Degree

Source: developed by the author

Note: The main and second main goals are combined on this graph.

position, better career prospects, higher salary, demand by employers and scholarship.

The comments of respondents to the open-ended question of why they thought doctoral degree would help them in achieving their goals will now be analysed separately for personal goals and labour-market goals.

Around half of respondents who mentioned a labour-market goal explained that at the moment when they decided whether to enrol in their doctoral programme, they already worked or planned to work with an HEI or a research institution. Thus, these respondents knew for sure that doctoral degree was a prerequisite for career advancement and higher salary. For other respondents, the decisive role was played by the observation of success of other PhD graduates, sometimes even the doctoral supervisor. This success appeared as public recognition (being frequently invited as expert), having a prestigious job (which reflects the respondent's desired self-image) and employment security (not being fired during downsizing). Others were keen to differentiate themselves on the labour market, which, according to these respondents, was full of bachelors and masters, and they expected the PhD degree to act as a major differentiating factor. Finally, some noted that doctoral degree gives more weight to the opinion of its holder and deeper knowledge on the causes and solutions of problems – an important benefit for those competing for some of the best jobs.

Several respondents commenting on their personal goals mentioned that they had a family tradition of pursuing doctoral education, which they wanted to keep up. Many recognised the new contacts, knowledge and experience that doctoral studies provide in doing research and presenting its results. For some, these created context for new achievement, while in others they raised nostalgic back-to-school emotions. Several respondents wrote that they identified understudied areas of knowledge and felt that they were able to substantially contribute to them. For a few, PhD studies were a hobby, an exciting alternative to boredom they felt at work or in their family life. For them, it was a possibility to maintain connection with scientific community when they could not work at an HEI or a research institution for some reason. Frequently, respondents expressed their motivation by the public recognition of the degree: it was named the gold medal of education, an entrance ticket to the elite, those having maximum available knowledge in a given field. All this could be summarised by a comment "A PhD is not just a way to be more respected. It is a way to be respected for a very good reason."

Different Goals in Different Fields of Study

In this section, the analysis will be based on four types of goals. Recall that the main goal may be a personal goal or a labour-market goal. The same holds for the second main goal. This gives four types of goals. *Mostly personal goals* are those where both the main and the second main goals are personal goals. *Primarily personal goals* are where the main goal is personal goal, but the second main goal is labour-market goal. *Primarily labour-market goals* are where the main goal is labour-market goal and the second main goal is personal goal. Finally, *mostly labour-market goals* are those where both goals are labour-market goals.

Consider first the results from simple tabulations (see Figure 4). They lead to three conclusions. Firstly, in all fields except for geosciences, biology, chemistry and material science, and agriculture and environment, more than 60 per cent of graduates pursue either mostly or primarily personal goals when making the decision to enrol in PhD studies. Secondly, these fields include both non-technical fields (such as history and philosophy, arts, and management) and technical fields (such as physics and mathematics and engineering). Thirdly, students in technical fields are typically, but not always, more motivated by mostly labour-market goals than those in other fields. However, the extent of this type of goals is smaller in engineering, IT-related fields and geosciences, while it is substantial in such non-technical fields as management and education and psychology.

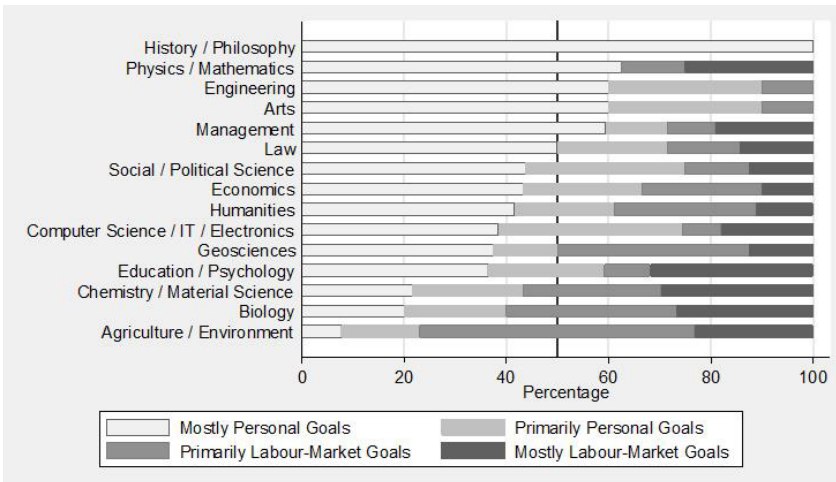


Figure 4 Type of Goals by Field of Study

Source: developed by the author

To be read: From all respondents studying engineering at doctoral level, 60 per cent were pursuing mostly personal goals when choosing to start PhD studies.

Other factors, besides field of study, might be related to the type of goal pursued by the respondent. The effect of field can be distinguished from those of other variables using econometric analysis. Because the four types of goal might be arranged by the importance of labour-market goals, ordered logit is an appropriate family of models. The model that follows was fit by generalised ordered logit (Williams, 2006) to remove the proportional odds constraint from variables that show significant departure from the proportional odds assumption – a key assumption behind the standard ordered logic model – while keeping this constraint on variables for which this assumption holds with certain accuracy.

The dependent variable is the type of goal pursued by the respondent. The explanatory variable of main interest is field of study (the effects of seven fields will be measured relative to the effects of the base field – arts & humanities). Other explanatory variables reflect three facets potentially related to the goal the respondent pursues. Firstly, it is previous educational background, represented by the variable gauging whether and at which levels of education the respondent changed the field of study. Secondly, it is the influence of family. There are three variables in this group: whether the respondent is married woman, whether he or she felt to be motivated by family and whether the decision to have PhD degree came to them already at secondary school, rather than during or after some stage of

higher education. The third group of variables represents labour-market experience prior to the moment of enrolling in the doctoral programme. It contains age (which proxies labour-market experience) and last occupation before enrolment.

Based on the results of the model, three groups of fields of study could be distinguished. The first group contains economics and education & psychology – the fields whose effects are not different from the base field. The second group contains most other fields: biology, agriculture, environment and geoscience; physics, mathematics and chemistry; law, social and political science; and management. Students in these fields are stronger oriented at labour-market goals than those in the first group. The third group, consisting only of computing and engineering, is somewhere in between: students there tend to pursue primarily personal goals more often than in other fields, but keep a labour-market goal as a second-order goal.

The effects of other variables are as follows. Those who changed the field of study twice, both at master's level and then again at doctoral level, are also more oriented at pursuing mostly personal goals than those who stayed in the same field or changed it only once. Respondents who were influenced by any of the variables from the family-related group (being a married woman or reporting to be affected by family in their enrolment decision or having dreamt of PhD degree from as early as secondary school) are also more likely to focus on mostly personal goals.

Labour-market goals tend to attract respondents aged above 30, which is most likely due to their greater experience in the labour market. In addition, these cohort effects might be caused by other reasons, including different perception of education, better understanding of their personality and needs or different view on the current political, social and economic environment. Graduates who were employed in professional⁵ occupations other than managerial and teaching occupations are more influenced by mostly personal goals than graduates holding managerial positions. The choice of goals by respondents working in lower-level occupations or having no work experience, though, was statistically the same as for managers.

Important Factors in Choosing the University for PhD Studies

The question on the most important factors that are taken into account when choosing a university for doctoral studies allowed each respondent to mark a maximum of three answers and/or add their own. In this and the

⁵ Professional occupations form major group 2 of the International Standard Classification of Occupations.

following sections, the answers will be analysed depending on the type of goal pursued by the graduate.

Respondents consistently reported that programme content, quality of academic staff and financial aid are the most important factors they compare universities on (see Figure 5). These factors were marked as important by more than 30 per cent of respondents aiming at reaching each of the four types of goals. Nevertheless, an important fact emerges showing that HEIs should care about the type of goal of the respondent: the more he or she is oriented at personal goals, the more important role is played by the prestige of the HEI. For those pursuing mostly personal goals, prestige even shares the third place with financial aid.

References of acquaintances and tuition fees are the second most important group of factors more than 20 per cent of prospective students pay attention to. Careful analysis shows that financial aid surpassed tuition fees in the applicants' hierarchy of importance when ESF scholarships were available to first-year PhD students. Students who enrolled before that marked financial aid less frequently, while those enrolling after ESF scholarships ceased to be available to first year students in most HEIs marked them as important only slightly more frequently than tuition fees. Thus, the financial component is important for prospective students, but most attention is paid to the largest of its subcomponents.

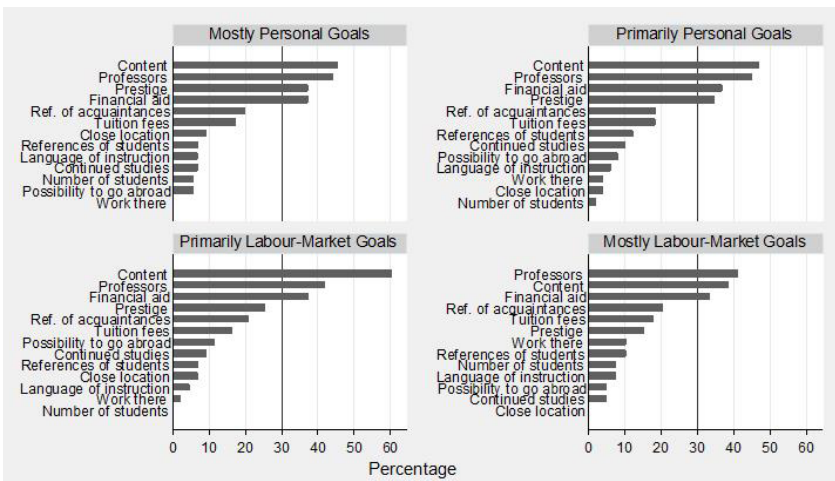


Figure 5 Important Factors when Choosing the University by Type of Goals

Source: developed by the author

To be read: From all respondents pursuing primarily labour-market goals, 60 per cent consider programme content as important factor for choosing the higher education institution for doctoral studies.

Other factors (close location, references of students, language of instruction, whether previously studied in that HEI, number of students, possibility to go abroad and whether works in that HEI) are less important to respondents.

Most Useful Information Sources about PhD Studies

Again irrespective of the type of goal pursued by respondents, the most useful sources of information at the time of deciding where to study at doctoral level are professors whom graduates know from their master's studies, current PhD students and graduates of the programme of interest at the HEI the applicant is seeking information about and that HEI's official online information sources, such as official website or its accounts in social networks. Figure 6 shows details.

The goals pursued by the respondents, however, still influence the sources they use to obtain necessary information about the HEI or the study programme. Graduates who pursue mostly labour-market goals are strongly more interested in the recommendations made by their co-workers or superiors than those pursuing other types of goals.

The second most important set of information sources is university rankings and family, each marked by 10 to 20 per cent of respondents,

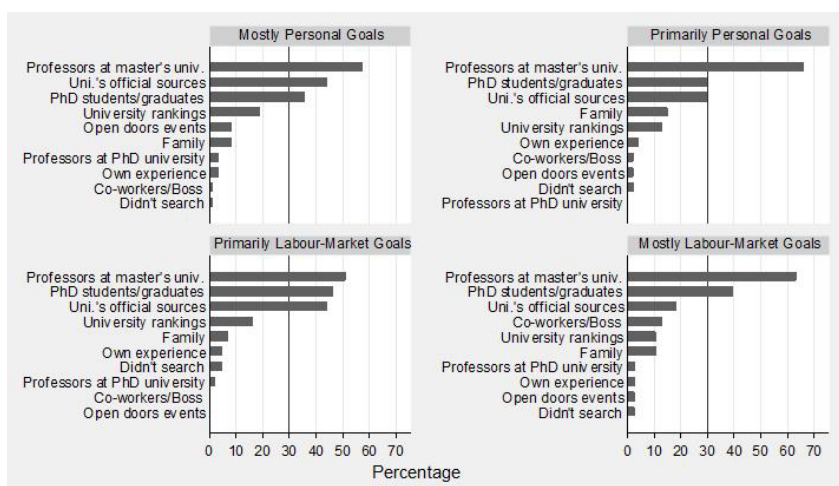


Figure 6 Useful Sources of Information by Type of Goals

Source: developed by the author

To be read: nearly 60 per cent of the respondents who pursued mostly personal goals when deciding to enrol in PhD studies found professors at their master's universities to be a useful source of information in making that decision.

depending on which type of goals they pursued. Open door events were equally important information source for those seeking to reach mostly personal goals.

Other information sources (professors at the HEI for which the respondent is seeking information and own experience) were mentioned considerably less often, by less than 5 per cent of respondents.

Conclusions

This study showed that in Latvia, most doctoral students chose to continue studies at doctoral level for personal reasons rather than those related to the labour market. At the same time, there is substantial heterogeneity of the goals respondents pursued when enrolling in PhD studies across fields of study. Three groups of fields were identified: (1) arts & humanities, economics and education & psychology; (2) computing and engineering; and (3) other fields (biology, agriculture, environment and geoscience; physics, mathematics and chemistry; law, social and political science; and management).

The most important factors used to choose an HEI for doctoral studies are programme content, quality of professors and financial aid. The most important sources of information about the HEI for doctoral studies are professors from the HEI where the respondent got master's degree, PhD students and graduates of the HEI where the respondent considers studying and the official online information sources of this HEI. These factors and information sources were mentioned by most respondents, irrespective of which goals they pursued when enrolling in doctoral studies. Nevertheless, it was shown that the importance of the prestige of HEI increases with the importance of personal goals for the respondent and respondents pursuing mostly labour-market goals pay attention to the opinion of their colleagues and superiors.

This has major implications for HEIs, which become even more vital for them due to the coming shortage of students in higher education and doctoral programmes, in particular. HEIs should identify the goals their target audience pursues when deciding whether to enrol in their PhD programmes, based on field of study and other characteristics that were found significant in this study.

If the prospective students are oriented at labour-market goals, HEIs have to focus their marketing communication on labour-market outcomes of the doctoral degree they provide, such as better career prospects. If graduates are more likely to pursue personal goals instead, HEIs should emphasise the lifestyle and self-image attributes, such as prestige,

acceptance into a particular social circle or the pride of parents that PhD degree would provide.

In addition to informing future students about the benefits they get *after* getting the doctoral degree, HEIs should describe the environment that these HEIs create *during* studies. In particular, they should mention high quality of both their programme and academic staff and the availability of financial aid and tuition fees if applicable. If the HEI is considered prestigious and target graduates are likely to pursue personal goals when enrolling in PhD programmes, the HEI should also mention its prestige in its marketing communication.

The marketing communication of HEIs should go not only through their official information channels such as webpage or social network accounts. As the study showed, for respondents who pursue mostly labour-market goals, the opinions of superiors and other employees are important. Thus, if this is the target audience of the HEI, it should also provide information about its doctoral programmes through social and professional peer networks.

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