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VIII. OVERIEW

In the sphere of protection of human rights the Action Plan envisaged the adoption of the Law on Equal Opportunities of the Republic of Lithuania and the establishment of the position of Parliamentary Ombudsman for Equal Opportunities by the year 2000. After the adoption of the Law on Equal Opportunities, such an institution was founded on March 1, 1999. The Parliamentary Women's Group, the Parliamentary Family and Child Commission and the Parliamentary Ombudsman's Office are the responsible institutions in this area. The Parliamentary Women's Group and the Women's Issues Information Centre organised a discussion on the draft law with the participation of women's and non-governmental organisations.

In the socio-economic sphere plans are under way to prepare, by

In the sphere of health care the following actions have been planned: preparation of the programme on ecological food, programme on healthy life style (from childhood) and its promotion; programme on the production of adapted liquid dairy baby food according to scientific recommendations; family planning programme; programme on preventive health examination of women (once a year) for the purposes of health insurance; programme on the provision of dwelling premises to rural medical personnel; and preparation and approval of the list of jobs prohibited and not recommended for expectant women and for women who wish to preserve their maternity functions. Measures will be taken to encourage women's organisations to promote goods and foodstuffs that are not dangerous to the environment and health, to introduce smokers' health insurance, establish schools of motherhood and fatherhood, expand the network of baby-friendly hospitals, and introduce part-time work through labour laws.

In the sphere of education the Government approved measures to

In the sphere of public information the following measures have been planned: revision of the journalist training programme which will also include formation of the image of a woman of equal worth; analysis of a woman's image; preparation of the programme on the formation of a fair woman's image; preparation of the "clean broadcast" programme; adoption of laws and by-laws imposing restrictions on age- and gender-related discrimination in employment advertisements (amendments to the Administrative Code) and on advertisements of sexual services.

On the issues of statistics system and gender differences the following measures have been planned: creation of a database, establishment of a division on gender statistics in the Statistics Department, annual publication of gender statistics, publishing of gender statistics in the press, organising of seminars on gender statistics for employers.

In 1997, the first report on the fulfilment of obligations assumed under the Convention was submitted to the United Nations.

MECHANISMS TO PROMOTE THE ADVANCEMENT OF WOMEN

LEGISLATION AND WOMEN'S RIGHTS

Saul Vidrinskait

All the fundamental human rights have been established in the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania without reservations: in Chapters 2 ("The Individual and the State"), 3, 4 and 13 and the Preamble. All the citizens of the Republic of Lithuania acquire the fundamental rights defined in the constitutional provisions. Upon the introduction of the martial law or state of emergency, individuals may temporarily be subject to restrictions of their rights and freedoms including the inviolability of private life, property and dwelling, freedom of expression, movement, association and assembly. Every citizen can defend his or her rights on the basis of the Constitution. Article 18 of the Constitution states that human rights and freedoms are inherent and inalienable. This means that the state is not a provider of human rights and freedoms; it is held directly responsible for their protection. In 12 March 1991 the Supreme Council of the Republic of Lithuania committed itself to adhere to the principles of the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, and on the same day, adopted a resolution to accede to the (1966) International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights and the (1996) International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights. Subsequently, the Constitution has been based on the ideas and principles of the above international human rights documents. Moreover, pursuant to Article 138, international agreements ratified by the Seimas have become an integrated part of the legal system of the state.

Today Lithuania is an active participant in many internationally acknowledged human rights organisations. It became a full member of the United Nations (UN) and the Organisation for

spirit of this Declaration. The Declaration also influenced the further development of legislation. In 1995 a Law on Religious Communities and Associations was adopted.

In 1995 the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979) and the Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989) were ratified. In 1996, the Convention Against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman or Degrading Treatment or Punishment (1984) was also acceded to.

Lithuania has joined in many international agreements related to human rights, primarily within the framework of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and UNESCO. After a

right to vote. Persons who have been declared incapable by court cannot participate in elections. Any direct or indirect abridgement of the right to vote of citizens of the Republic of Lithuania on the grounds of their descent, political convictions, social or property status, nationality, sex, education, language, religion or convictions is prohibited.

Article 2 of the Law on Referendum establishes the general principles of conducting a referendum. Participation in the referendum is free and is based on the democratic principle of the right to vote (universal and equal suffrage, direct elections and secret ballot). All citizens of Lithuania who are 18 years of age have the right to participate in the referendum. Persons who have been declared incapable by court cannot participate in elections. All citizens participate in the referendum on an equal basis. Each citizen has one vote. There is no participation by proxy in the referendum. Citizens participate in person and vote by secret ballot. It is prohibited to control the will of the voters during the referendum. Any direct or indirect restriction of the right to participate in a referendum of citizens of the Republic of Lithuania on the grounds of their descent, political convictions, social or property status, nationality, sex, education, language, religion or convictions is prohibited.

Article 9 of the Law of the Republic of Lithuania on Equal Opportunities defines **the rights of a person who is being discriminated**. A person who thinks that discriminatory acts specified in this Chapter have been directed against him or that he has become the subject of sexual harassment has the right to appeal to the Equal Opportunities Ombudsman. In addition, Article 6 of the Constitution establishes that the Constitution is both integral and directly applicable act. Every person may defend his rights on the basis of the Constitution. Lithuania is a party to the international legal acts regulating the f

The Law on Equal Opportunities defines equal opportunities of men and women, which constitutes an implementation of human rights established in the international legal acts on human and civil rights and in the laws of the Republic of Lithuania. Violation of equal rights for women and men (discrimination) means passive or active conduct expressing humiliation and contempt, also restriction of rights or granting of privileges by reason of the person's sex, except when relating to:

- 1) special protection of women during pregnancy, childbirth and nursing;*
- 2) compulsory military service prescribed by the law exclusively for men;*
- 3) different pensionable age for women and men;*
- 4) requirements for safety at work applicable to women aimed at protecting the women's health owing to their physiological properties;*
- 5) specific work which can be performed only by a person of a particular sex.*

The Constitution guarantees the right to every person **to freely choose a job** or business, as well as the right to adequate, safe and healthy working conditions, adequate compensation for work, and social security in the event of unemployment.

Paragraph 6 Article 2 of the Law on Employment Contract establishes the principles of legal regulations of labour relations,

protection of motherhood. A woman has the right to decide whether to work full or reduced working time and to perform the work without harm to her health and the health of her children. By this law, the State ensures labour privileges for women, including pregnant women and women that raise children.

Any citizen of the Republic of Lithuania who on the day of election is 21 years of age or over is eligible to be elected a member of a municipal council. Persons who have not served a

administrative levels is increasing. In 1992, ten women were elected to the Parliament, which accounted for 7.1% of all

against women. We would like to discuss several provisions of the Criminal Code that prohibit physical violence.

Blows and cruel torture are punishable by the law (Article 117, Criminal Code). Deliberate blows or any other action involving blows that cause physical pain is punishable by corrective labour of up to one year or by imposing disciplinary measures. Striking a blow deliberately means beating once or repeatedly to cause physical pain, for example, by striking a blow with hand, by kicking or striking with a blunt object, by pressing, pulling or

weeks) disorder in the functioning of an organ or any other long-term health disorder, as well as a marked permanent loss by 1/3 of the general ability to work. This is punishable by imprisonment of up to 4 years or correctional labour of up to 2 years.

Serious bodily injury and cruel torture (111 Article, Criminal Code), when 1/3 of the capacity to work is lost, as well as irreparable mutilation of the face are punished by 2 to 7 years of imprisonment.

Women are frequently exposed to sexual violence. In 1996, 168 women were raped; in 1997, 166 women were raped; in 1998 – 166 (including attempted rapes). Sexual intercourse by resorting to physical violence or threats, or by taking advantage of the helpless state of the victim incurs punishment (4 to 7 years of imprisonment). In case of rape action is taken only upon the receipt of the victim's complaint, therefore, the summaries of the institutions of internal affairs do not reveal the actual situation. To our knowledge, there have been no court cases of sexual abuse in the family. However, it would be wrong to say that the problem of rape in the family does not exist. The emphasis is usually put on the inviolability of the family and private life (Article 22 of the Constitution of Lithuania stipulates that the private life of an individual is inviolable. The law and the court protect individuals from arbitrary or unlawful interference into their private or family life, and from the encroachment upon their honour and dignity). However, sexual abuse in the family is not a private matter to be solved only within the family.

The prosecutor has the right to support the charges in the court if this is necessary in order to protect the rights and lawful interests of citizens. Charges are brought on the basis of the victim's complaint.

who organise their trip remain unknown. If border police officers do not notice that the travel documents have been forged, young women who are brought into a specific foreign country are sold to local pimps according to preliminary agreements.

When speaking about prostitution, one should begin with the fact that legislators have not formulated the concept of this phenomenon, therefore, an institution or an officer who deals with prostitution treat it according to their own understanding.

In Lithuania prostitution is treated as an administrative offence which incurs a fine of LTL 300-500, and a person who is punished for these activities repeatedly is fined LTL 500-1000 or is kept under administrative detention for up to 30 days. Judging from the statistical data of recent years, this activity has been spreading rapidly: 58 persons were imposed an administrative punishment for prostitution in 1994, 165 in 1995, 254 in 1996, and 437 in 1997.

There is no criminal liability for prostitution in Lithuania, thus we can only speak about punishable actions closely related to prostitution:

- 1) directly related to prostitution;
- 2) indirectly related to prostitution;
- 3) committed toward prostitutes;
- 4) predetermined by prostitution.

In the first case, it is crimes stipulated in Article 239 and Part 1 Article 241 of the Criminal Code. Running of dens and procuration are crimes that violate the public order, pose threat to the public security and health. Running a den for depravity means providing premises for sexual relations or for other activities of depravity.

Procreation is a constant bringing together of men and women for sexual relations: persuasion, organising dates, finding partners who agree to enter into sexual relations, providing premises to concrete persons for sexual relations.

Involvement in prostitution means actions that encourage an under-aged girl to engage in prostitution. An under-aged girl can be involved in prostitution by persuasion, promises or coercion. Involvement in prostitution is when the perpetrator helps the under-aged girl to engage in prostitution who has been engaged in this prior to this event.

participated in the perpetration of such crimes. The survey also showed that nearly all the prostitutes were threatened or they paid contributions to the criminal world.

Crimes that are usually committed against prostitutes are as follows: personal theft from flats, extortion of personal property, overt theft and robbery, grievous and medium bodily injuries.

Crimes preconditioned by prostitution are also connected with venereal diseases and AIDS. As a rule these diseases are not spread by professional prostitutes because they take precautionary measures. However, the situation may change and we should have legal instruments ready to solve these problems when they arise.

Provisions of the Law on the Health System do not give advantages to any sex, although the law does not contain any special provisions eliminating discrimination of sexes. All persons ha

supply babies and children with locally produced quality food is to develop its production in Lithuania and to import only diet or curative food. Currently the production of Lithuanian baby food is subsidised by the state. The Ministry of Health formed a commission in 1997 to carry out a feasibility study of production of liquid dairy baby food. The findings of the commission will help the Government to adopt a decision that is rational from the point of view of health.

Reproductive health depends on physical and mental state and sexual health. Equality of rights in sexual relations between men and women and in bearing children calls for mutual respect, consent and responsibility. The right to give life depends on whether the couples or persons recognise the right to free and

From the legal point of view, in the sphere of education the discrimination of sexes is abolished. Article 41 of the Constitution provides for a compulsory education of persons under the age of 16. The same article establishes that everyone shall have an equal opportunity to attain higher education to their individual abilities. The implementation of this provision is foreseen in Article 33 of the Law on Science and Studies, that provides for equal opportunities for all members of society to education according to their individual abilities. Article 35 of the same law establishes equality of all sexes in becoming a scholar and participating in various competitions to receive an academic degree.

Article 38 of the Constitution stipulates that marriage shall be entered into upon the free consent of a man and a woman. Such a right is also guaranteed by Article 4 of the Marriage and Family Code which prohibits any direct or indirect abridgement of rights or providing direct or indirect priorities in concluding marriage and in family relations on the basis of descent, social status, sex, education or other circumstances.

The law also guarantees equal rights to freely choose a partner and to enter into marriage on one's free will and upon mutual consent. The main condition for entering into marriage is the consent of both partners who have become of age as established by the law.

Equal rights and duties when in marriage and upon its dissolution are regulated by Article 21 of the Marriage and Family Code. The 8ly Csw.9(5.82 Tc013.2(ily Code2 Tc01sd 5.9.9(i)iban)-53(ght)5.1(s partn

- 4. To demand the division of property acquired in marriage (Article 23);**
- 5. To demand that the spouse provides material support after the dissolution of marriage (Article 28).**

The Code of Marriage and Family stipulates that the

DEMOGRAPHY AND HEALTH

I. OVERVIEW OF DEMOGRAPHIC SITUATION

Virginija Eidukienė
Sigita Litvinavičienė

Demographic processes

In recent years the main demographic processes in Lithuania have acquired new features: birth rate has dropped significantly,

The divorce rate increased from 1990 to 1994. In 1991 there were 4.1 divorces per 1,000 population. The number of divorces and the divorce rate have slowed and remained stable since 1994 – an average of 11,000 couples are divorced annually (three divorces per 1,000 population). The number of divorces per 100 marriages remains high and fluctuates depending party on the declining number of marriages (Table 2).

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**Divorce rate by length of marriage
(per 100 marriages)**

Length of marriage	1993	1995	1997
0-4	10.4	8.0	9.0
5-9	11.6	9.3	11.5
10-14	7.7	6.2	6.8
15-19	5.2	4.1	4.5
20-24	3.3	2.2	2.6
25+	4.7	2.4	3.2
Total divorce indicator	42.9	32.2	37.6

More often, divorce happens during the fifth sixth years of marriage (approximately 3% of all marriages dissolve). Recently, the divorce rates for the first and second years of marriage have decreased. This can be explained by the fact that there are fewer people marrying at a young age. Approximately 20% of couples divorce their tenth year of marriage, and 11% during the following decade, while 3% divorce after having been married for more than 25 years.

The primary negative consequence of divorce is the increase in single parent families. In 1998, there were 8,398 divorced families with under-age children (71% of all divorces). Consequently, more than 12,000 children live in single parent (usually the mother) families; in 1990-1998, approximately 100,00 children ‘lost’ one of their parents to divorce.

Fertility

A decrease in the birth rate began to take place on an unexpected from 1991. This decrease failed to slow even when a numerically fairly large generation reached a reproductive age. In 1998, 37 thousand children were born, 34 % less than in 1990. The total fertility rate fell from 2.0 to 1.36. The birth rate fell the most

dramatically, by 11%, in 1993. The declining trend continues today, but at a significantly slower rate.

Such low birth rate does not guarantee the change of generations. The demographic situation is the most favourable when the sum

of such deaths increased; and there have been fewer suicides, murders and deaths caused by alcohol.

Abortions

Abortions in Lithuania still remain an acute problem as in other post-socialist countries. Though certain trends of a decline in the number of abortions have been observed, the figure still remains high. The fact that abortions serve as the only means of family planning and contraceptives are not widely used. The long-lasting shortage of information on contraceptives has had an impact on forming such a concept. The Education of society in sex education, family planning and sexual life was also neglected.

With the restoration of independence and establishment of a market economy possibilities opened to choose modern methods for regulating pregnancies. However, following a decline in the

Induced abortions per 100	73.4	76.4	60.1	56.9
Live births				

Female incidence of tuberculosis in 1990-1997 grew twice: in 1990 23.6 incidences fell per 100000, in 1998 this figure was 52,5. It should be noted, that urban females get infected with tuberculosis more often than rural females do, i.e. they account for approximately 705 of all infected for the first time.

Incidence of mental disorders

Indicators of mental disorders in Lithuania went down as much as 1,7 times during the transition period. In 1990 270.4 new incidences fell per 100 000 persons, in 1996 this figure was 155.8. It is still difficult to change the public opinion in relation to mental patients. During the soviet period politically “inconvenient” and unreliable persons could be placed in psychiatric hospitals. Persons suffering from mental disorders used to be isolated from society and they had to tackle problems of their integration themselves. The public’s opinion in relation to patients ill with mental disorders has been currently changing and persons facing critical situation more frequently resort to the assistance of psychologists or psychiatrists. Such an assistance becomes more accessible to the public at large. Doctors of relevant profiles work in schools, Labour exchanges etc. Nevertheless, even nowadays a certain part of the public avoid resorting to the qualified assistance of doctors-psychiatrists in case of chronic stress or augmented nervousness. Cases when persons become addicted to alcohol or drugs are not rare.

With an application of TLK-10 in morbidity statistics in 1997, figures of the former years of the transition period are difficult to compare.

There were 5,4 thousand persons ill with mental disorders registered for the first time in 1997 (i.e. 145.5 cases per 100 000 population), of which females made up 44,4% and minors under 14 accounted for 29%. Females were mostly suffering from temper (temporary insanity) diseases (29,1% of all diseases), children were ill with behavioral and emotional disorders, which disclosed themselves in childhood and teens age (34,9%). Another 34% of minors, facing mental health problems, had a diagnosis of mental backwardness. At the end of the year there were 77,5 thousand patients suffering from mental disorders (2 092.2 incidence per 100

The number of sexually transmitted diseases has been growing significantly during the transition period. Inadequate education in sexual life has its impact on that. With the abolition of compulsory treatment of infected persons, their registration and coverage became inaccurate. The prostitution business has also exerted its influence on the prevalence of venereal diseases.

Table 7

Morbidity by sexually transmitted diseases
(Number of incidence)

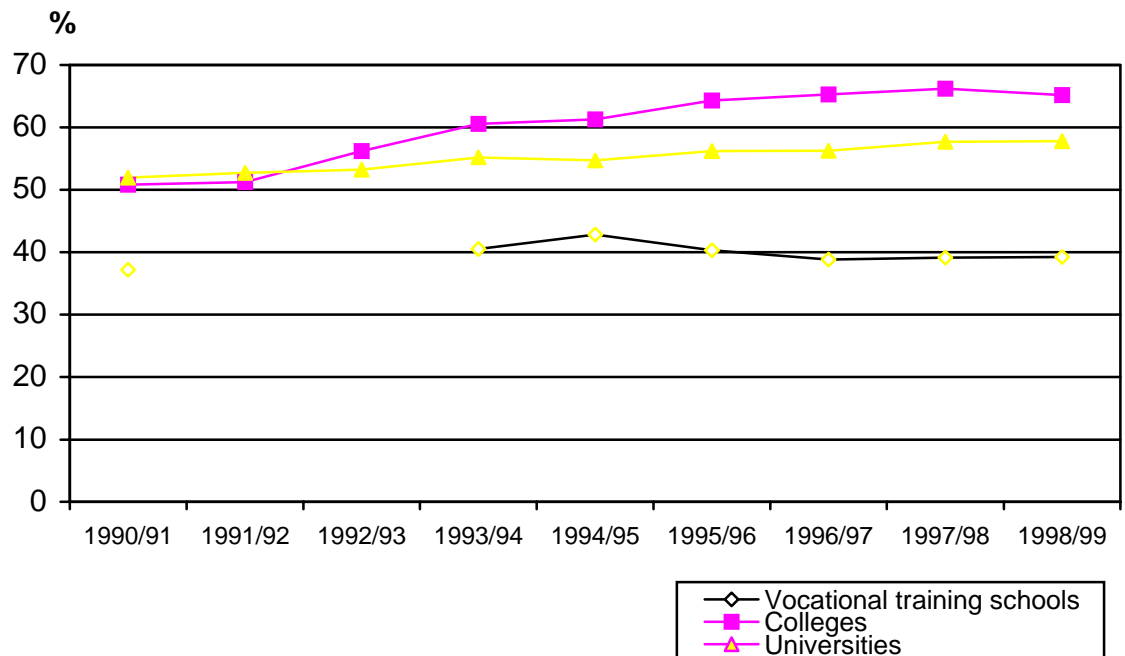
	1990	1995	1997	1998
Syphilis	72	3379	3146	2326
Women	36	1473	1450	1110
Men	36	1906	1696	1216
Acute gonorrhoea	2190	3597	1823	1345
Women	778	828	325	219
Men	1412	2769	1498	1126
Chronic gonorrhoea	761	460	198	142
Women	463	259	96	80
Men	298	201	102	62

WOMEN IN THE EDUCATION SYSTEM

In Lithuania, education is one of the spheres where women's accomplishments have been tremendous. In this country, questions concerning women's illiteracy or lack of educational opportunities for women never arise. It is notable that Lithuanian women put a lot of effort to acquire a high level of education as possible than men

(Lithuania, 1999). In the academic year 1998/99, women comprised 50.7%

50% in secondary schools, 39.2% in vocational training schools, 65.2% in colleges and 57.8% in universities¹. The number of girls



in secondary school remains stable at around 50%, and in vocational training schools, colleges and universities the numbers fluctuates slightly (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Changes in the number of women studying in vocational training schools, colleges and universities, %

¹ including other university type schools of higher education: academies, institutes.

Thus, high numbers of women prevail among the student population. Since 1990, the number of women studying at colleges and universities has witnessed a continuous constant growth. In considering these figures from the point of view of vocational training, it is obvious that the majority of young men choose industry related professions, and overall women tended to choose professions connected with office work. In the academic year 1998/99, in vocational training schools the largest number of women studied craft and manufacture related professions (7713), although they still comprised only 24.2% of all the students. Many young women (4502) also chose studies in home economics, and here they constituted the majority at 61.4%. The services sector is the third most popular choice among young women (3812 girls, 84.7%). In comparison to other modes of studies, women's representation in engineering, transport and communications was low.

In colleges, girls and boys also opt for different educational programmes. Girls tended to choose trade and business (6835 girls, 78.4%), teacher's training (3047; 91.9%) and nursing and treatment (2901; 91.8%) studies. Where as the boys usually choose to study engineering (5850 boys, 71.3%), trade and business management (1880; 21.6%), transport and communications (973; 69.3%) programmes.

A similar trend in the choice of professions can be observed in universities. Here, the largest number of women (10536) opted for a teacher's profession and studies in education, where they comprised 77.6% of the total students in this area. Men tend to choose technical studies (9260 men; 68.4%). It is evident that at all levels of education women and men choose different professions. Certainly, stereotypes of 'feminine' and 'masculine' professions plays a significant role, although it is no secret that men tend to choose those professions that promise the potential of higher salaries and status. This premise is supported by the fact that men avoid the teaching profession, which is not regarded 'feminine' but clearly has no prospect from the point of view of incentives in better salaries and career advancement. The acquired professions probably does affect men's and women's situation in the labour market at the greater extent than the level of education, because it is abundantly clear that women enter the labour market with higher level of education (Table 1).

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WOMEN AND MEN WHO PARTICIPATE IN THE
LABOUR MARKET,
BY EDUCATION, 1998, %

EDUCATION	Employed population		Unemployed	
	Women	Men	Women	Men
Higher	25.7	19.5	9.1	6.2
College	28.0	20.3	24.3	16.3
Vocational	15.8	28.4	23.9	32.3
Secondary	19.9	18.6	34.5	24.9
Basic (9 years)	7.1	9.1	10.9	15.8
Primary (does not have primary education)	3.5	4.1	1.5	4.4

A recent trend reveals that a growing number of women have been trying to attain an even higher level of education. This is evident in the increasingly numbers of women undertaking doctoral studies. For example, during the academic year of 1993/94, in doctoral studies women comprised only 34.0%, and in 1998/99 their number showed a significant increase reaching the figure of 51.8%. The number of women who acquired a doctorate in philosophy is growing at a much slower but steady rate: in 1993 women comprised 33.9%, and in 1998, 36.4% of all the doctorates in philosophy. It is very difficult for women to achieve the top level in academic and research fields. However, the number of women doctors habilitatus is growing: in 1993 women constituted 10.8%, and in 1997 – 14.5% of all the doctors habilitatus (Figure 2).

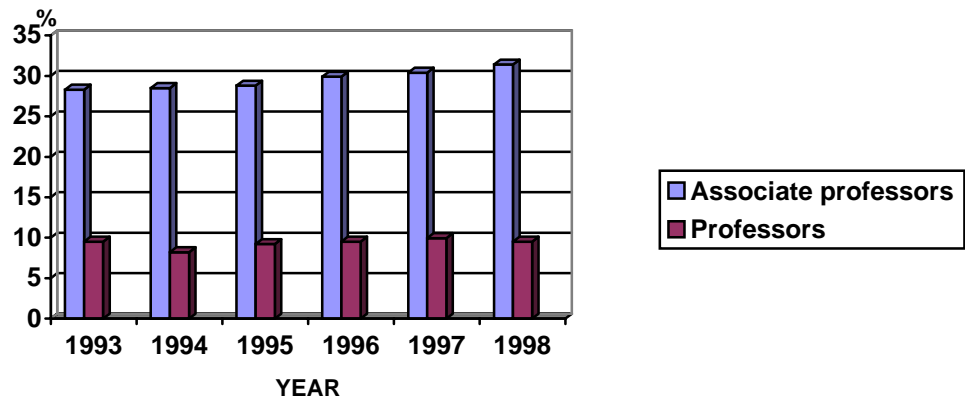


Figure 3. Share of women associate professors and professors, %

Let us now examine the particular problems that women encounter and experience in the education system.

Secondary school. At this level of education the number of girls and boys almost coincides. This ratio has remained stable for almost ten years. However, there is a popular belief that there are many more girls learning in secondary schools and, therefore, boys should receive special attention. Another myth which perpetrates the former belief, says that teachers give higher marks to girls because they are better disciplined. This myth, which has no basis whatsoever, but it does reinforce negative attitudes held by teachers' towards the achievements of boys and girls.

Vocational training schools and colleges. As was mentioned before, here a distinction between 'male' and 'female' professions is being made. Therefore, even though women attain a higher level of education, men have better prospects in the labour market.

Universities. There are more female students in universities, however, like in vocational training schools and colleges, they choose professions that have less prospects in terms of career advancement and higher salaries. Besides, university lecturers are also affected by the myths of supposedly better conditions for girls in secondary schools. Therefore, the numerous attempts to "help the boys" enter the most popular professions by introducing entrance quotas for boys was implemented by some universities. In 1997, Kaunas University of Technology attempted to introduce 'quotas' for men. However, after a successful campaign launched by women's organisations against such discrimination against women students these quotas were abolished. The adoption of the

employment by themselves, men who complete pedagogical studies are not willing to work at schools. According to the survey "Opportunities of Higher School Graduates in Lithuanian Labour Market" conducted in 1995-1996 (Purvaneckienė, Vasiliauskaitė, 1997), only 55% of men who obtained a degree in teaching in 1993, worked at school during the survey (in comparison with 85% of women).

To conclude the analysis of gender differences in the education system, we may state that even in the education system where women have had their best achievements, women encounter a considerable number of problems. Although more women than men are engaged in teaching, it is not women who determine the education policy. Ministers of Education and university rectors have always been men. Headmasters, heads of education departments and authors of textbooks or curricula have mostly been men. Nevertheless, women who have no access to decision-making, are usually held responsible for the mistakes in the education system.

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FAMILY STANDARD OF LIVING IN YEAR 1998

Average number of persons in households	2.69	2.33	3.02
Including, percent:			
Children below 18	26.4	24.4	27.5
Men	32.3	23.6	38.4
Women	41.3	51.5	34.1

Slightly less than one-half (44 percent) of all the households surveyed were families with children, including every eighth family – a single parent family, i.e. one adult with an under-aged child.

Income

The positive change in the Lithuanian economy in recent years has had a positive impact on human social development and the growth of well-being. The results of the surveys of household budgets for three years distinguished some tendencies in changes in the inhabitants' income and expenditures, as well as the consumption structure. The disposable income of households in 1998 per household member, was 422 Lt per month (4 Lt. = 1 USD). In comparison with 1997 it grew by 14.5 percent, and in two years, if compared to 1996 – by 29.3 percent. With the growth of consumption prices the actual income grew correspondingly from 9 percent to 13 percent.

The income level and its structure were dependent upon the
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clothes and footwear, 6.7 percent – transport, 4.8 percent – furnishing the apartment and daily maintenance, 3.5 percent went for health care, 3.8 percent – for the services at hotels, restaurants and canteens.

As shown by the survey data the living standard of families raising two children or more was much lower compared to the other households surveyed. Families with two children could allot to have 14 percent less consumption expenses compared to the average households surveyed. As for the families raising three or more children – as much as 41 percent less. The families with many children (raising three or more under-age children) could afford to spend only as much as 4.7 litas daily for sustenance, although food expenditures comprised as much as 57 percent of their total expenditures.

Living Standard Assessment

The households, which participated in the survey of household budgets, were asked to assess their own living standard. As many as 72 percent of the households considered themselves as belonging to the middle-class, 26 percent – to the poor and only 2 percent – to the well-off. Although the income rate in villages was lower compared to in urban areas, the urban and rural populations estimated their living standard in a similar way. That provides proof to the statement that urban households, of the same income as rural, experience a lack of means.

There were significant deviations in estimates of the living conditions by different types of households and by different social - economic characteristics. An especially large share of those identifying themselves as being poor were comprised of single parent families (one adult with children) – 46 percent, as well as single person households – 33 percent. As indicated the consumption expenses in the households comprised of an adult with children compared to the households of other types were among the lowest. That was not valid for single persons: the average consumption expenditures in that group of households were the largest. Thus, the identification of single persons as poor was predetermined by their material status. Single persons as well as single parents raising children were much more socially vulnerable which made an impact on the evaluation of the living standard of their households. The families with many children more often than others identified themselves as poor almost – 31 percent.

Single adults with under-aged children more often than others responded that their life had become worse during recent years: such a response was chosen by 46 percent of the single parent families.

One half of all the households, which indicated the decrease of their standard of living, had mentioned the rise of prices and the same income in the household as the main cause. 30 percent relate the decrease to unemployment, 8 percent – to the loss of work capacity due to sickness.

Need of means as indicated by households, Lt per person monthly

Minimal needs	Average needs	Cash consumption expenditures
		4-0.0038 .5g

EMPLOYMENT OF RURAL WOMEN IN YEAR 1998

Vitalija Motiekaitien

There is a lot written and survey data published about the situation of women in Lithuania. Although, up till recently the situation of rural women was not analysed. From our practice and experience we do know, that the situation of rural women is especially hard from the point of view of work, income as well as the possibility to participate in the life of society. In case there is no statistical data, the proof becomes impossible. It was for this particular reason that the Women's Information Centre has ordered the statistical analysis of the survey data. Vitalija Motiekaitiene, the head of the Employment Statistics Group at the Department of Statistics, carried out the analysis. She presented the data on the inhabitant structure, employment, unemployment, income distribution etc. in two sections: town/village, men/women. Thus, it will be interesting not only for those interested in the position of rural women, but all rural inhabitants, affected

In the beginning of 1997 there was a noticeable decrease of rural inhabitants in number, as for the beginning of 1998 it started to

Figure 1. Distribution of Inhabitants by Major Age Groups (%).

The tendency of inhabitants ageing gradually could be noticed. Both in towns and villages the number of old people were increasing and the number of children (aged 0 - 14 years old) was decreasing. In 1970 children exceeded, old people in number by 82 percent, meanwhile at present it is only 16 percent, as for the villages – there were more old people compared to those of children. The ratio of the young to the old inhabitants can be well illustrated by the ageing indice.

Table 2
Ageing indice
(number of inhabitants aged 60 and over per 100 children under 15 years of age)
(at the beginning of each year)

	1970	1980	1990	1998
In village	69	85	103	105
In town	40	45	56	76

The social exclusion of rural inhabitants, contrary to the urban, was more outstanding: they had less possibilities to be employed, use modern technologies in the household and had limited possibilities to use the services of health care, education, culture. The indicators of human social development show a lower life quality in villages. The mortality and sickness indices (related to the non-medical causes of death and social ailments) were higher in villages compared to those in towns; the poverty level and scope in villages exceeded that in towns, besides the level of unemployment was higher in rural areas.

Table 3
Mortality of the inhabitants
(deaths per 1000 inhabitants)

Year	Total inhabitants			Rural inhabitants		
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total

1970	8.1	9.8	8.9	10.3	12.5	11.3
1980	9.4	11.8	10.5	13.1	16.6	14.7
1990	9.8	11.7	10.7	14.6	17.1	15.8
1995	10.7	13.8	12.2	15.2	18.9	17.0
1997	10.0	12.4	11.1	14.5	17.1	15.7

There were three major causes of death: cardiovascular disorders,

suicides	18	117	66	13	58	34
Total	1452	1712	1576	791	1010	894

places for children of pre-school-age has decreased per 1000 children – twice in town and four times in village.

II. Employment of Inhabitants

2.1 Problems of employment assessment

Agricultural production in Lithuania remains inefficient and of small competitive capacity. Around 20-22 percent of all employed are involved in agricultural production. This is an extremely high percentage in comparison to other countries of Western Europe. This is due to the prevailing big farms that are dominant in Western Europe along with the high technical level of labour in agriculture. In Lithuania, like in neighbouring Latvia and Estonia, small-farm agriculture prevails.

At the beginning of 1998 the Agriculture Register had 328 thousand small-farm owners with no more than 3 ha of land. There were 67,5 thousand farms over 3 ha of land registered in the Farmers' Farms Register. 48 percent of those registered in this Register – are women. In addition, the parents' or relatives' land was restituted or rented by another 201 thousand inhabitants. The average size of the land owned by the farmers, including the non-arable land is approximately 7 hectares.

The high employment rate in agriculture is historically predetermined by tradition. In Lithuania, which is different when compared to the other Baltic States, the number employed in agriculture were always the highest.

Table 5

Employed in agriculture (in percent)

	1935	1960	1970	1980	1990	1997	1998
Lithuania	80	54	31	23	19	22	21
Latvia	65	36	21	16	17	18	19
Estonia	...	26	17	14	13	9	10

The Department of Statistics took into consideration the contemporary situation in Lithuania and the recommendations of the International Labour Organisation (ILO), while conducting the population employment survey and kept to the following approach:

Employed inhabitants – all the inhabitants over 14 years of age, who were employed at the time of the survey for any work that

lasted no less than 1 hour per week and for which they received a wage in cash, or in-kind (food products and other types or products) or had profit (income). The small-scale farmers of working-age with no other source of living except their own land, irrespective of whether they sell or consume the product they obtain were considered employed. The small-scale farmers - pensioners are considered to be employed in the case that their income from agriculture exceeds the pension they receive.

If the pension for the majority of rural pensioners is bigger than the net income from land, they are considered to be non-active inhabitants. In case that they were considered employed in agriculture, then their share would be not 20 percent, but 30 percent or even 40 percent.

2.2 Major characteristics of the activities of inhabitants

Employed	753	816	1569	208	255	463
Unemployed	116	146	262	25	44	69
Work force	869	962	1831	233	299	532
Not active inhabitants	738	418	1156	264	140	404

There were more rural women of surveyable age compared to men. They comprised 497 thousand or 53 percent out of the total of rural inhabitants surveyed. There were, nevertheless, a smaller number of employed rural women compared to men. They comprised 45 percent of the total rural inhabitants employed. This was due to the fact that more girls compared to boys studied at secondary schools. Quite lots of women were raising under-age children and were housewives, and also, they retired earlier and fell into the group of the non-active population. That was why there were twice as many non-active women compared to men. There were less unemployed rural women compared to men. They comprised 25 thousand or more than one-third (36%) of the total rural population.

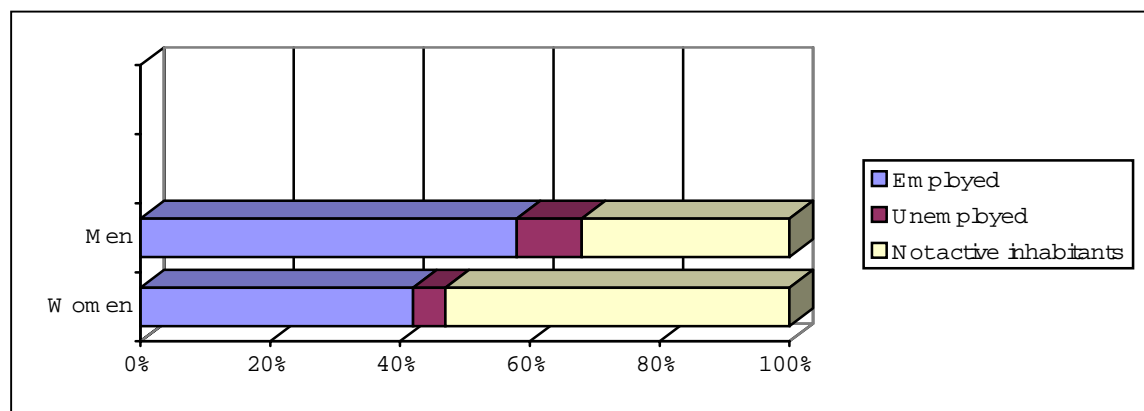


Figure 2. Rural Population Activity, in Year 1998

2.3 Employed by age groups

Employment differed by age groups. There was much less urban employed youth under 24 years of age, compared to rural youth, correspondingly 10% and 15%. That was accounted for by the urban youth attending secondary, high or higher education, whereas more rural children having graduated from basic school (nine years of studies) started employment or assisted their parents on the farms.

For May 1998 there were 119 thousand working women over 55 and men over 60 years of age. They comprised 15 percent of this age group. There were less employed rural inhabitants of this age group, compared to those in urban areas, correspondingly 13 percent and 17 percent. As it was much more difficult for urban pensioners to make their living just on a pension, a substantial part of them were working. Rural inhabitants of retirement age did not work in agricultural enterprises, the majority of small-scale farmers of this age group were considered to belong to the category of non-active inhabitants. The farmers of retirement age and family members of retirement age who helped them comprised 60 percent of the total farmers and were defined as belonging to the category of the employed.

Table 7

Employed inhabitants by age groups (percent)

Age groups	Total population			Rural population		
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
14-24	10	13	11	13	17	15
25-34	26	28	27	25	26	26
35-44	30	27	29	26	26	26
45-54	24	18	21	24	17	20
55-59	6	8	7	6	8	7
60 and >	4	6	5	6	6	6
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

In all the age groups there were less employed rural women compared to rural men, except for the age group of 45-54 years. The higher employment of women of this age was predetermined by their ability to allot more time to work as they have raised their children by that time.

2.4 Population employment level

The population employment was best reflected by the level of employment. This level for Lithuania was 52.5 percent, whereas for rural women - only 41.8 percent. More than one-half of all women were working in towns, much more than in villages. Although the employment level of young rural women aged 14-24

Self-employed – are the persons working independently at their own enterprise with no hired persons. Their activities are based on individual labour or their family members' work. This category includes small-scale agricultural farmers who produce agricultural goods to satisfy their needs or for sale. In addition, this group also includes persons, who systematically produce goods or provide services expecting income or profit. Those are small-scale craftsmen (construction workers, producers of goods, sewers, barbers and the like, musicians, artists, painters, traders), i.e. persons who do not belong to any company or enterprise. The persons working on patent basis belong to this group.

At the beginning of 1998 there were 57,8 thousand farmers registered at the Farmers' Register with a similar number of helping family members employed.

2.6 Employment by economic activities

Population employment by economic activities in territories differs greatly. Out of the total 1569 thousand of employed, 23 percent are

The smallest number of women (0.1%) was employed in construction works, financial mediation and real estate activities as well as state government (1.8%). There were three times less women compared to men in rural governing institutions. However, in educational institutions there were two times more women than men, as for the health care – even three times more. This was characteristic of all the economy at large.

2.7 Employment by vocations

largest vocational group, in which rural women prevailed were elementary simple vocations, i.e. vocations, that do not require education. There were 15 percent of the total number of rural women. Quite a lot of rural women (9%) were considered to comprise the vocational group of specialists. The smallest number of rural women was among those employed as legislators, senior officials and governors (4%) as well as operators of equipment, machinery and assemblers (2%). The latter vocation being more masculine as it mainly pertains to machine-operators, electricians and welders employed in industrial enterprises.

2.8 Hours Worked by the Employed Weekly

In accordance with article 40 in the Law on Labour Security of the Republic of Lithuania, a normal working day in an enterprise should not exceed 40 hours a week.

There can be none to indicate the amount of weekly hours to an employer or farmer, especially with the seasonal work. As indicated by the population employment survey, the average weekly hours worked are being indicated, because no other registration includes this data.

Table 8
Employed by weekly hours worked at their main work

	Total	Including hours worked						
		0	1-35	36-39	40	41-45	46-49	50 +
Thousands								
In town	1106	76	134	30	661	31	71	102
In village	463	18	108	13	189	18	31	87
Total	1569	94	242	43	850	49	102	189
Percent								
In town	100	7	12	3	60	3	6	9
In village	100	4	23	3	41	4	7	18
Total	100	6	15	3	54	3	7	12

As seen from the table, the amount of weekly hours worked varied. 54 percent of the employed in Lithuania work 40 weekly hours. Not full working week – less than 40 hours was worked by approximately 18 percent, and 50 or more hours – by 12 percent of

those employed. The main overtime hours were worked in agriculture (28%), construction (16%) and trade (17%).

Less than full working day in agriculture was worked by persons involved in cattle rearing and in plant growing. There were 21 percent of agricultural workers. As many as 39 percent employed in education worked up to 35 hours, 45 percent - 40 hours a week. Due to a comparatively scarce number of respondents, the distribution of data by gender lost its sense, so there would be little validity in analysing the data by gender. Thus, villages were analysed irrespective of gender. On average there were 42 weekly hours worked in agriculture, 41 hours in – hotels and restaurants and 40 hours in the activities pertaining to real estate, rent and commerce. The smallest number of weekly hours was in educational institutions - 32 hours, as for the institutions of communication, financial mediation and in other activities - 35 hours in each.

The amount of weekly hours worked by persons of different vocations varies. Most overtime – more than 40 weekly hours was worked by qualified agriculture workers (50%), legislators and governors (24%) and employees in the sphere of services and trade (32%).

The amount of weekly hours-worked in village, by different vocational groups also differs. 53 percent of qualified agriculture specialists, 26 percent of staff in trade and services and 18 percent of legislators worked over 40 hours. Although a substantial part of those employed in these vocations work less than 40 hours a week.

2.9 Employment in supplementary work

Rural inhabitants making their living from a plot of land of 2 - 3 hectares in size experienced a great need for supplementary work as a source of income. In May 1998 there were 6 percent of the employed with supplementary work (in September 1997 - 8 percent).

There were 52 thousand rural inhabitants - 30 thousand men and 22 thousand women who had supplementary work. They comprised correspondingly 12% and 11% of the total rural population. The majority of them were additionally working in the sphere of agriculture (47 thousand): 19 thousand women and 28 thousand men. Some of them were working as farmers or in their own small freeholds at weekends and after working hours. The majority of those with supplementary work were qualified staff in agriculture.

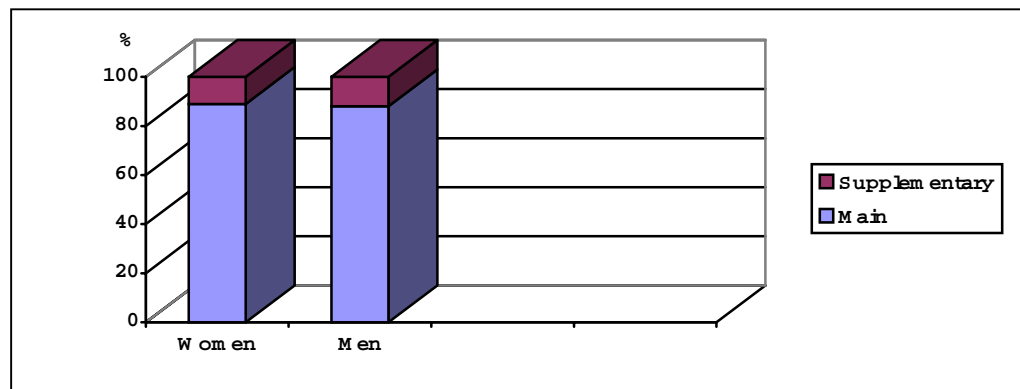


Figure 6. Main and Supplementary Employment of Rural Population

III. Unemployment

3.1 Unemployment concept

There are a lot of discussions lately on how to define an unemployed person and why differences in announced numbers of the unemployed occur in the surveys conducted by the Department of Statistics and those of the Lithuanian Labour Exchange. In accordance with the data obtained by the Department of Statistics on the population employment survey, there were twice as many unemployed compared to the numbers announced by the Labour Exchange. The question about which data was true was often put forward.

The Department of Statistics used the methodology of the International Labour Organisation (ILO) and EUROSTAT for the surveys. In accordance to it the unemployed are the persons of surveable age having no job at the time of the survey and who were ready to start work in a fortnight after finding a job, who were active in the search for paid job during a period of four weeks: applied to public or private Labour Exchanges, directly to the employers, acquaintances, friends and unofficial Labour Exchange mass media, etc. were looking for premises and equipment suitable for their business or attempting to obtain patents, licence and credit. The students and pupils, willing to be employed and not interrupt their studies, as well as housewives who were seeking a job for a certain period and ready to start work in the nearest future, were also considered unemployed.

The Lithuanian Labour Exchange collects information on the unemployed who addressed them. In accordance with the Law on Support for the Unemployed, the unemployed are persons of working-age who do not work, do not study at day educational

institutions and are registered with the public local Labour Exchange as persons seeking work and ready to undergo vocational training.

Table 10
Unemployment in Lithuania¹⁾

	Unemployed, thousands			Unemployment level, %		
	Women	Men	Total	Women	Men	Total
Statistics Department survey data						
1997	121	135	256	14,0	14,1	14,1
1998	116	146	262	13,4	15,1	14,3
Registered with the Labour Exchange						
1997	54	45	99	6,0	5,4	5,6
1998 m.	55	55	110	6,2	6,2	6,2

¹⁾ **September 1997, May 1998**

Every second unemployed, person who applies to the Labour Exchange, is identified as belonging to this category of population in accordance with the data obtained from the survey of the Department of Statistics. On 1 July 1998 the Labour Exchanges had registered 98 thousand unemployed including 35 percent in the rural population. Among all the rural unemployed women comprise 15 thousand or 42%.

The territorial Labour Exchanges conducted surveys on the motivation of the unemployed, which showed that the rural unemployed were more passive compared to the urban. The majority was willing to obtain unemployment benefit or a document that was needed for social benefit. The rural unemployed women comprised one-third of all unemployed women.

3.2 Unemployment by age groups

The growing rate of unemployment among rural inhabitants is becoming a serious problem as there is much less work, compared to the amount of the persons seeking work.

The Department of Statistics conducted a survey in May 1998, the data of which indicated the number of unemployed in Lithuania being 262 thousand, the majority of whom - 74 percent, were urban inhabitants, whereas - 26 percent were rural. There were 44

percent unemployed women. The majority of unemployed women (79%) were town residents. The rural unemployed women comprised 36 percent, men - 64 percent. The rural unemployed women comprised one-fifth of the total unemployed women in the country (21,5%). Almost in all the age groups there were less rural unemployed men than women, except for one group of 35-44 years, in which the comparative load of women comprised 52 percent.

Table 11
Unemployment by age groups

	Unemployed, thousand			Rural, thousand	Share of the unemployed rural women in total numbers of unemployed women, %
	Women	Men	Total	Women	

group numbered 19 thousand or 7 percent of the total unemployed, including - 9 thousand or 12 percent of the total rural unemployed.

With years increasing, the unemployment level was decreasing, although in the age group of 20-24 years it was quite high – 22.4 percent. In towns it was 24,1 percent, in villages 19.2 percent. The unemployment level for rural women aged 14-24 years amounted to 18.2 percent and was twice bigger compared to the total rural women.

Figure 7. Rural population unemployment levels by age, %

which increased crime. In 1997 compared to 1990 there were registered 2,3 times more offences in villages and - 2 times more in towns.

Table 12
Urban and rural criminality

	1990	1994	1995	1996	1997
Offenses registered					
in village	8716	18366	17221	17323	20406
in town	28340	40268	43598	50730	55410
Offenses registered per 10000 inhabitants					
in village	74	154	144	146	174
in town	111	159	173	201	219

Out of 191 thousand formerly employed unemployed persons 107 thousand or 56 percent have lost their job, as they were dismissed. Women suffered most from that. In Lithuania they comprised 61

employed	100	100	100	100	100	100
unemployed						

3.4 Former economical activities of the unemployed

As the majority of the persons now unemployed formerly were working, let us analyse the spheres of activities they were engaged in. Since the announcement of Independence restitution the numbers of employed in industry has decreased from 555 thousand to 334 thousand or 40 percent. Thus, the main shares of the unemployed were former industrial workers. Another substantial share of the unemployed were from trade or home services. 18 percent of the total unemployed were engaged in the above mentioned activities. During the privatisation of shops there were many sales persons dismissed, especially the former public shops staff, who could not live up to the new requirements that were presented to them. Besides, many of them were of senior age, whereas the private shop owners needed young sales women.

During the privatisation process there were a lot of enterprises providing home services lost, especially in rural areas. With the premises that underwent privatisation and changed the profile of their activities a lot of small scale equipment repair establishments were liquidated and their staff lost their jobs.

Many rural unemployed were formerly engaged in agriculture. They comprised close to one-half of the rural unemployed. In addition, around 18 percent of the rural unemployed were former workers in industrial companies, around 14 percent – in the spheres of trade and home services. There were more men employed in agriculture compared to women. The men comprised more than 60 percent, as for the women – only one-third of the corresponding formerly employed rural unemployed. Although the unemployed women formerly employed in industrial companies, construction organisations and service industry exceeds unemployed men for these activities. The rural women formerly employed in industry and construction comprised around one-third

	Women	Men	Total	In village		
				Women	Men	Total
Agriculture	6	18	13	29	60	48
Industry and construction	38	51	45	30	24	26
Services	56	31	42	41	16	26
Total	100	100	100	100	100	100

3.5 Former professions of the unemployed

The majority of the formerly employed unemployed persons were highly qualified workers, i.e. were working in industrial companies, as well as in construction. The new employers dismissed less qualified workers of these professions. They comprised almost one-half (45%) of the total formerly employed unemployed. In villages around 60 percent of the total formerly employed qualified unemployed were men.

A significant share of the total formerly employed unemployed were intellectual staff. They comprised 36 thousand or 19 percent of the total. They were mainly senior age population, who failed to adapt to the conditions of a market economy.

The formerly employed unemployed rural women were mainly among the professions in the sphere of services and trade. They comprised one-fourth of the total rural unemployed women.

Table 15

3.6 Education of the unemployed

The majority of the unemployed had no vocational background. Those were persons, who had recently graduated from secondary school. They comprised almost one-half of the unemployed in Lithuania. 22 percent of the total unemployed had only completed basic school. The higher the level of education, the lower the unemployment numbers. There were 18 percent of unemployed with specialised secondary education and 7 percent with the higher and the unfinished higher education among the total unemployed.

The rural situation is similar. The unemployed here were mainly with a secondary or basic school education (26 thousand each or 38 % in each group). Although, the comparative load of the „educated“ unemployed, was lower in comparison to the one in the country at large. There were 12 percent of the unemployed with specialised secondary education and 3 percent or twice less than in the country at large with a higher or unfinished higher education.

3.7 Job seeking by the unemployed

The unemployed were seeking work in a variety of ways – mainly via acquaintances and relatives (63% of total unemployed). Around one-half of the unemployed apply to the public Labour Exchange. The services of the private Labour Exchanges were used by around 5 percent of unemployed. This small number was accounted for by the paid-for services they provided. There were more persons who applied to the public Labour Exchanges as they expected not only to obtain work, but also, a document indicating them as being unemployed. The documents entitled them to fee concessions for communal services and free medical services. The registered unemployed obtained the right to receive unemployment benefit for not more than six months annually. The unemployment benefit as for May 1998 fluctuated between 135 to 250 litas (4 Lt. = 1 USD).

As it was complicated and sometimes impossible to find a job in a village, job seeking by asking relatives and acquaintances was less popular than in the country at large. One-half of all rural unemployed sought work in this way. The same number applied at the public Labour Exchanges. There were no gender-based differences in job seeking.

The most popular urban job seeking method was by asking relatives and acquaintances (66% urban unemployed), by applying at the public Labour

Figure 8. Job seek by women by type

3.8 Duration of unemployment

The duration of unemployment was varied. The period of seeking work for one year was for 37 percent of the total unemployed. The majority of the unemployed was (41%); those job seeking for 1-2 years. Three or more years of unemployment had been experienced by around 22 percent of the total unemployed. That was a very high percentage, which indicated a hopeless situation for the unemployed with no vocational training, of retirement age and with disabilities. That might have been the reason for such a high rate of suicides and crime in Lithuania.

Figure 9. Duration of unemployment in town and village

IV. Population income

The population employment data estimated the income, of the employed and the unemployed. They were comprised of the actual monthly wage, pensions, benefits as well as a diversity of other income for the agricultural production sold, patent or other

majority of pensioners fell into the group with an income below

second biggest group was below 400Lt. The income of this size was received by over 26 percent of the employed.

The figures caused doubts, as the minimum approved wage was declared by the majority of the inhabitants employed in private institutions. It was a rule, as indicated by practice, that employers most often offered contracts for the hired employees at the minimum wage, although actually use a variety of ways to pay much more. The respondents when questioned did not trust the staff from public institutions and more often than not indicated the official, but not actual income. The estimates of their size were complicated. Special population surveys were needed, in which the respondents would have to mark their income all year round. That was very problematic, as the level of the hidden answers of the respondents, especially those with shadow income, would be high. Thus, the information obtained on population income would not be reliable enough. The analogical surveys conducted by the members of the European Union were also hesitant as to the reliability of

200 Lt	34	32	66
400 Lt	38	51	89
600 Lt	13	24	37
1000 Lt	3	9	12
Total	109	151	260

More than 10 percent of agriculture workers had no income at all, 25 percent had income from 100 to 200 litas. This is income obtained by agricultural products sold.

The majority of the employed 89 thousand or 34 percent had an income below 400Lt. Only a small share (5%) of farmers had an income close to 1000Lt. Those were the large-scale farmers, with an animal farm or hothouse business.

The income of women working in agriculture was smaller than compared to men. Around 40 percent of women received an income below 200 litas, as for men there were only 33 percent in this category. An income below 400Lt was for 35 percent of women and 33 percent of men. There were three times less women with an income around 1000Lt compared to men. They made up 3 percent, as for men 6 percent of the rural unemployed.

4.2 Income of the unemployed

Out of 262 thousand total unemployed 75 percent had no income whatsoever; in villages out of 69 thousand - 72 percent. An income below 100 Lt was for 7% of Lithuania's population and 11% of the rural unemployed; below 200Lt - 11 percent of Lithuania's population and 14 percent of the rural unemployed. The income of the unemployed most often came from random work performed or support from relatives.

V. Life Standard of Rural Population

The rural life standard could be estimated by the household budget survey implemented by the Department of Statistics. The annual amount of respondents in the survey exceeds 8 thousand households including around 3 thousand rural households.

The survey data demonstrated that the life standard of the rural population was much lower compared to the urban. The survey data of the third quarter of 1998 indicated that the average income of a household calculated per capita was 430

Lt, including - 359 Lt for rural population. The income of the population at large during the third quarter of 1998 grew by 12 percent, if compared to those in the third quarter of 1997, as for the rural population – by 10 percent.

As in-kind economy dominates in the villages, the cash income of the rural population comprises only 64% of their total income and is almost twice lower compared to those of urban population.

The main source of income for the rural population was wages and income for work without being hired. They comprised almost two-thirds of the total income. Although the economic situation as it was and especially the population composition by age made it so, that the job income made up only 67 percent of the cash income of rural population. For those on pensions and benefits - 33 percent (to be compared – in town the job income made up 70 percent of total cash income, and for those on pensions and benefits - 30%).

The consumption expenditure structure was a clear indicator of the living standard. 49 percent of household expenditures went on foodstuff. Although the rural population produced the bigger share of foodstuffs by themselves, food expenditures comprised almost one-half (44 percent) of the total expenditure.

The analysis of poverty level conducted by the Department of Statistics in 1997 disclosed the highest level of poverty being in rural areas. The poverty margin is considered to have been reached when the average consumption expenditure drops by 50 % per household member. 37 percent of the households with three or more children were in poverty. In Lithuania in 1997 there were 17 percent living in poverty, including almost 26 percent of the rural population. The consumption expenditures that were below those calculated by the Ministry of

higher, but not in spring, i.e., as for May 1998. During that period the numbers of unemployed grew by 6 thousand or by 2 percent, although the unemployment level grew from 14.1 percent to 14.3 percent, i.e. it grew by 0.2 percent.

The employment of women in Lithuania grew as unemployment decreased from 121 thousand to 116 thousand or 3 percent. The unemployment level of women also decreased from 14.0 percent to 13.4 percent. With the ageing of inhabitants the numbers of the non-active population grew.

Table 20

Population employment in 1997-1998 ¹⁾

a – 1997 b – 1998		Wome n	Men	Total	Village		
					Wome n	Men	Total
Thousands							
Inhabitants over 14 years old	a	1599	1374	2973	494	435	929
	b	1607	1380	2987	497	439	936
Employed	a	741	823	1564	211	265	476
	b	753	816	1569	208	255	463
Unemployed	a	121	135	256	26	31	58
	b	116	146	262	25	44	69
Percent							
Unemployment level	a	14.0	14.1	14.1	11.1	10.6	10.8
	b	13.4	15.1	14.3	10.7	14.7	13.0

¹⁾ September 1997, May 1998.

The rural situation was even worse. The inhabitants were growing in number there, yet still the numbers of the employed was decreasing as well as those of the employed. The unemployment level in rural areas grew from 0.8 percent to 13 percent. The

There were positive changes experienced in the Lithuanian labour exchange. The number of the population over 14 was growing, as well as the number of the employed population. With the population getting older the number of non-active inhabitants was growing. The unemployment level grrg6onlabour

The National Machinery of Equal Opportunities

In Lithuania the issues of gender equality were first addressed in 1994, when a post of a State Counsellor on Women's Issues was introduced in the Prime Minister's Office. In 1996, it was upgraded into office of Adviser to the Government on Women and Family Issues. From the end of 1996 these issues have been referred to as issues of equal opportunities. At the end of 1996 the Government adopted the Action Plan for the Advancement of Women of Lithuania.

The year 1997 was the year when the national machinery of equal opportunities was being created. The Plan up to the year 2000 for the implementation of the Action Plan was adopted. A structural subdivision was established within the Ministry of Social Security and Labour, a gender statistics section was set up in the Department of Statistics and a ministerial group was formed to supervise these issues. Concurrently similar parliamentary groups were formed: a group of Women Parliamentarians involving members of parliament from all political parties headed by a chairperson who is re-elected at the beginning of each parliamentary session, and a parliamentary Commission of Family and Child.

Upon the adoption of the Law on Equal Opportunities at the end of 1998 and the establishment of the Office of the Ombudsman of Equal Opportunities in 1999, which set to work immediately, the national machinery of equal opportunities has been further developed. The Office enjoys broad administrative powers, which accords it a special status even among similar offices in the Nordic countries.

We are convinced that this mechanism will enable women to enjoy equal opportunities in all spheres of life.

Dr. Giedre Purvaneckiene

VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN

The problem of violence against women started to be studied quite recently. The numbers of registered violent crimes against women

Type of victimization	Women	Men
Personal theft	24.4	15.2
Robbery	3.7	5.9
Assault/threat	7.9	12.0
Sexual offence	3.7	-

N= 2191, 16 years and over, National representative survey

The results of the survey enable us to map out the scope of violence. Let us analyse the type of violence defined as “assault/threat”. Taking into account that 1 % of adult women comprise 15,000 inhabitants we can roughly estimate that there are about 24,000 victims of such offences per year. But crime statistics (Women and Men in Lithuania, 1998) indicated only 6,728 women

In this survey, the respondents were questioned about their whole-life experiences, so the results should not coincide with the previous ones. But the main trends are the same: men are more exposed to physical violence. But here we see quite a different picture when analysing experiences of women and men in their marital families. So, we can conclude that the main problem for women is domestic violence. In this respect, further research on relations between victim and perpetrator is needed. The results of the survey revealed very strong correlation between experienced family violence in childhood and in adulthood. However, women who did not experienced physical violence by parents: 13% experienced physical violence by their spouses. Women who were badly beaten by their parents at least once: 46% experienced violence by their spouses (Purvanckien , 1997).

The survey “Violence against Women and Children” was conducted by the Vilnius University Women’s Studies Centre in 1996 (Moter studij centras, 1997). The respondents were questioned about their whole-life experiences as well. The survey was not representative, therefore, probably, the percentage of women who reported violence was slightly higher than in other surveys, but it gave more interesting facts to consider. First of all, these results confirm the conclusion that women are mostly exposed to domestic violence. Secondly, they draw attention to other types of violence experienced by women (Table 3).

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EXPERIENCES OF EMOTIONAL, PHYSICAL AND SEXUAL VIOLENCE BY WOMEN

Type of violence	Women, %
Emotional	77.7
Physical	64.5
- by father	17.5
- by spouse	35.6
Sexual	23.7
Did not experience any type of violence	13.6

N=228, 18-65 years of age

The comparison of results from several studies reveal some reasons why violence against women is marginalised, why it is so difficult to persuade officials and the community that immediate and systematic measures to combat violence against women should be introduced. First of all, the general results of the surveys and crime statistics show that men experience physical violence more often. Therefore, the structure of violent incidents should be disclosed, as well as the relationship between a victim and

hatred, helplessness, sorrow or other negative emotions.

*** 10.6 % of the victims reported the most serious incident to the police.**

*** women who were victimised in their parental families more often were**

police about the most serious incident. The strong correlation between their violent environment in parental families and violence in marital families was confirmed once more. Women who had grown-up in families with the father being violent against them or their mothers experienced frequent violence by their spouses. Men, whose father had been violent against the mother, had been more often violent against their own partner. Another correlation (negative) was observed between gender equality in families and violence. Out of all the women who regarded that their relations with their spouses as equal, 30.4 % experienced spousal violence, and those who regarded their relations as unequal, was very high at 71.5%.

the opinion that the problem of domestic violence should be solved by the family itself (Purvaneckiene, 1999b).

One of the main obstacles for combating domestic violence is lack of awareness by victims of violence, police enforcement officers, officials and society as a whole. Several actions were undertaken

R.Mikalaj nait (1999, p. 78) makes conclusion: "...that young women of 15 to 25 years of age have greater experience of physical and sexual abuse than older women. This allows us to state that the rate of violence against women in our society is on the increase". As it was reported above, however, the last survey was not representative, therefore it would be incorrect to generalize for the whole population.

The national representative victim survey "Violence against Women", also showed a high prevalence of sexual abuse and violence. In this survey, sexual violence was regarded as forced sex (i.e. rape), and as sexual abuse such as unwanted touching,

WOMEN WHO EXPERIENCED SEXUAL VIOLENCE OUT OF THE FAMILY AND IN THE FAMILY, %

Incidents of sexual violence	Perpetrator			
	Stranger	Acquaintance /relative	Spouse/ partner*	Spouse/ partner**
Forced to have sex when a women did not want to, by holding down or hurting in some way	2.1	1.9	5.9	8.6
Forced to have sex when a women did not want to, by threatening in some way (verbally or with a weapon, or a tool)	1.7	1.0	3.9	5.7

*** These percentage refer to all adult women**

**** These percentage refer to currently married and cohabiting women**

It is evident that the results of the various surveys differ. But these differences are caused by different interpretations by researchers of “sexual violence”, dependent on the forms and seriousness of incidents. But all surveys show high rates of experienced sexual violence or abuse. And, it is clear that sexual violence and sexual crimes are highly underreported. This is caused by the similar reasons as in the cases of domestic violence. In addition, the whole criminal process in the case of rape is a long and humiliating experience for a victim. The reports in Mass Media from the courts on rape cases depict a threatening picture (e.g., Box 2). Usually a

Rapists of a Young Girl Acquitted in K dainiai **By Gen Silickien**

Five rapists from of K dainiai were acquitted by the chairmen of the area court in K dainiai region.

On September 14, 1998, the area prosecutor's office took criminal action against five residents of K dainiai for gang rape of a young girl, R.Ž. During the pre-trial investigation it was established that on September 12, 1998, at around midnight, R.Ž., a resident of K dainiai, was walking home from a discotheque and was assaulted by two strangers. They lured the girl into a billiard-room. Shortly, they were joined by four of their friends. The youths were drinking alcohol heavily and, refused to let the girl leave, and forced her to drink alcohol. They struck her head with a cue stick the girl who had been made drunk had by now lost her bearings, and was unconscious. She was carried to the sauna room, undressed and raped by Osed

cases, the police force only makes an official remark to perpetrator that his behaviour is asocial.

Criminal procedure in cases of violence by a stranger or in the domestic environment is different (Meškauskaitė, 1999). In the case of violence by a stranger, police makes investigation and brings case to the court, even if a victim refuses to make complaint herself. In cases of violence in the domestic environment, the victim personally has to bring the case to the court (or apply personally to the police). Private cases are analysed by judges without pre-investigation by prosecution (unless there are no heavy injuries). But in all these cases the application of a victim is obligatory. However, women very seldom make complaints or withdraw them after some time.

One of reasons which prevents women from reporting violence by their husbands is absence of legal mechanism to protect a victim from the perpetrator in the future. There are no possibilities to remove him from the domicile or to prohibit further contact with the victim. The new draft Family Law (Lietuvos Respublikos Civilinis kodeksas, 1998) has an Article on temporary protection measures in cases of divorce proceedings only. If this draft Law passes the Seimas, it will at least be the first step towards the protection of women and

draft. There are no women's NGO at present to be a "watch-dog" to the draft Criminal Code, and the situation could be really tough if the draft commences to the discussion stage in the Seimas (Parliament), and it would be too late to interfere with many amendments.

Assistance for victims of violence. As from the 1st January 1999, there was the only one institution named the Crisis Centre and it remains the only shelter for abused women, established by the NGO Vilnius Women's Home.

But there are other options for victims of domestic violence to receive assistance. According to the data from the Women's Issues Information Centre, as from the 1st January 1999, the following institutions located in different cities provide assistance for women victims of violence:

1. Shelters (5): 2 shelters established by the municipalities; 1 shelter established by the Church; and 2 shelters established by the Municipality Police.
2. Lodging for the night homes (3): 2 established by the municipalities and 1 established by municipality police.
3. Consultative centres (2): Centre of Psychological Consultation and Cabinet of Family Relations.
4. Consultative centres, established by the Municipality police (2).
5. Phone lines of psychological help (5).
6. Phone trust lines, established by the Municipality Police - 40.

Two institutions Vilnius Women's Home Crisis Centre and Shelter for Abused Women, and Vievis Shelter for Women and Children provide assistance to abused women irrespectively of having children. Vilnius Shelter for Battered Mothers and Children provides accommodation only for mothers with children, but works as consultative centre for all battered women. The Caritas Care Home is oriented towards assistance for homeless women with children or pregnant women, not putting special stress on experienced violence. Shelters or consultative centres established by the Municipality police are oriented towards assistance to victims of violence.

The Vilnius Women's Home Crisis Centre and Shelter for Abused Women are the only two institutes that operate on a strong feminist ideology. The Vilnius Women's Home Crisis Centre and Shelter for Abused Women have been unable to establish the shelter due to lack of financial resources. So, the Crisis Centre only provides

psychological, medical or legal assistance on daily basis. Assistance and support is provided by volunteers mainly. The Crisis Centre operates a telephone service for women in domestic violence situation, open for 13 hours per day (8 am - 9 pm). Since it opened in November 1996 until February 1999, the Crisis Centre has provided assistance for 490 abused women.

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the majority of them are only starting to be involved in offering assistance for battered women. But the wishes of such services to be included into the "Reference book for women victims of violence" (Praktiniai patarimai, 1999) shows changes in their awareness.

Sumarizing the analysis of the situation, one can state that there is a very high prevalence level of violence against women, and the most serious problem for women are domestic and sexual violence. At present, there is quite a good established base of research results and informational-educational materials. It is high time to take practical actions now.

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WOMEN AND ELECTIONS

As described in the chapter “Political Participation: Statistical

Women's and gender equality questions in the election programs of

			opportunity” appears
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position vis a vis questions on women and equal gender rights, or opportunities in their election programs.

2a) The LFP and the LNEP, does mention separate social guarantees for women in their Policy on Social Guarantees. The parties in group 1b) touch on women's issues only formally, and they make no effort at all to understand women's problems. They have no consequent policies regarding women. Their old-

public office, even though the equal participation of women and men in decision making is a corner-stone of democracy.

In the election program of LSDP, the following immediate actions are laid out in the sub-section entitled, "Woman in the family and society": with the help of various forums and discussions, to formulate a healthy public attitude regarding gender equality rights, interrelationships in the family, in society, and in the labour market; to foster and support the activity of various women's associations and organizations; to foster representation by women at all levels of elected organs; to provide the opportunity for women's organizations to participate in local government; to create an effective system for re-qualifying specialists and employing women, by urging state and private enterprises to create new jobs for women; to activate the education of women in the sphere of questions regarding social insurance, labour rights, etc.; to take all measures to stimulate activity and co-operative ventures by business women; to improve medical services and a health maintenance system for women; in conjunction with professional unions to strive for increased exemptions and guarantees for working mothers; to adopt a Law on Equal Gender Rights and Opportunities and a program to implement such, with measures to eliminate discrimination and violence against women, and to abolish sexual coercion and exploitation of women; to humanize women's incarceration institutions so that they respect human rights, and to not keep newly born infants on the premises. To establish shelters for women, and ensure that local governments provide them with services.

But on the other hand, one can say that they are very contradictory regarding women's and equal gender opportunity issues. The above mentioned claims sound the most up-to-date of all the programs. However, this impression vanishes when one goes on to read the sub-section on "Problems regarding family support and housing" in which the most conservative attitudes are expressed. One gets the impression that the "Woman in the family and society" sub-section was written by people with experience regarding women's problems and with international attempts to deal with them, while the section on social guarantees for families was written by people who know nothing about women's or gender equality problems, or Lithuania's laws as they exist.

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therefore optimally reflect women's aspirations. However, let us try to look at this program in the same critical light as all the others. In summarizing an analysis of the LWP election program, one could say that in spite of everything, of all the party programs, it does deal with women's problems the most. But its position is not consistent, and even the departure point of its attitude towards women is not clear. Its general provisions claim that the LWP is based on a matrilinear culture, and that it wishes to revive that culture. This term is usually applied to describe pre-Christian cultures, and one could doubt whether a matrilinear culture is compatible with the radically Christian (Catholic) attitudes of the

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Protection of women's human rights - Law on Equal Gender Opportunities - Gender Equality Institution 	<p>LDLP, LSDP, LWP LSDP, LWP LDLP, LSDP</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Economic – Social Conditions for Women - Social assistance system - Childcare institutions - Childcare leave - Protection of women's ownership rights - Discrimination on the labour market - Unemployment - Re-qualification system - Fostering women's businesses ventures - Safety for women at work - Conditions for reconciling work and family responsibilities - Pensionable age 	<p>LCU, LDLP, LSDP, LWP LCU, LDLP, LFP, LNEP, LNU, LSDP LNU LFP, LSDP LCU LCU, LSDP LSDP, LWP LCU, LSDP, LWP LCU, LSDP LFP, LNEP LCDP, LCU, LDLP, LSDP LNU</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Women and Environmental Protection Women's Health and Family Planning - Abortion - Sex Education 	<p>- LCDP, LCU, LSDP, LWP LCDP, LSDP LSDP</p>

Having analyzed the data presented in Tables 1 and 2, one can conclude that voters did not choose which party to vote for on the basis of their concerns as reflected in their election programs vis a vis issues dealing with women's, or equal gender rights and opportunities. The Homeland Union (Lithuania's Conservatives), which won the election, barely touched on these questions in their election program. However, one should note that out of the five parties which ended up in Parliament according to a proportional representation system, three (the LCU, LDLP, and LSDP) did allocate a fair amount of attention to the questions on women's, or equal rights and opportunities, in their election programs.

Until now, most political parties did not allocate much attention to women's, or equal rights and opportunities problems. An analysis of election programs shows that some of them included these issues in their programs only as a formality, without any in depth work; some of the election programs are based on laws which are no longer in effect, and they continue to use out-of-date and obsolete legal categories. Some programs are contradictory. Naturally, different attitudes vis a vis these problems should be reflected in the different party programs. The Lithuanian Center Union, the Lithuanian Democratic Labour Party, and the Lithuanian Christian Democratic Party programs could be considered to be the most consequent. The Lithuanian Women's Party and the Lithuanian Social Democratic Party allocated the most attention to women', or equal rights and opportunities problems, and one can see that they are attempting to mainstream women's or gender equality problems in many spheres of public life; but at the same time, the programs of these parties are the most contradictory.

Having analyzed the Lithuanian Parliamentary election programs of the 10 political parties, one can draw the following conclusions:

- None of the political parties mainstream women's or gender equality problems into all spheres of public life.

- Only 4 political parties allocate a great deal of attention to women's or gender equality problems: the Lithuanian Center Union, the Lithuanian Democratic Labour Party, the Lithuanian Women's Party, and the Lithuanian Social Democratic Party.

- The programs of the Lithuanian Center Union, and the Lithuanian Democratic Labour Party are the most consistent in

this respect. Although the Lithuanian Christian Democratic Party does not allocate much attention to women's or gender equality problems, it does maintain a consistent, modern Christian Democratic position.

- The Lithuanian Social Democratic Party offers strategies regarding dealing with women's and gender equality problems which most approximate international standards, but at the same time, its other attitudes express contradictory, unrealistic, and legally incompetent ideas.

- The Lithuanian Women's Party allocates the most attention to women's problems, but its attitudes are marked by eclecticism, inconsistency, and vagueness.

- The provisions outlined in the political party programs regarding women's and gender equality issues did not essentially affect voters' decisions during the 1996 Parliamentary elections.

The behaviour of women voters

Women make up 54% of the voters in Lithuania. If women voted unanimously, their voice would determine election results. What determines which party women vote for: age, education, residence, or political views? Do women's political views and their vote differ from men's?

Representatives of the classical political theory claim that women are more conservative than men, and that they are more inclined to support and vote for conservative parties (Lipset, 1981). This is particularly characteristic of Catholic countries. This was the expected norm. However, the situation has been changing over the last years, and in many countries women are giving more of their support to left-wing parties and their candidates. De Vaus and McAllister (1989) analyzed the results of post-election surveys in 11 Western countries², and determined that in 10 of them, women

losing its significance, the difference between men's and women's views are diminishing. After analyzing the political attitudes of different social demographic groups, the authors conclude that equally non-religious women working together with men (and even more so, students, unemployed and pension-aged women) have more left-minded views than do men.

In Lithuania, women almost hold an equal position with men in the labour market; in 1996 they made up 50.1% of the labour force (Lithuanian Dept. of Statistics, 1997). This factor could direct younger women's political attitudes to the left. Lithuania's women are more religious than the men, and the older they are, the more important religion is to them (Purvaneckienė, 1995). This factor would direct older women's political attitudes to the right.

In countries with a stable democracy, there is a strong direct relationship between the populations' political views, and their vote for parties which represent their point of view, especially if there are two dominating parties in the country. Parties in Lithuania have not yet taken up firm positions on the left-right scale, and the population has not taken on stable political views. But there are indications that this process is taking place.

One part of the research project "Women and Elections", initiated by the Women's Issues Information Centre was an analysis of the intentions of women voters, and their behaviour during the 1996 Parliamentary elections (Ališauskienė, Purvaneckienė, 1999). An analysis of the results of the public opinion polls carried out by the company "Baltic Surveys, Ltd." in August 1996, November 1996, and August 1997 were used. These polls did not have a special intent, and therefore we will not analyze the relationship of political views as being dependent on various social demographic indicators, but will analyze how women's political views have changed over the last period.

The changes in women's political views over the last period, as well as the relationship of voting to certain social demographic indicators: age, education, residence, and political views were analyzed. Using the results of the standard public opinion polls,

Political views of Lithuania's women

Figure 2. Women's and men's political self-identification 1997
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We can see that over the year, the proportion of men who were unable to identify their views somewhat diminished: from 29% to 19%. Also, there was a certain increase in the number of men identifying with the center. The greatest change over the year was that the number of women unable to identify their political views fell by nearly half: from 38% to 20%. The greatest increase was in the number of women identifying with the center. One should not attach a great deal of meaning to this increase, since this group includes people who grade their own views from 4 to 7 on a 10 point scale (where 1 indicates extreme left, and 10 - extreme right). Thus even those in the center group identified themselves as being more left-oriented (4-5) or more right-oriented (6-7). They are therefore described as being only relatively center-oriented, and should not necessarily be identified as supporting the Lithuanian Center Union. But the fact that a larger proportion of women identified their views as being either left or right-oriented than they

Lithuanian Social Democratic Party [LSDP] - 6.60%. Although the Lithuanian Women's Party [LWP] did not win the required 5% vote, we will include it in the analysis because men's and women's behaviour during the elections should differ vis a vis this party.

the LWP - in urban areas. Women who voted for the LCDP were the most evenly distributed on the basis of residence.

Political views had the greatest influence on the women's choice in casting their ballot (Figure 4).

Figure 4. Distribution of women's ballots according to parties on the basis of different political views

As already mentioned, there should be absolutely no direct relationship between women's voting behaviour and political views, but it is important to analyse whether one can forecast election results on the

In summarizing an analysis of the distribution of women's votes, we can identify the most characteristic aspects of the women who voted for each political party (Table 3):

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The most characteristic aspects of the women who voted for each political party

Party	Age	Education	Residence	Political views
HU(LC)	Older	Incomplete sec. Higher	Urban Large city	Right Undecided
LCDP	Oldest	Incomplete sec.	Various	Right Undecided
LDLP	Various	Various	Large city Rural	Left
LCU	Younger	Higher Secondary	Large city Rural	Center Left
LSDP	Younger	Secondary Higher	Urban Rural	Center Left
LWP	Younger	Secondary	Urban	Various

The circle of voters for the HU(LC) and the LCDP is made up of older women with right-leani242hircl49ht-lean1430.ws (hL.0014 DPrvot2419p, the Hrural c

- During the 1996 Parliamentary elections, more women than men voted for the better known political parties, i.e. for those which ended up in Parliament under the multi-mandate system.

- A significantly larger number of women than men voted for the Lithuanian Women's Party, and after the elections, the difference between men and women intending to vote for the LWP grew even greater.

- Women's political views are the main determining factor in their choice of which political party to vote for: over time, this relationship continues to grow stronger.

- Age is the most influential demographic indicator in the distribution of women's votes accorded to a political party. This distribution is also influenced by education and residence.

- It was mostly older women with right-leaning views who voted or intended to vote for the HU(LC) and the LCDP, and younger women with center and left-leaning views who voted for the LCU and the LSDP. The exceptional indicator for LDLP voters was their left-leaning political views.

- An analysis of the results does not contradict the assumption that their religiosity has an influence on women's right-leaning views, and that participation in the labour market has an influence on their left-leaning views.

- Women consider the HU(LC) and the LCDP to be right-wing parties, and the LDLP a left-wing party. They are not clear regarding their position on a left-right scale of the LCU, LSDP, and LWP: they are all considered to be left of center parties.

- With the increase in the political consciousness of women, and in the relationship of their voting or their intention to vote for the appropriate party on the basis of their views, one can begin to forecast election results on the basis of an analysis of women's political views.

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stereotypic approach towards differences in skills of men and women that is wide spread in society makes it necessary “for a woman to constantly prove themselves and work much harder for her qualification be recognised” (Aidis, 1997, p.68). 86% of women indicated that it was much more difficult to be a businesswoman compared to a businessman, 71% experienced direct gender biased discrimination.

- The unfavourable business environment plays a significant role as well. It accounts for the corresponding economic policy implemented by the

The analysis of the horizontal segregation of the labour market has to take into account the general changes in the structure of economy. It is well known that during the Soviet period, Lithuania turned into a quite modern industrialised Republic, with a large concentration of the employed in the industry (machinery and textile), construction and transport. Although, if compared to the market economy countries the sector of services played much less significant role in the employment of the population.

During the period of transition, especially the first years of independence (the so called period of economical crisis 1990 –1993 with the decrease of GDP by almost by 60%), due to the extremely difficult general situation in the industrial

consequences for women. For example, there was a decreasing in the number of kindergardens, village schools, libraries and health care institutions in the rural areas. The qualified women-employees lost their job places and were forced into positions of becoming housewives.

2. Unemployment of Women

2.1. Dynamics of unemployment

The first unemployed were registered at the Territorial Labour Exchanges at the end of year 1991, the number amounted to 4.2 thousand in total of which 3.0 thousand were women. In 1992, the total number of the unemployed increased to 20.7 thousand. It is worth noting that the growth of the unemployment rate was especially high at fall of the same year, when there were around 4 thousand unemployed registered monthly. The following year the growth of the unemployment rate stabilised, and by the end of 1993 it reached 31 thousand. Towards the end of 1994, the figures increased to 33.3 thousand. The statistics of the country had two categories of the unemployed up till 1995: those who had

unemployment level has decreased during the following year, the figures of the unemployed women remained high (Table 3).

Table 3

Unemployed women and men in 1993-1997 (average annual data)

	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997
Unemployment level, % :					
Women	3.5	3.4	6.7	7.6	3

with specialised secondary level education						
Share of persons with specialised secondary education among the unemployed women, %	22.6	23.3	23.4	24.4	23.0	22.6
% of women among the unemployed persons with the high level education	62.9	64.3	68.5	67.0	60.8	68.2
% of women among the unemployed persons with specialised secondary level education	61.2	64.9	67.9	68.1	66.5	68.4
% of women within the total numbers of the unemployed	48.9	52.9	55.1	54.5	51.5	54.0

*End of III quarter

The discussions on the unemployment issues often put stress upon the employment possibilities for the youth and graduates of various educational institutions. Nevertheless, the analysis of unemployment statistics by age enables us to conclude that it is the problem of women in their early forties - fifties. As can be seen from Table 5, the number of men exceeds only in the youngest age group (up till 18 years of age). Women prevail in the age groups of mid and senior working age (up till 54 years). During the period of 1993-1998 the proportion of persons of both genders under 24 in the total number of the unemployed has fallen from 23.4% to 18.3%. In contrast, the comparative load of women over 30 among unemployed has increased significantly, in 1993 it amounted to 30% and currently it is around 37%. Analogical changes of the male indicators are from 29% to 26.9 %.

It is possible to indicate that the employment possibilities for women, especially those over the age of 30 years old are much poorer. Ter 3T*2h55.0nceedncee

These include, the labour supply and demand (theories of "double labour market"), position of women and men in the social structure of the society and the systems of labour distribution ("two roles" theories), subjective approaches and inclinations of the employers. The Feminists pay particular attention to the gender system which is endemic in all societies, they pose that possibilities for women to enter the labour market are initially predetermined by the patriarchal relationships at work places (Walby, 1995).

In order to determine whether the discrimination of women does exist at the stage of "entrance" into the labour market as well as to demonstrate the factors that make an impact on the decision-making of the employers and managers in regard to their recruitment policies and practices, a sociological survey was conducted in 1996-1997 by the author. The survey contained a collection and analysis of information from job advertisements, interviews with employers and women job seekers. (Kanopiene, 1998).

The data collected from all the job advertisements published during the first six months in 1996 in the daily newspaper "Lietuvos rytas" (N=3531), has demonstrated, that the requirements of the employers have a strong accent on the demographic characteristics of the future employees, i.e. their gender and age. Every tenth job advertisement (281 or 8%) contained direct requirements

appearances of the candidate for both genders. The requirements concerning the demographic characteristics were based initially on the assumptions concerning roles of women and men in the family. The employers related the family with the traditionally held views of the woman's duties and responsibilities, and they kept in mind the difficulties women face in trying to combine their work and family lives. However, being a father or married in many cases was considered to be an advantage for a male candidate and a prerequisite of his reliability and interest to strive for high career goals. The attitudes on the potential vocational abilities of women and men as well as their psychological characteristics played a significant role in the employer's choice of their employees. It turned out that the employers consider initiative, impetuosity, rational thinking and leadership ability, (i.e. the traits, that were distinguished by them as desirable for prospective managers during the interviewing process) as "masculine" traits. The traditionally 'feminine' traits such as emotionality, service-mindedness and obedience were not considered by the employers to be important in their choice of a prospective manager. The majority of the employers held very stereotypical

behaviour of the employers and continues to be among major factors to control the participation of Lithuanian women in the sphere of paid job. The conditions of competitiveness in the sphere of vocational activities, rivalry for job vacancies, position, salaries and the like are predetermined most often by the not so evident or "seen" social-demographic factors (such as gender, age, family roles), but actually they are really of extreme importance.

3. Peculiarities of Women's Working Life

3.1. Working time and remuneration

Since 1994, the Department of Statistics has conducted annual surveys on the labour force. These investigations, as well as results of diverse sociological investigations provide significant information on women's participation in the economical life of the country. This provides not only insightful comparisons of the situations of women and men in the labour market, but also show the impact of their social roles in the employment domain, as well as their social and material well-being.

The sociological literature distinguishes three models of women's working life: a "disrupted" vocational career, when after marriage and birth of their first child women become housewives; an "interrupted" vocational career, when women interrupt their presence in the labour market for a certain time until their children reach a certain age; and a "continuous" vocational carer, when women match their maternity leave with their paid employment. During the Soviet period, the "continuous" model was characteristic and applicable to the majority of women, this is evident by the high indicators of their employment which only

married. Among those who were single, divorced and widowed, the indicators of employment and economic activity for women were even higher compared to corresponding indicators for men. This is evidence of the family role impact on working life.

Table 6

is that almost every fifth woman (18%) had long working hours i.e. over 41 hours per week, although men comprised the larger group at 25%.

Table 7

Employed Men and Women Broken Down by Hours Worked in a Week

	Amount of hours worked per week					
	less than 35	36-39	40	41-45	46-49	Over 50
Women (thousands)	209.8	25.1	381.9	25.7	46.8	63.3
Men (thousands)	125.8	17.8	468.1	23.7	55.3	125.3
% of women	62.5	58.5	44.9	52.0	45.8	33.6
% of employed women	27.9	3.4	50.7	3.4	6.2	8.4
% of employed men	15.4	2.2	57.4	2.9	6.8	15.3

The different structure of employment between women and men to a large extent influenced whether they had the options to have a shorter working day, this was particularly true for women employed in the trade and service industry. Thus the comparison of the duration of the hours of the working week between women and men in the same occupational groups becomes meaningful (Table 8).

Table 8

Average hours of spent at work per week by Different Occupation Groups

Occupation Groups	Women	Men	Difference
Legislators, senior officials and governors	39.2	43.7	4.5
Specialists	32.8	36.3	3.5
Technicians	35.7	38.6	2.9
Public servants	35.1	35.7	0.6
Employees in services and trade	37.4	42.8	5.4
Blue collar workers in agriculture, fishery and fish breeding workers	41.0	45.4	4.4
Craftsmen and workers of similar occupation	33.0	39.2	6.2
Operators and assemblers of equipment and cars	36.0	41.2	5.2
Elementary vocations	36.1	36.5	0.4
Average in the national economy	36.1	40.6	4.5

The results of the survey in the “Fertility and Family in Lithuania” demonstrated, that the duration of men's working week was longer in all branches of economy, except for the financial mediation. These differences were most prominent in the so called “masculine” types of work activity such as transport, legal protection, law and order, commercial enterprises, and real estate (Kanopiene V., 1997). This kind of situation, is associated with the duties of the hierarchical structure of occupations (i.e. among the specialists), and with the desire of males to earn more to support the family as head of household or as the “bread winner” (Table 9).

Table 9 reveals that the largest differences in the duration of the working week are amongst the group of

married people with one fourth of men and only every tenth women working longer than 45 hours weekly. The indicators for single and divorced men and women show very little differences, whilst the indicators for widowed women are even higher. Men with children had a long working week twice as often as women with children, and the group of single people revealed no gender differences.

Table 9

The Duration of Working Week by Demographic Characteristics, % in Every Group (Kanopiene V., 1997)

	Women				Men			
	18-24	25-44	45 +	Varied	18- 24	25-44	45 +	Varied
Single	10.4	61.8	12.3	15.2	5.3	50.0	13.7	30.7
Married	10.8	67.4	10.4	11.4	3.8	45.6	22.5	28.0
Divorced	10.8	64.9	12.4	11.8	7.1	39.3	16.1	37.5
Widowed	7.9	58.7	11.1	22.3	-	62.1	5.6	33.3
Childless	10.4	61.2	11.6	16.8	5.3	47.4	15.3	32.0
With children	10.8	67.2	10.8	11.2	3.7	45.7	22.5	28.1
aged 18-24	5.6	43.6	19.2	31.2	13.6	56.6	14.0	14.0
aged 25-34	4.9	45.9	19.2	28.9	11.4	67.0	10.9	9.9
aged 35-44	3.9	44.4	24.8	25.1	9.4	69.3	10.4	10.4
aged 45-49	1.0	53.9	15.0	28.6	9.6	62.9	10.0	16.1
Total	10.7	65.8	11.0	11.7	4.2	46.1	20.6	28.0

It is possible to presume that the differentiation of the working load in paid employment for men and women, as well as the differences of economic activity, is partially predetermined by the gender differences in the family roles. However, the differences in Lithuania are not so outstanding if compared to those in some Western countries. For example, in Norway the average duration of the working week for men is 38.5 hours, and for women it is 29.8 hours (Minilacts, 1995). This difference in the average working week in Norway is almost twice as large if compared to the situation in Lithuania (see Table 8).

comprise the majority, women earn much more, despite the outstanding differentiation of salaries by gender (second column).

- The lowest salaries for women, as well as for men are in the most feminised spheres of employment such as the textile industry, health care and education. The data about the salaries in trade, hotel and restaurant business should be estimated with certain stipulations, considering the extremely high

Real estate, rent, and commercial activities	82.8	99.0	46.8
Computers and interrelated activities	74.6	105.6	48.5
Scientific research and			

Service provider (housewife)	2.3	24.8	72.9
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Over a half of the respondents noted that the spouses in their families share

As can be seen from data presented in Table 12, the primary role of the man as a breadwinner predetermines the degree of his “power” in the family. In the younger age groups, with women contributing less into the family budget men evidently make the major decisions such as on the family expenditures. Women in these families have displayed a more passive role and more than often are only mothers and housewives.

As a generalisation it is pon 13an28(of)111.5(e)-9csta9(raltof)111.5nate

the Department of Statistics revealed that in 1998, women comprised less than one third among the employers and around 40% among self-employed.

3. Since 1992, women's record of employment has decreased significantly in almost all branches of economy, except for the education and health care. The most substantial decrease was in trade, hotel and restaurant business, transport and communication, as well as in the processing industry. With the restructuring of the labour force, the employment of men in some femininised activities has noticeably increased i.e. in trade industry their numbers more than doubled.

4. The number of the officially registered unemployed women in Lithuania continues to increase on a regular basis, at the end of 1998 it exceeded 61 thousand, women continued to comprise half of all the unemployed, including more than two thirds of unemployed with higher education. The analysis of the changes by age of the unemployed demonstrates unemployment to be the problem of middle-age women. The numbers for men exceed that of women only in the youngest age groups. The number of unemployed women over 30 has increased among the total unemployed from 30% to 37%.

5. Sociological surveys demonstrate that in the domain of paid employment, especially during the phase of "entering" the labour market women are discriminated on the grounds of their gender and age. The traditional attitudes towards the family roles of men and women lie at the heart for the employers' behaviour and remains the most important factor to exclude the equal participation of women in Lithuania in domain of paid employment.

6. According to the Labour Force survey, conducted by the Department of Statistics in May 1998 the biggest differences of employment as well as economic activity indicators of men and women was for married people in the age group under 24 years old. One tenth of the employed women worked only a part of the working day and the duration of the average week was shorter (36.1 hours) compared to men's (40.6 hours).

7. The statistical data reveals the differences in salaries between men and women. In 1998, women's salaries comprised of 87.4% of an average monthly salary, but the corresponding indicator for men exceeded it significantly (by 113.6%), i.e. women earned one fourth less compared to men. Despite the significant differentiation of salaries by gender in all groups of professions and branches of industry, women in the so called "masculine" areas of employment earn much more in comparison to the average in national economy. However, the lowest levels of salaries for women (as well for men) were in the most feminised areas such as the textile industry, health care and education.

8. Sociological surveys highlight that women perform a variety of roles in the family such as the decision-maker, the "manager" of family budget, the care giver, the mother, the provider of emotional and psychological support. The

Professional and social mobility of Lithuanian women. Vilnius, UNDP, 1995

Walby S. Towards a theory of patriarchy. - The Polity reader in Gender Studies.
- Polity Press, 1995

Table 3

Employment in the Branches of Economy by Gender (1992 -1997)

Branches of economy	% employed in private sector in 1997	Changes in numbers of the employed during 1992-1997, in thousands. (+/-)		% of women among employed		Distribution of employed women by branches of economy (%)	
		Women	Men	1992	1997	1992	1997
Total	67.7	-160.2	-25.8	52.9	49.2	100.0	100.0
Agriculture, hunting and forestry	95.3	-14.4	+15.1	41.2	37.3	15.3	16.5
Mining industry and exploitation of quarry	81.8	-1.1	-1.6	35.0	30.3	0.2	0.1
Processing industry	88.2	-135.2	-77.7	53.2	45.0	27.0	15.9
Supply of electricity, gas and water	5.5	-0.9	+11.8	30.2	20.3	0.9	1.0
Construction	91.7	-12.3	-38.4	15.0	11.2	2.6	1.6
Wholesale and retail sale	98.0	+19.4	+48.3	81.7	65.6	14.8	20.0
Hotels and restaurants	90.6	+3.3	+8.4	85.5	72.6	1.6	2.3
Transport and storing, communication	36.8	-22.7	-8.7	41.7	31.3	5.3	3.5

Ramun Trakymien

STATE STRUCTURE

The Republic of Lithuania is an independent democratic state expressing the common will and interests of its people. The foundations of the social system are enforced by the Constitution of the Republic of Lithuania adopted in 1992, by a referendum which also establishes the rights, freedoms and obligations of its citizens. Under this Constitution, sovereign state power is vested in the people of Lithuania and is exercised by the Seimas (Parliament), the President of the Republic, the Government and the Courts.

THE SEIMAS The Seimas consists of 141 members who are elected for a four year term on the basis of universal, equal and direct suffrage by secret ballot. The structure and procedure of activities of the Seimas are determined by the Statute of the Seimas which has the power of the law.

The Seimas elects its Chairperson and three Deputy (Vice)

Chairpersons. The present Seimas was elected on October 25), 1996.

The present Chairman of the Seimas of Republic of Lithuania is Vytautas Landsbergis. is a one-chamber parliament which deliberates on and enacts amendments to the Constitution. Its remits are to enacts laws; adopt resolutions regarding the organization of the referendum; call presidential elections; approve or reject the candidacy of the Prime

THE PRESIDENT of the Republic is the head of State. *From 1993 the Republic of Lithuania has the Presidents institution.* The President represents the State of Lithuania and performs all the duties which he or she is charged with by the Constitution and laws. The President of the Republic of Lithuania is elected by the citizens of the Republic of Lithuania on the basis of universal, equal, and direct suffrage by secret ballot for a term of five years.

The first democratically and directly elected President of the Republic was Algirdas Mykolas Brazauskas, who was elected on February 14, 1993. Recent presidential elections were held on December 21, 1997, resulting in the election of Valdas Adamkus, who took office on February 25, 1998.

THE GOVERNMENT is the highest authority of executive power. It comprises of the Prime Minister and Ministers. The Prime Minister is appointed or dismissed by the President of the Republic, with the approval of the Seimas. Ministers are appointed by the President of the Republic on the nomination of the Prime Minister.

The Government administers the affairs of the country, protects the inviolability of the territory of the Republic of Lithuania, and ensures State security and public order; implements laws and resolutions of the Seimas, as well as the decrees of the President; co-ordinates the activities of the ministries and other governmental institutions; prepares the draft budget of the State and submits it to the Seimas; executes the State Budget and reports on the fulfilment of the budget to the Seimas; drafts bills and submits them to the Seimas for consideration; establishes diplomatic relations and maintains relations with foreign countries and international organisations; and discharges other duties prescribed to the Government by the Constitution and other laws.

The current Lithuanian Government is headed by the Prime Minister Rolandas Paksas. The Government consists of 14 Ministers and 14 Ministries.

The present government was recently re-formed and started its work on June 10, 1999, following the resignation of the government composed of the Conservatives and the Christian- democrats on the grounds of the non-confidence expressed by the President. The new government is formed again by Conservatives and Christian- democrats with representation of the Central Party.

The PROGRAM OF THE GOVERNMENT of Lithuania outlines the following strategic foreign policy goals:

1.

political parties. The Law forbids the activity of political parties of other states in Lithuania.

The main political parties in Lithuania at present are: the Homeland Union (Lithuanian Conservatives), Christian Democratic, Social Democratic, Centre and Democratic Labour parties, all presented at the Seimas as the parliamentary.

EDUCATION AND SCIENCE

- Basically all educational institutions are state or public. Schools of general education are of 3 kinds:
 - primary (4 years, 836 schools, 141 pre-schools)
 - basic (9 years, 592 schools) and
 - secondary (12 years, 695 schools).
- . Children start school at the age of 6-7. A minimum education requirement that is compulsory is nine years.

The education in Russian, Polish, Jewish, Belorussian, German is offered in approximately 150 secondary schools.

There are 41 private school, including 5 secondary schools, 5 basic, 10 primary schools, 18 high schools, 2 Catholic Lycees and St. Joseph's Catholic Seminary and International Business school at Vilnius University.

At present there are 15 institutions of higher education or universities: 6 universities, 6 academies, two institutes of higher education and one Catholic seminary with a total number of 55,728 students.

In addition, there is the Lithuanian Academy of Science, which has four divisions (social sciences; exact sciences; natural sciences and technical sciences) and 17 research institutes.

Equal Opportunities –National Policy of Lithuania

Different countries usually place different emphasis on equal opportunities for

leaders in gender equal opportunities (“On Women and Men in Sweden and EC”, 1992, “Wages”,p. 47) Why? Women are the losing majority in the competition for leading positions. They are too often pushed to the back of the room in the race for top executive jobs.

Employment statistics shows that leading positions are strongly held by men indeed. The situation has been changing for the better, especially in the last year or so, with an increasing number of women participating in the decision making processes at all levels of Lithuanian society. The growth rate of the number of women in the Parliament of the Republic of Lithuania during the 1995-1996 General Elections was 250%, i.e. from 10 to 25, which according to the World Parliamentarian Statistics ranks Lithuania first in the pace of growth. Female participation in the elections was even slightly higher. As a result, 18.1% of women are currently Parliament members. Women's participation in

The mass media are very helpful in shaping the awareness and mentality of our society, but inequality still persists. However, there are fields where women can have a more advantageous position. On the other hand, the men's right to get custody of children in divorced families is restricted. In particular, a new Civil Code and Family Law seem to ensure equal rights, including custody of children for fathers. The Law has already been discussed and given public hearings in all its aspects in the Parliament- Seimas.

Despite, proper legislation in place, Lithuania still is not able to ensure absolute equality. Therefore, the shaping of our population's awareness of equality of men and women is high on the agenda of the mass media, NGOs, and the Government.

I would like to conclude my presentation with an observation that our Nordic neighbours, and the Nordic Council of Ministers in particular, set work and practice patterns that we expect to follow. The representatives of the UN, in particular, the Lithuania UNDP Resident Co-ordinator, Cornelis Klein, we have obtained the most dedicated supporter of the cause of gender equality in Lithuania.

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State Counsellor
Prime Ministers Office
Republic of Lithuania