

Subjectively Evaluated Quality of Life: the Case of Largest Cities of Lithuania

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Abstract

There are many spheres of life that can lead to people's happiness and satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Some of them are related with the material areas, such as state of economy or income level, the other are related with the social and emotional aspects of life, such as trust in people and public institutions, and the other cover the areas of the physical-productive quality of life, for example, satisfaction with the state of education.

The paper examines the variations of subjective quality of life among the largest cities of Lithuania. The central thesis of this paper is that the information of subjective quality of life is important in order to develop the strategies for improving quality of life at the local level (municipality, city, neighbourhood, etc.). We argue that knowing of the objective parameters is not enough. So, it is important to understand how people value and how they are happy and satisfied with different aspects of their life.

The profiles of the largest cities of Lithuania that represent all these spheres of subjective quality of life are presented in this paper. The research is based on data gathered through European Social Survey which has been conducted every two years since 2001, in a number of the European and other countries. This survey conducted in Lithuania during 2008-2009 and covered the largest cities of the country.

Keywords: quality of life, subjective indicators, local place, Lithuania, large cities.

Introduction

Quality of life is a complex, multi-faceted construct that requires multiple approaches from different theoretical perspectives (Yuan, Yuen and Low, 1999).

There are two main approaches to evaluating quality of life: objective and subjective. The objective approach supposes to use the objective indicators that reflect different aspects of quality of life that can be measured by using secondary data, available mainly from official governmental data collections. This approach is widely used in different studies as it has major advantages. According to Yuan, Yuen and Low (1999), the main advantage of the objective indicators is that they are based on quantitative statistics. The objective indicators can be

easily used in order to compare different aspects of life between different social groups at different territorial levels of analysis (countries, regions, municipalities, cities, neighbourhoods, etc.) during different time periods. The main shortcoming of this approach is that the official statistics does not let obtain how a human evaluates his or her own life. As noted by Veenhoven (2002), objective indicators alone do not provide sufficient information and are not enough to understand how people live and feel about their life quality. There are examples when the good life conditions were negatively judged by individuals and conversely. Exploring the quality of life in large American cities Schneider (1975) found that 'cities that are most well off as measured by objective indicators were not necessary the same cities in which people were subjectively the most satisfied with their life situations. Conversely, cities that are worst off objectively were not necessary the same cities where subjective dissatisfaction was highest'. The research by Veenhoven (1990) also showed that people can be subjectively happy in an objectively bad condition or feel unhappy in good ones. So, objective measures, based on official statistics, are not enough to show the real level of quality of life of people. This shortcoming can be compensated by using the subjective approach that let investigate quality of life through the prism of perceptions and evaluations of people's lives and experiences that are important to them.

The subjective approach means the collecting of primary data at the individual level using social survey methods where the focus is on the peoples' evaluations of quality of life in general and its different domains in particular.

Both objective and subjective approaches are widely used in different contexts and levels of analysis for evaluating quality of life of nations, regions, cities, and smaller neighbourhoods.

Quality of urban life has always gained special attention of researchers and local authorities. As Santos, Martins and Brito (2007) point out, urban areas become undisputable economic and political players and should be concerned as the most appropriate territorial context for the creation of wealth and employment. So, exploring of quality of urban life is of vital importance. The investigation of quality of life in the urban areas provides information about how to improve living and working conditions of the population and to promote sustainable social and economic development of the local place.

Moreover, the cities can be seen as the resource of improving peoples' quality of life not only at the local place, but also at the municipality level and at the level of the whole country. It is attained by providing favourable environment to daily life and work of citizens who contribute to economic growth and social development, and a better general quality of life. According to Marans and Stimson (2011), 'investigating quality of urban life is important not only because it affects how people behave but also their life satisfaction and happiness. And it has broader implications for research and urban policy'.

It can be noticed from the empirical research that investigating quality of urban life usually concentrates on objective indicators or use objective and subjective indicators separately. Theoretical research on quality of life, however, acknowledges the need to link objective and subjective measures for creating meaningful strategies. So, exploring of subjective quality of life is a required starting point for ascertaining the quality of life in urban areas. As has been stated by Diener (2006), 'measures of subjective well-being can be useful in assessing the need for certain policies and in measuring the outcomes of policy intervention'. McCrea, Stimson and Marans (2011) also note that studies focusing primarily on the subjective evaluation of quality of urban life have found that people's subjective evaluations of many aspects of the urban environment can contribute to satisfaction with urban living and overall life satisfaction. The next important step is the logical integration of subjective measures with objective indicators. This question still remains the object of theoretical and methodological discussions between researchers from around the world and from Lithuania in particular.

Quality of life research in Lithuania, however, is not well developed yet. As Tvaronavičienė (2011) points out, 'such important issues as the quality of life of a human being and the quality of human resources receive insufficient attention and are relatively poorly researched in Lithuania'. Recently the interest on this topic has been growing (Rybakovas, 2012, 2011; Rakauskienė and Servetkienė, 2011). Nonetheless, the previous empirical studies in Lithuania paid most attention just to the objective component of quality of life (for example, Rakauskienė and Servetkienė, 2011; Rakauskienė and Lisauskaite, 2009). Subjectively measured quality of life researches were mostly focused only on health characteristics or on some separate social groups of the population, for example, university students, old people (for example, Vaznonienė, 2010). Mainly because of data limitations, broad researches that focus subjective quality of life and encompass both objective and subjective assessment of quality of life in Lithuania have not been accomplished until now. According to this, empirical studies on the quality of life, especially on subjective quality of life continue to remain relevant.

Quality of life research in the largest cities of Lithuania is interesting not only for Lithuania's population but for the citizens, researchers and policy makers of other countries. Findings of this research may be used for comparisons of the level of subjective quality of life in the

largest cities of the other member states of the European Union and the other world cities that show the same level of objective quality of life and other parameters.

The aim of this paper is to explore the profiles of subjective quality of life in the largest cities of Lithuania and to discuss how this data can support the objectively evaluated measures for creating the efficient strategies for improving quality of life.

The paper is divided into three parts. The first part takes a closer look at the subjective nature of the quality of life at the urban area. The part two presents the methodology and the sources of data for the analysis of subjective quality of life. The data of the European Social Survey (ESS) was used for this purpose. The third part of the article focuses on the presenting and interpreting the data on subjective quality of life in the largest cities of Lithuania.

The method of research literature analysis is used in this article, as well as the analysis of survey data.

The nature of subjective quality of life and its integration with objective measures in the context of urban area

Many studies of quality of life are focused on quality of life in urban areas. As Lotfi and Solaimani (2009) notice, in recent years studies of life quality have mainly concentrated on the urban nature and urban quality of life gained much attention among the researchers.

Urban is an area where the majority of people are engaged in non-agricultural occupation within the command of municipal corporation or municipality (Sinha and Sinha, 2007). The urban quality of life can be described as the relation between the individual perceptions and the feelings of people, and their experiences within the space they live in (Senlier, Yildiz and Aktas, 2008).

The interest in quality of urban life is caused by the fact that the major part of the world's population now lives in urban areas and the major part of it concentrates in the large cities. As Psatha, Deffner and Psycharis (2011) notice, urbanisation is an ongoing phenomenon with 50 percent of the world's population and 70 percent of the European population already concentrated in cities.

Scientific researches and practical studies are implemented in the area of quality of urban life. Scientific research is mostly focused on understanding of theoretical models, statistical correlations and methodological issues used for analyzes of the concept of life quality. Non-scientific research is mostly provided by concerned institutions (for example, city council, consulting agency, etc.) in order to show the current situation of quality of life at the local area, to track the changes, and provide information for decisions on improving quality of life of people.

Quality of urban life researches are accomplished on different levels: international, regional, national, and local.

Different worldwide city rankings on quality of life are produced every year by international consulting agencies, research, and other institutions. The Mercer Quality of

Living Survey, the Economist Intelligence Unit's Quality of life index and the Global Liveability Report, the Global Cities Index produced by Foreign Policy magazine can be the examples of the international research on quality of life in cities. These rankings provide information that allows comparisons of cities by different criteria.

Mercer produces Quality of living rankings annually and presents information for the use by multinational organizations, government agencies and municipalities. In 2012, Mercer's Quality of living rankings covered the evaluation of 460 cities across the world according to 39 factors, grouped in 10 categories: political and social environment, economic environment, socio-cultural environment, medical and health considerations, schools and education, public services and transportation, recreation, consumer goods, housing, and natural environment.

In Europe, the Urban Audit monitors the quality of life in European cities. In 2008, the Urban Audit included 321 cities with a population between 50 000 and 10 million in the EU-27 Member States, 26 Turkish cities, six Norwegian cities and four Swiss cities. More than 300 indicators were calculated, covering most aspects of quality of life, e.g. demography, housing, health, crime, labour market, income disparity, local administration, educational qualifications, environment, climate, travel

patterns, information society and cultural infrastructure. These indicators were derived from the 336 variables collected by Eurostat (Fieldmann, 2008).

Efforts to evaluate urban quality of life are also provided on the national level. For example, Berger, Blomquist and Sabirianova Peter (2003) ranked 953 Russian cities by quality of life in 2000. In 2007 and 2010, the quality of life surveys were accomplished across 12 New Zealand's Cities. New Zealand residents' perceptions of quality of life, health and wellbeing, crime and safety, community, culture and social networks, council decision making processes, environment, public transport, and lifestyle were measured during these surveys (Quality of Life Survey 2010 Eight Cities Report). Gonzalez, Carcaba and Ventura (2011) measured the quality of life for the largest 643 Spanish municipalities. The authors compared municipal data that includes both indicators of advantages (education, health facilities, wealth, etc) and drawbacks (unemployment, delinquency, pollution, commuting times, etc.) associated with living in each city in Spain with a population over 10000.

Researches also provide monitoring of quality of life at the city level. For example, Seik (2000) presented the results of subjective assessment of urban quality of life in Singapore in 1997-1998.

Table 1

Examples of life satisfaction domains and subjective indicators of quality of urban life

Source	Indicators
Seik (2000)	1. <i>Social life</i> : friends, community, social activities, etc. 2. <i>Working life</i> (career/family work): working conditions, job prospects, work colleagues, housework, etc. 3. <i>Family life</i> : spouse, children, parents, siblings, relatives, etc. 4. <i>Education</i> (personal/children's): school, adult courses, classmates, etc. 5. <i>Wealth</i> : money, income, car, property, jewellery, etc. 6. <i>Health</i> : physical and mental well-being, food, fitness, etc. 7. <i>Religion</i> : practising a religion, freedom of worship, etc. 8. <i>Leisure</i> : relaxation, hobbies, sports, entertainment, etc. 9. <i>Self-development</i> : personality, self-confidence, talent, etc. 10. <i>Housing</i> : living conditions, size of flat, amenities, etc. 11. <i>Media</i> : newspapers, magazines, radio, TV, computers, etc. 12. <i>Politics</i> : policies, elections, votes, etc. 13. <i>Consumer goods</i> : variety, price, quality and quantity of goods and services, etc. 14. <i>Public utilities</i> : electricity, water, sewerage, telephones, etc. 15. <i>Transport</i> : commuting time, public transport, parking, cost of cars, etc. 16. <i>Health care</i> : medical facilities, clinics, doctors and nurses, etc. 17. <i>Environment</i> : air and water quality, noise, nature areas, etc. 18. <i>Public safety</i> : security, crime rate, ease of travel and movement, etc.
Santos, Martins and Brito (2007)	1. <i>Environment</i> (green spaces, urban cleanliness, pollution (air, water, noise)); 2. <i>Urbanism</i> (occupation density, urban and architectonic quality); 3. <i>Mobility</i> (traffic, public transportation); 4. <i>Culture</i> (cultural facilities, cultural recreation); 5. <i>Sports and leisure</i> (recreational and leisure spaces, sports facilities); 6. <i>Education</i> (educational facilities (kindergartens, schools), higher education facilities); 7. <i>Health</i> (hospitals (public and private), health centres, nursing stations); 8. <i>Social work services</i> (day nurseries, homes for the elderly, recreational centres, day centres, domiciliary service); 9. <i>Trade and services</i> (trade and services to the population); 10. <i>Housing</i> (purchase and leasing, housing quality and condition); 11. <i>Urban safety</i> (crime, urban insecurity); 12. <i>Poverty and exclusion</i> ; 13. <i>Social and civic behaviour</i> .
Oktay and Marans (2010)	1. <i>Sense of community</i> ; 2. <i>Sense of belonging</i> ; 3. <i>Urban/ Environmental attributes</i> (accessibility, attractiveness); 4. <i>Physical attributes</i> (cleanliness, noise level, traffic intensity); 5. <i>Social attributes</i> (appropriateness as a place to live, appropriateness as a place to raise children, availability of things to do); 6. <i>Use/ evaluation of cultural and recreational opportunities</i> (participation in cultural/recreational events, satisfaction with cultural/recreational areas); 7. <i>Safety</i> ; 8. <i>Neighbourhood satisfaction</i> .
Türkoğlu et al. (2011)	1. <i>Residential history</i> (how long lived at property, lived where prior to moving to property, reasons why living in property); 2. <i>Public services and transportation</i> (cleanliness of streets and public areas, maintenance of public areas, quality of public transport, usage of public transport); 3. <i>Taxes</i> (overall satisfaction in tax payment, involvement in decisions relating to tax, what they would be prepared to pay more for); 4. <i>Schools</i> (type of school attended, choice of schools, transport to school); 5. <i>Parks and recreation</i> (how often park are visited, usage of park space, importance of access to parks, etc.); 6. <i>Shopping and entertainment</i> (main location for shops, transport used, satisfaction of shops, usage of spare time, satisfaction of neighbourhood); 7. <i>Community participation and involvement</i> (attendance to community meetings, attendance to clubs, etc.); 8. <i>Neighbourhood and neighbouring</i> (identification of neighbourhood problems, measuring friends and family ties, etc.); 9. <i>Housing and residential mobility</i> (quality of physical living space, quality of residential building, status and cost of tenure, use of apartment (for work), etc.); 10. <i>Safety</i> (perception of crime, safety of neighbourhood); 11. <i>Employment and journey to work</i> (work status, occupation, satisfaction in work, marital status, etc.); 12. <i>Environment</i> (hazardous waste disposal, noise/air pollution, trash disposal, etc.); 13. <i>Health and health care facilities</i> (identification of health related issues, quality of health care facilities, walking activities for health, etc.); 14. <i>Other domain satisfactions</i> (social networks, standard of living); 15. <i>Regional issues</i> (future thoughts on future of neighbourhood, etc.).

Both objective and subjective measurement are used in order to evaluate the quality of life at the urban areas. Due to this, McCrea, Stimson and Westrn (2005) presented two different conceptualizations of quality of urban life. According to the author, in the objective measurement tradition, quality of urban life can be conceptualised as a weighted average of various objective measures of the urban environment. According to Stimson and Marans (2011), various health measures, crime statistics, the levels of educational attainment, work force participation and the proportion of welfare recipients in a given area are used as indicators of objective quality of urban life.

Subjective quality of urban life focuses on the notion of satisfaction with place or where one lives in the urban environment. According to McCrea, Stimson and Westrn, (2005), in the subjective measurement tradition, quality of urban life is conceptualized as satisfaction in a number of urban domains. These domains may include the level of satisfaction with housing, family, job, health, public safety, etc. Examples of life satisfaction domains and subjective indicators used for assessment of subjective quality of urban life are presented in Table 1.

Summarizing the overview of previous researches on subjective quality of urban life, four main aspects can be underlined.

First, we agree with other researchers that subjective indicators are suggested to be important in order to achieve a deeper understanding and more effective measurement of quality of urban life. As Lotfi and Solaimani (2009) note, measuring subjective indicators are more time consuming and costly, however the results are more logic and real than the objective approach.

Second, although evaluating subjective quality of live different measures, such as happiness, well-being, overall life satisfaction, etc. can be used, perhaps the most widely used type of measures to assess quality of life at the local place are measures of life satisfaction, in which participants are asked to answer the question 'How satisfied are you with your life?' According to Campbell et al. (1976, cited in Marans and Stimson, 2011), satisfaction is viewed as being more definable, compared to happiness. It is also considered to be a more plausible and realistic objective for local authorities than happiness. Moreover, the analysis shows that satisfaction with particular urban domains can be considered a central component of subjective quality of urban life.

Third, there are many life domains that can be evaluated and used for diagnosing satisfaction or dissatisfaction of citizens. Seik (2000) studied subjective quality of life in Singapore and employed a set of 18 specific domains of life: social life, working life, family life, education, wealth, etc. Santos, Martins and Brito (2007) measured the satisfaction level of citizens of Porto city and identified 21 indicators for assessment of quality of life, which cover different domain areas, such as environment, culture, education, health, trade and services, etc. Oktay and Marans (2010) identified key indicators affecting the residents' perception of overall quality of urban life in the Walled City of Famagusta, Northern Cyprus. Turkoglu et al. (2011) carried out a survey dealing

with the physical conditions of housing and residential areas and the overall quality of life in the Istanbul Metropolitan Area. The survey asked respondents to assess several domains using a 7-point satisfaction scale ranging from 'completely satisfied' to 'completely dissatisfied'. The domains considered were family life, health, job, friends, standard of living, leisure activities, and satisfaction with life as a whole.

Marans and Stimson (2011) have reviewed extensively wide range of empirical subjective methodology based quality of life research. Authors provided following example list of the most common and most frequently used subjective indicators applied to measure quality of life in the city or other local place: housing and neighbourhood satisfaction, desire to move, perceptions of crime, perceptions of school quality, perception of health care services, feelings about neighbours, feelings about rubbish collection, feelings about congestion and crowding, feelings about government, satisfaction with health, satisfaction with family, friend, job, etc, life satisfaction and overall happiness (overall well-being).

Fourth, a more realistic picture of the quality of urban life can be obtained if both types of measures (subjective and objective) are suitably combined. According to Lotfi and Solaimani (2009), using both of objective and subjective indicators is the most appropriate way to measuring and the using its results for urban planning. The authors noticed, that a system should be designed which monitor both sets of indicators continuously and then present the results for local decision makers.

We also agree with Schneider (1975) who stated that 'the level of wellbeing of cities, as described by objective social indicators alone, apparently tells us nothing about the welfare or life quality actually experiences by individuals living in those cities'. This acknowledges the need to use both objective and subjective indicators for measuring quality of urban life.

The idea that objective indicators should be supplemented by subjective ones is not a new one. It is underlined in many researches on quality of life. However, there is no general consensus about the principles that should be followed while integrating different indicators. The previous researches do not propose clear methodology for integrating subjective indicators with the objective indicators into a general system of measurement of quality of urban life.

This problem has been already discussed as an important question in the recent studies on quality of life. Lora and Powell (2011) noticed the lack of interconnection between objective and subjective indicators. According to the authors, 'in the New Zealand system, for instance, the most comprehensive measures of subjective wellbeing are reported as part of the health indicators, with no attempt to understand their relationship with the objective indicators in that domain or others'.

McCrea, Shyy and Stimson (2006) also notice that studies investigating quality of urban life typically choose to use either objective or subjective indicators. The authors indicated in their study, that little work has been done on linking objective indicators of the urban environment with

subjective urban quality of life. The authors also noticed that linking objective and subjective measures of quality of life may be relatively straightforward in some life domains when both types of measures are related to the individual (e.g., individual income and satisfaction with income). However, with quality of urban life, objective indicators belong to the urban environment and subjective evaluations to the individual.

Seik (2000) partially eliminated this problem by measuring how people feel about various aspects of their life identifying mostly those where public policy is involved. Moreover, the author measured not only the extent to which citizens are satisfied, but also the level of importance of different aspects of life to them.

So, the question of how we can logically relate subjective and objective indicators in order to obtain the general quality of life at the local place, remain important both from theoretical and methodological aspects.

We suppose that the main functions of municipalities can give us the context for selection the proper objective and subjective indicators and their relatedness. Municipalities have their own autonomy and can operatively react to the changes in peoples' perceptions of the quality of life and impact it by adopting efficient strategies. So, according to the functions of municipalities we can select appropriate objective and subjective measures which can be really changes by local authorities in order to stable or improve situation in the local area (municipality, city, etc.). For example, it can be logically linked the satisfaction with the personal safety with the objective indicator of crime level at the local place. This idea has been already proposed by Wasserman and Chua (1979). However, it was not generalised in discussing by what logic we can relate different variables and how we can use these results for proposing the concrete strategies for improving quality of life at the local places.

Our idea is to select logically related objective and subjective indicators. Objective indicators will show the

current situation at the local place, and subjective indicators will indicate about how the expectations of residents are fulfilled in the concrete domain. Analyzing the gap between the state of objective situation and the level of subjective evaluation will give important information for formulating meaningful strategy for improving the quality of life at the local place. The integration of the subjective and objective parameters of quality of life, however, is the object if the further research. This paper focuses only on indicators of subjective quality of life. According to the previous research (Rybakovas, 2011) these indicators cover three main categories of quality of life: material, social-emotional, and physical-productive.

Indicators and data sources

In order to explore subjective quality of life, secondary data from the survey that represents subjective measures, have been explored. The data was obtained from the European Social Survey (ESS).

The ESS provides survey data on most common indicators of subjective quality of life. Since 2002, the ESS conducts surveys in the European countries in order to discover social, political, and cultural changes in Europe. Each round of the survey takes place every two years. The data and other outputs of the ESS are freely available for the researchers.

Lithuania has participated in the ESS since 2008 for two times in the fourth and the fifth rounds. Data for the fifth round of the survey which took place during 2010/2011 is not yet available. That is why this research is grounded on the data of the fourth round of the ESS. Moreover, there is not yet the possibility to compare data gathered during the different periods of time. These circumstances let us only provide the descriptive analysis of subjective quality of life in Lithuania's largest cities.

Table 2

Demographic characteristics of respondents in the largest cities of Lithuania

Characteristics	Kaunas city		Klaipeda city		Panevezys city		Siauliai city		Vilnius city		Total	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Gender												
Male	110	51,40	54	48,60	35	47,90	39	50,00	169	51,20	407	50,5
Female	104	48,60	57	51,40	38	52,10	39	50,00	161	48,80	399	49,5
Age (years)												
<29	55	25,70	39	35,10	14	19,20	34	43,00	94	28,50	236	29,28
30-39	32	15,00	21	18,90	10	13,70	8	10,30	50	15,20	121	15,01
40-49	34	15,90	14	12,60	11	15,10	8	10,30	37	11,20	104	12,9
50-59	38	17,80	15	13,50	13	17,80	11	14,10	49	14,80	126	15,63
60-69	32	15,00	4	3,60	16	21,90	12	15,40	48	14,50	112	13,9
>70	23	10,70	18	16,20	9	12,30	5	6,40	52	15,80	107	13,28
Marital status												
Married	107	50,00	48	43,20	36	49,30	31	48,20	159	47,30	381	47,27
Divorced	21	9,80	13	11,70	9	12,30	3	11,50	38	10,40	84	10,42
Widow	28	13,10	14	12,60	6	8,20	8	10,30	42	12,70	98	12,16
Never married	56	26,20	36	32,40	20	27,40	35	44,90	91	27,60	238	29,53
Live separately, without being divorced	2	0,90	0	0,00	2	2,70	1	1,30	0	0,00	5	0,62

A total of 2002 respondents in Lithuania were successfully interviewed during the fourth round of the ESS. The survey comprised 50,5 percent males and 49,5 percent females. Of the respondents, 29,28 percent were under 29; 27,91 percent were 30-49; 29,53 percent were 50-69, and 13,28 were 70 and over 70 years old. With regard to marital status, 47,27 percent were married, 10,42 percent were divorced and 29,53 percent were never married (Table 2).

Using the European Social Survey's data we have chosen 21 indicators that reflect subjective quality of life at the local place. The goal was to select those variables that were used during the all rounds of the European Social Survey and were appropriate for assessing quality of life at the local place. It was important in order to use the selected indicators for the comparable analysis to pursue in future research.

In scope of this research three attributes of subjective quality of life were explored: material quality of life, social and emotional quality of life and physical-productive quality of life. 13 indicators were selected in order to measure social-emotional quality of life which covers such aspects as social trust, safety, support, etc.; and 8 subjectively measured indicators were selected to evaluate material and physical-productive quality of life: satisfaction with economy, health, education, etc.

Data was analysed and profiles of the largest cities of Lithuania were created comparing the mean scores of on subjective social indicators of the selected cities to each other and to the mean scores representing the average level of nation as a whole.

Profiles of subjectively measured quality of life in the largest cities of Lithuania

Five largest cities of Lithuania were chosen for the comparative research of subjective quality of life. The cities included in the survey were: Vilnius, Kaunas, Klaipeda, Siauliai, and Panevezys. These are urban areas with populations exceeding 100 000 people.

Analysing subjective quality of life in the largest cities of Lithuania we start with a discussion of two important indicators: satisfaction with life and happiness. Then the analysis is focused on social-emotional indicators of quality of life. Material and physical-productive indicators of quality of life are then explored (Table 3). At the end, the profiles of the cities are provided and interpreted (Figure 1).

The notions of happiness and satisfaction constitute an essential part of life quality. Happiness is commonly understood as how much one likes the life one lives, or more formally, the degree to which one evaluates one's life-as-a-whole positively (Veenhoven, 2009). The concept of life satisfaction represents a broad, reflective appraisal a person makes of his or her life.

Exploring the overall satisfaction, respondents were asked for the question 'how satisfied are you with life as a whole?' In the case of happiness, respondents were asked to evaluate how happy they were on a scale of 0 being the most negative response and 10 being the most positive

response. It was found that both the level of satisfaction with life and the level of happiness were relatively not very high in the largest cities of Lithuania. Findings also showed that in all the cases, the scores for life satisfaction were lower than the scores for happiness. It can be noticed that the percentage of extremely dissatisfied citizens exceeded the percentage of people who were extremely unhappy, especially in Vilnius city (accordingly 6,40 percent and 0,61 percent of the respondents).

Compared to the average level of Lithuania, it could be seen that citizens of Klaipeda and Siauliai showed higher levels both of satisfaction with life and happiness. The mean level of life satisfaction and happiness in the other cities was lower than the average in Lithuania.

Social support can strongly affect how people deal with challenges and threats. The general term "social support" encompasses social networks as well as social support in the narrow sense. The level of social support can be measured by frequency of social meetings with friends, relatives or colleagues. In general, it was found, that more than a third of Lithuanians (35,04 percent) meet with friends, relatives or colleagues once or several times a week or every day. A similar percentage of population of Lithuania (26,75 percent) socially meet less than once a month. The results of survey showed, that the percentage of people who socially meet every day is almost twice major in Siauliai city (16,88 percent), compared to the other cities. The findings also showed that the residents of Kaunas city are less active in that case (33,18 percent of citizens never socially meet or meet less than once a month).

Social trust is one of the critical aspects of human relations which determine the ways for human beings cooperation and social engagement. It is a belief in the honesty and reliability of others. Greater interpersonal trust is strongly associated with a better quality of life. Social trust was measured by asking three questions about how people trust in others, and if they belief in other people help and fairness. Each of these items was rated on a scale from 0 to 10 (where 0 showed low trust and 10 showed high trust in others).

As for the population on a whole, not many Lithuanians believed that most people could be trusted. The average level of trust in Lithuania is worth 4,41 points. Belief that people mostly try to be helpful was less and sought 3,91 points.

It could be seen that achieved results correlated with the answers about safety after dark: the more percentage of population felt unsafe, the more of them felt less trust in other people. The case of Siauliai city was an exception compared with the others largest cities of Lithuania by these two parameters. Although the majority of citizens felt safe or very safe (58,1 percent), some of them (21,05 percent) did not believe that people could be trusted. Similar situation was seen regarding the 'people's fairness' and 'helping others'. Thus one may argue that social trust in Siauliai city was much lower, compared to the other largest cities in Lithuania, and it could have negative impact on the level of quality of life of citizens.

Social safety. The indexes of social safety are very important criteria in analyzing urban quality of life. Feeling safe everywhere and at all time positively affects the perception of quality of life. The questions about feeling safe while walking alone after dark and about worrying of becoming a victim of crime are often used to measure public anxiety about crime and the level of safety.

Responses to feeling of safety of walking alone after dark showed that very few respondents (from 0 to 2,82 percent) in the all the largest cities of Lithuania considered their local places to be 'very safe'. Nonetheless, findings showed, that a vast majority of population of Lithuania (86,37 percent) were not burglarized or assaulted during the last 5 years. It was also important that not much percentage of population of Lithuania (5,16 percent) all or most of the time worried about becoming a victim of violent crime. The similar situation could be seen in all the largest cities of Lithuania, except Siauliai city, where the level of safety was much higher. About 15 percent of population of Siauliai city reported felt very safe walking alone in their local area after dark (as the average of Lithuania was 2,82 percent).

Democracy working. Regarding satisfaction with the democracy, the results showed that people in the largest cities of Lithuania were more dissatisfied than satisfied. The major percentage of extremely dissatisfied respondents were in Vilnius and Siauliai cities (accordingly 28,66 percent and 21,05 percent). It was almost twice bigger compared to the situation in the whole Lithuania. The more satisfied with this domain were residents of Panevezys city.

Trust in local institutions. Police and legal institutions carry out important functions in society. Citizens expect them to be fair, efficient and effective. Results for the question about citizen's assessments of how they trust in police suggested that almost a half of population of Lithuania had no trust at all or had low trust in police (48,05 percent answers with scores 0-4). The situation in Siauliai city was interesting according to this aspect. There were the major percentage of people who completely trusted in police (7,69 percent) and who had no trust at all (19,23 percent), compared to the other largest cities of Lithuania.

Trust in legal system is also the important indicator which can be used as an instrument to improve the quality of life. There are different kinds of problems, including crime, pollution and violence against women that can be tackled by law. Many Lithuanians, however, showed no trust at all or very low trust in legal system (68,30 percent answers with scores 0-4).

Discrimination. Discrimination can have a significant impact on the lives of those affected. Research shows that discrimination contributes to poor quality of life. In order to measure the level of perceived discrimination respondents were asked the following question: 'Would you describe yourself as being a member of a group that is discriminated against?'. The findings showed that the majority (92,77 percent) of population of Lithuania did not assign that they had been discriminated against. The

similar situation was found in all the largest cities in Lithuania, except Kaunas city where every fifth citizen felt disappointed with this domain.

Religion. Findings from other studies show religious involvement to be associated with better quality of life. Across Lithuania, the majority of population (84,97 percent) belonged to particular religion or denomination. Similar rates were reported for all the biggest cities in Lithuania.

In response to the question asking about levels of *satisfaction with economy*, 20,57 percent of population of Lithuania expressed 'extremely dissatisfaction' and 65,5 percent confirmed 'dissatisfaction' (the score 1-4). This situation was similar in the all largest cities of Lithuania. Panevezys city in this case was an exception, as there were only 4,11 percent of 'extremely dissatisfied' residents. The lowest rate of satisfaction of the state of economy was observed in Vilnius city.

Income differences. Regarding with income differences, the respondents were asked whether the government in Lithuania ought to reduce income differences between the rich and the poor. The results showed that the majority of Lithuanians agree or strongly agree with this statement (80,26 percent).

Health. Three ESS items were used to measure the subjective perception related with health: the state of health services in Lithuania nowadays, the respondent's subjective general health and whether he or she is hampered in daily activities by illness, disability, infirmity or a mental problem.

Health services were rated highest by residents of Siauliai city, where 53,42 percent of respondents have chosen the positive answers with scores 5-10. In the other largest cities of Lithuania the situation is worse.

With respect to the statement 'health hampering in daily activities', only 5,42 percent of the respondents of Lithuania 'strongly agreed,' while a further 94,57 percent 'disagreed or agreed to some extent'. The situation is similar in all the largest cities of Lithuania. The exception occurred in the case of Panevezys city. The percentage of people hampered in daily activities by illness, disability, infirmity or mental problem was to be more than twice as high in here (12,33 percent) than in the other largest cities of Lithuania.

In general, 88,89 percent of population of Lithuania perceived their subjective general health as 'very good', 'good' or 'fair'. Survey showed that Panevezys city and Siauliai city were among those areas where more than 15 percent of residents judge their subjective health as 'bad' and 'very bad'.

Finally, the state of education in Lithuania nowadays was analyzed. State of educational services was rated lowest by respondents from Kaunas city where 10 percent described it as 'extremely bad' compared to the residents from other areas. In general, it could be seen that the situation in this area was concerned as bad, while 71,36 percent of Lithuania's population rated this parameter from 0 to 5 points.

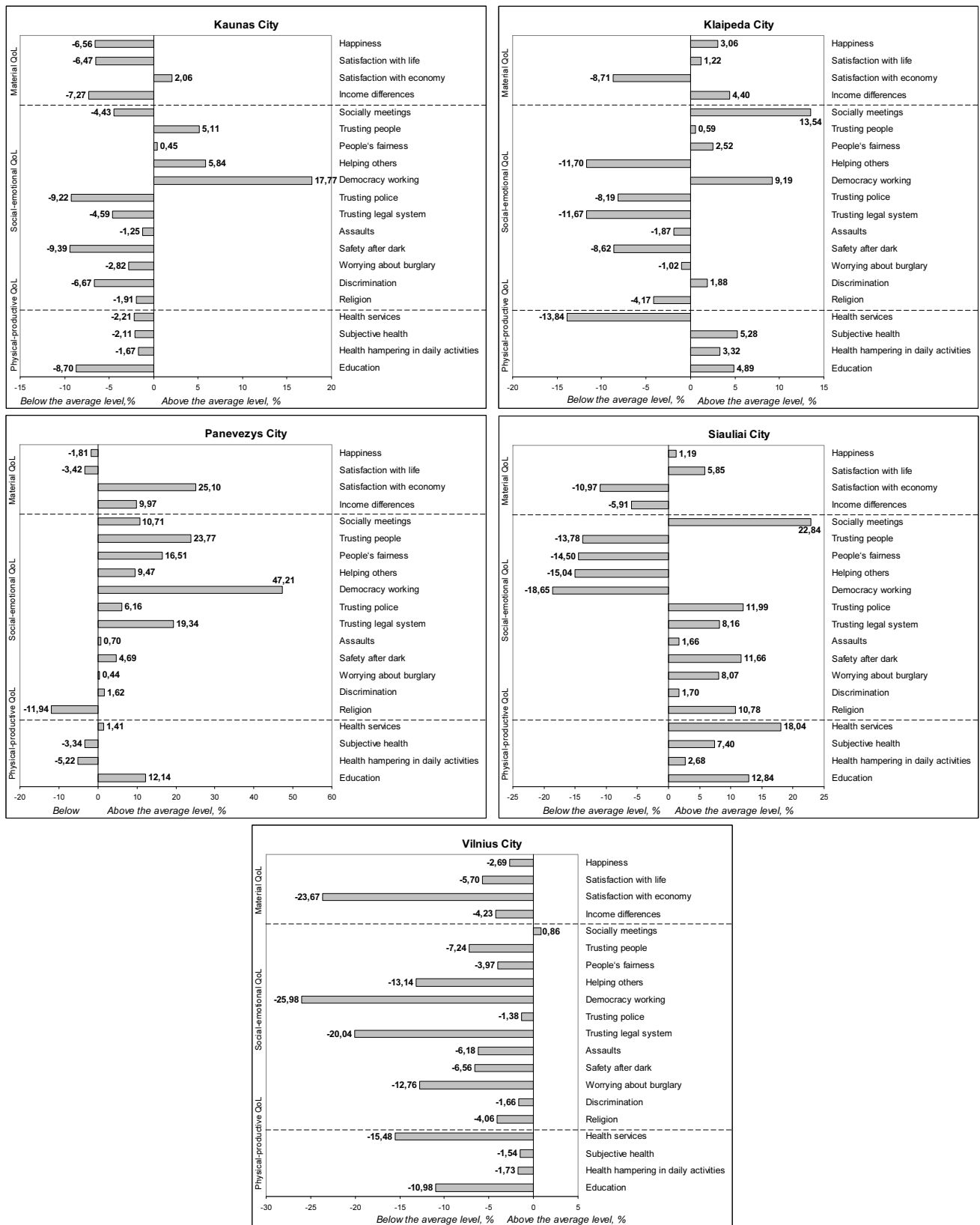


Figure 1. Profiles of subjective quality of life of the largest cities of Lithuania

Thus, the respondents expressed major dissatisfaction with three domains: the state of economy, differences in income levels, and trust in legal system. The majority of

Lithuanians evaluated the level of satisfaction with economy and the level of trust in legal system in the scale

ranging from 0 to 4, where 0 – ‘extremely dissatisfied’ and ‘no trust at all’ (accordingly 86,07 percent and 68,30 percent). Regarding to the level of income differences, 80,26 percent of Lithuanians suggested that government should reduce differences in income levels. The other domain which showed the strong level of dissatisfaction of Lithuanians, was satisfaction with democracy. The majority of respondents (66,82 percent) chosen the answers ranging from 0 to 4, where 0 – extremely dissatisfied with the democracy in Lithuania.

Satisfaction level was highest for aspects relating to general health and social trust. Only 11,11 percent of Lithuanians evaluated their general health as ‘bad’ or ‘very bad’. The level of indicators of social trust in Lithuania was rather high. More than half of the population believed that people could be trusted (50,75 percent) and tried to be fair (56,38 percent) (the scale ranging from 5-10 points). Over a half of Lithuanians (51,95 percent) also trusted in police.

Profiles of subjective quality of life in the large cities of Lithuania were developed based on quality of life domains perceived ‘better than’ or ‘worse than’ the average, as rated by the population of Lithuania as a whole (Figure 1).

Analyzing the profile of *Kaunas city* we can see that the measures that reflect happiness and overall satisfaction of citizens are lower comparing to the general population. The main three areas that should be improved are related with trust in police, criminal environment, and state of education. Rated highest compared to the average level in Lithuania were: ‘democracy working’ and ‘social trust’.

There are two main areas in which local authorities of *Klaipėda city* should improve the situation – state of health services and trust in legal systems. ‘Helping others’ is one more domain that was evaluated below the average level compared to the nation as a whole. This area could be improved by increasing the level of social trust the local area.

It is observed that for the *city of Panevėžys*, the level of many indicators is higher compared to the national level. Nonetheless, the citizens do not judge the overall situation as favourable enough. The worst ratings were achieved regarding ‘religious involvement’ and ‘health hampering in daily activities’.

In the case of *Siauliai city*, the main areas of improvement are related with the social environment, state of economy and democracy. Small level of social trust is the main shortcoming that reduces the overall level of happiness and satisfaction of the respondents. One of the top ranked domains compared to the national level were ‘social meetings’, ‘health services’ and ‘state of education’.

Vilnius city, compared to the other largest cities of Lithuania has much more areas of improvement. All the areas of social-emotional, material, and physical-productive quality of life, except the domain of ‘social meetings’ need to be developed in order to attain the average level of the state. The worst situation is considered with the economical and political issues: satisfaction with democracy, state of economy, and trust in legal system.

The focus of this research has been on subjective quality of life. In order to enrich the results of the further studies the objectively measured dimensions of quality of life ought to be also examined. These findings can help local authorities to develop the strategies of improving the level of quality of life according to the areas that have showed major gap between subjective and objective measures.

Conclusions

Quality of urban life is a multi-aspects phenomenon which should be measured in respect to the different dimensions that cover material, social-emotional, and physical-productive domains of life. In the paper we described the data related to the subjective indicators of quality of urban life. 21 subjectively measured indicators were selected to provide the profiles of subjective quality of life in the largest cities of Lithuania. The profiles were created based on average values compared to the nation as a whole.

During the research period, Lithuanians expressed rather dissatisfaction with the state of economy, differences in income levels, and trust in legal system. The level of satisfaction of respondents was highest for aspects relating to general health and social trust. The domains of high satisfaction and dissatisfaction varied among the largest cities of Lithuania. There were many areas for improvement in Vilnius city, while the profile of Panevėžys city showed higher level of quality of life in many areas, compared to the situation in Lithuania as a whole.

Findings of the research enable not only to show the real situation as it was valued by citizens, by also give the opportunity to supplement the objectively measured quality of life in order to provide the real situation at the local places.

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Subjektyviai matuojama gyvenimo kokybė: didžiųjų Lietuvos miestų kontekstas

Santrauka

Gyvenimo kokybė yra kompleksinis, daugiaaspektis konstruktas, kurį nagrinėti ir pažinti galima taikant skirtingus teorinius požiūrius (Yuan, Yuen, Low, 1999). Paprastai išskiriami du pagrindiniai požiūriai: objektyvus ir subjektyvus. Objektyvus požiūris reiškia objektyvių indikatorių, atspindinčių įvairius gyvenimo kokybės aspektus, taikymą, kurie matuojami, panaudojant antrinius duomenis, gaunamus iš oficialių statistikos šaltinių. Šis požiūris yra plačiai naudojamas dėl galimybės taikyti indikatorių įvairaus lygio palyginimams. Šis metodas, deja, turi tam tikrą apribojimą. Vienas esminių yra tas, kad oficiali statistika neparodo, kaip žmogus vertina savo gyvenimą. Kaip teigia Veenhoven (2002), objektyvūs indikatoriai patys savaime nepateikia pakankamos informacijos ir jų neužtenka, siekiant suprasti, kaip žmonės gyvena ir ką jaučia dėl savo gyvenimo kokybės. Šį apribojimą gali iš dalies kompensuoti subjektyvūs indikatoriai, leidžiantys atskleisti žmonių požiūrius ir nuomones apie jiems svarbius gyvenimo kokybės aspektus.

Objektyvus ir subjektyvus požiūriai plačiai taikomi skirtinguose kontekstuose bei skirtinguose analizės lygiuose, vertinant šalių, regionų, miestų bei mažesnių bendruomenių gyvenimo kokybę. Nepaisant tyrimų platumo bei įvairovės, ypatingą dėmesį užima tyrimai, atliekami miestų lygmenyje. Lotfi, Solaimani (2009) teigimu, pastarųjų metų gyvenimo kokybės tyrimai yra sukoncentruoti būtent miesto aplinkoje ir būtent šio pobūdžio tyrimai įgyja ypatingą mokslininkų ir valdžios institucijų dėmesį.

Miestai yra svarbi ekonominė ir politinė aplinka, užtikrinanti užimtumą bei leidžianti kurti žmonių gerovę. Gyvenimo kokybės miesto aplinkoje tyrimai yra aktualūs, kadangi suteikia informacijos apie tai, kaip būtų galima pagerinti žmonių gyvenimo ir darbo sąlygas, tokiu būdu užtikrinant nuolatinį socialinį ir ekonominį vietovės vystymą. Miestai leidžia gerinti žmonių gyvenimo kokybę ne tik vietos lygmenyje, bet taip pat savivaldybės bei visos šalies mastu. Tai yra pasiekiama sukuriant palankią aplinką miesto gyventojams, kurie kuria gerovę ir prisideda prie didesnės gyvenimo kokybės šalyje užtikrinimo.

Galima pastebėti, kad empiriniai tyrimai, nagrinėjantys miesto gyvenimo kokybę, paprastai remiasi objektyviais indikatoriais arba objektyvius ir subjektyvius indikatorius panaudoja atskirai. Tuo tarpu teoriniai gyvenimo kokybės tyrimai pagrindžia tai, kad, siekiant sukurti efektyvias gyvenimo kokybės gerinimo strategijas, reikia derinti abu požiūrius bei naudoti objektyvius ir subjektyvius vertinimus kartu. Subjektyvios gyvenimo kokybės vertinimas šia prasme tampa svarbiu pradiniu žingsniu, vertinant bendrą miesto gyvenimo kokybę. Kitas svarbus žingsnis yra objektyvių ir subjektyvių indikatorių integravimas į bendrą vertinimo sistemą. Šis klausimas tebėra aktualus teorinių ir

metodologinių diskusijų objektas pasaulyje, taip pat ir tarp Lietuvos mokslininkų.

Dėmesys gyvenimo kokybės tyrimams Lietuvoje pastaruoju metu sparčiai didėja. Nepaisant to, galima pastebėti, kad ankstesni tyrimai, vykdomi Lietuvoje, buvo grindžiami objektyviai matuojamais indikatoriais (pavyzdžiui, Rybakovas, 2012; Rakauskienė, Servetkienė, 2011; Rakauskienė, Lissauskaitė, 2009). Subjektyvi gyvenimo kokybė iki šiol daugiausia buvo matuojama medicinos srityje arba tik atskirų socialinių grupių, pavyzdžiui, pagyvenusių žmonių, kontekste. Šią situaciją iš dalies galima paaiškinti empirinių duomenų stoka. Atsižvelgiant į tai, gyvenimo kokybės tyrimai Lietuvoje, ypač orientuoti į subjektyvų vertinimą, turi didelę reikšmę.

Šio straipsnio tikslas yra išanalizuoti didžiausių Lietuvos miestų subjektyvios gyvenimo kokybės profilius bei ištirti gautų rezultatų integravimą su objektyviai matuojamais rodikliais galimybės, siekiant sukurti efektyvias gyvenimo kokybės gerinimo strategijas.

Straipsnis suskirstytas į tris dalis. Pirmojoje dalyje nagrinėjama subjektyvi miesto gyvenimo kokybės koncepcijos sudedamoji, akcentuojant subjektyvios gyvenimo kokybės matavimo svarbą bei reikšmę, sukuriama bendrą gyvenimo kokybės vertinimo sistemą.

Antroji straipsnio dalis pristato metodologinius sprendimus bei duomenų šaltinius, taikomus subjektyvios gyvenimo kokybės analizei. Buvo panaudoti Europos socialinio tyrimo duomenys. Šis tyrimas vykdomas kas antrus metus, pradedant nuo 2001 metų skirtinguose Europos ir kituose miestuose. Lietuva šiame tyrime dalyvauja jau du kartus, pradedant nuo 2008 metų. Deja, paskutinio tyrimo rezultatai dar nėra viešai prieinami analizei. Dėl to šiame straipsnyje pristatomi ir analizuojami Europos socialinio tyrimo ketvirtos bangos rezultatai, kurie leidžia atlikti analizę didžiausių Lietuvos miestų lygmenyje.

Trečiojoje straipsnio dalyje atliekama subjektyvios gyvenimo kokybės didžiausiuose Lietuvos miestuose analizė pagal pasirinktus kriterijus, kurie apima tris pagrindinius gyvenimo kokybės aspektus: materialų, socialinį emocinį bei fizinį produktyvų. Ši gyvenimo kokybės analizės logika buvo pagrįsta ankstesniuose tyrimuose (Rybakovas, 2011).

Didžiausi Lietuvos miestai (Kaunas, Klaipėda, Panevėžys, Šiauliai ir Vilnius) pagal daugumą objektyvių parametrų yra panašaus lygio, dėl ko gali būti išskiriami į atskirą klasterį, lyginant su kitais šalies miestais. Dėl to objektyvūs parametrai nesuteikia pakankamai informacijos ir turi būti papildyti subjektyvios gyvenimo kokybės vertinimais. Ši analizė leidžia išryškinti veiksnius, kurie didina ir mažina žmonių gyvenimo kokybę šiuose miestuose. Ši informacija turi ypatingą vertę praktinė prasme ir gali būti panaudojama vietos valdžios institucijose, imantis realių veiksmų, gerinant miestų gyventojų gyvenimo kokybę.

Siekiant išmatuoti subjektyvią gyvenimo kokybę vietos lygmenyje, buvo analizuojamas 21 indikatorius, suteikiant pagrindą kurti didžiausių Lietuvos miestų subjektyvios gyvenimo kokybės profilius. Profiliai buvo sukurti lyginant vidutines reikšmes pagal kiekvieną indikatorių miestų lygmenyje su vidurkiais, gautais visos Lietuvos mastu. Profiliai parodo, kiek procentine išraiška miesto gyvenimo kokybės vidutiniai vertinimai yra žemiau arba aukščiau Lietuvos vidurkio.

Bendrai vertinant, buvo pastebėta, kad 2008-2009 metais Lietuvos gyventojų didžiausias nepasitenkinimas buvo siejamas su ekonomikos būkle, skirtumais tarp gaunamų pajamų lygio bei pasitikėjimu teisine sistema. Didžiausias pasitenkinimo lygis buvo užfiksuotas, vertinant sritis, susietas su žmonių sveikata bei socialiniu pasitikėjimu.

Nagrinėjant atskirus subjektyvios gyvenimo kokybės profilius, buvo nustatyta, kad Vilniaus miestas reikalauja daugiausia dėmesio, siekiant pagerinti žmonių pasitikėjimą bei pasitenkinimą įvairiais gyvenimo kokybės aspektais. Palankiausia situacija buvo nustatyta Panevėžio mieste, kuriame buvo užfiksuotas, lyginant su visa Lietuva, gana aukštas subjektyvios gyvenimo kokybės lygis.

Reikšminiai žodžiai: gyvenimo kokybė, subjektyvūs indikatoriai, vietos savivaldos lygmuo, Lietuva, dideli miestai.

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Table 3

Responses to subjective quality of life in the largest cities of Lithuania

No	Indicator	Description	Categories	Local place	Percentage										Mean	
Material quality of life																
1	Satisfaction with life	How satisfied with life as a whole (STFLIFE: B24)	0-10 (0 - Extremely dissatisfied; 10 - Extremely satisfied)	Kaunas c. Klaipeda c. Panevezys c. Siauliai c. Vilnius c. Lithuania	0 2,80 5,50 2,74 4,11 6,40 4,54	1 5,61 0,00 2,74 4,11 3,66 3,53	2 13,08 8,26 16,44 5,48 11,59 8,88	3 14,02 15,60 5,48 10,96 14,33 12,91	4 12,15 6,42 13,70 15,07 8,84 10,39	5 13,08 15,60 16,44 9,59 16,16 14,93	6 13,55 15,60 15,07 12,33 7,62 11,90	7 12,15 12,84 16,44 13,70 14,63 15,13	8 7,94 16,51 8,22 19,18 12,20 12,86	9 4,21 1,83 2,74 2,74 3,96 3,68	10 1,40 0,00 0,00 2,74 0,61 1,26	4,70 5,08 4,85 5,32 4,73 5,02
2	Satisfaction with economy	How satisfied with present state of economy in Lithuania (STFECON: B25)	0-10 (0 - Extremely dissatisfied; 10 - Extremely satisfied)	Kaunas c. Klaipeda c. Panevezys c. Siauliai c. Vilnius c. Lithuania	0 22,90 27,52 4,11 29,33 32,83 20,57	1 17,29 14,68 12,33 8,00 19,45 17,51	2 14,49 17,43 27,40 21,33 15,81 19,47	3 17,29 15,60 24,66 21,33 13,98 17,20	4 13,55 12,84 15,07 9,33 10,33 11,32	5 7,48 8,26 13,70 9,33 5,17 7,90	6 4,21 2,75 0,00 1,33 1,22 3,87	7 1,40 0,92 1,37 0,00 0,61 1,56	8 0,47 0,00 1,37 0,00 0,30 0,35	9 0,93 0,00 0,00 0,00 0,00 0,15	10 0,00 0,00 0,00 0,00 0,30 0,10	2,37 2,12 2,90 2,07 1,77 2,32
3	Happiness	How happy are you (HAPPY: C1)	0-10 (0 - Extremely unhappy; 10 - Extremely happy)	Kaunas c. Klaipeda c. Panevezys c. Siauliai c. Vilnius c. Lithuania	0 1,41 0,00 0,00 0,00 0,61 0,45	1 1,88 0,00 0,00 0,00 0,91 0,95	2 4,23 2,70 4,11 7,79 5,18 3,76	3 5,63 7,21 8,22 7,79 10,37 7,43	4 15,02 6,31 5,48 10,39 9,45 9,03	5 12,68 17,12 20,55 15,58 13,72 14,35	6 17,37 11,71 17,81 16,88 10,06 11,79	7 16,43 16,22 15,07 16,88 15,55 17,26	8 16,90 28,83 16,44 18,18 21,65 23,38	9 5,63 7,21 10,96 7,79 7,93 8,13	10 2,82 2,70 1,37 5,19 4,57 3,46	5,84 6,44 6,14 6,32 6,08 6,25
4	Income differences	Government should reduce differences in income levels (GINCDIF: B30)	1-5 (1-Agree strongly; 2-Agree; 3-Neither agree nor disagree; 4-Disagree; 5-Disagree strongly)	Kaunas c. Klaipeda c. Panevezys c. Siauliai c. Vilnius c. Lithuania	1 37,38 26,13 9,86 36,49 27,55 24,59	2 43,46 46,85 64,79 43,24 56,97 55,66	3 15,89 18,92 19,72 14,86 11,46 14,54	4 1,87 7,21 5,63 5,41 3,41 4,49	5 1,40 0,90 0,00 0,00 0,62 0,71						1,86 2,10 2,21 1,89 1,93 2,01	
Social-emotional quality of life																
5	Socially meetings	How often socially meet with friends, relatives or colleagues (SCLMEET: C2)	1-7 (1-Never; 2-Less than once a month; 3-Once a month; 4-Several times a month; 5-Once a week; 6-Several times a week; 7-Every day)	Kaunas c. Klaipeda c. Panevezys c. Siauliai c. Vilnius c. Lithuania	1 2,34 0,00 0,00 3,90 4,88 3,62	2 30,84 21,62 19,18 10,39 23,78 26,75	3 11,68 5,41 15,07 5,19 11,59 12,47	4 26,64 26,13 21,92 22,08 24,39 22,12	5 13,08 17,12 17,81 23,38 16,16 15,84	6 11,21 20,72 16,44 18,18 11,89 11,81	7 4,21 9,01 9,59 16,88 7,32 7,39				3,68 4,37 4,26 4,73 3,88 3,85	
6	Trusting people	Most people can be trusted or you can't be too careful (PPLTRST: A8)	0-10 (0 - You can't be too careful; 10 - Most people can be trusted)	Kaunas c. Klaipeda c. Panevezys c. Siauliai c. Vilnius c. Lithuania	0 3,74 9,09 2,78 21,05 5,45 6,17	1 4,21 3,64 1,39 1,32 8,79 5,72	2 11,21 8,18 6,94 3,95 14,55 11,43	3 10,75 10,91 9,72 17,11 14,85 13,94	4 14,02 12,73 15,28 9,21 8,48 11,99	5 17,76 22,73 18,06 23,68 24,55 19,21	6 17,76 12,73 8,33 9,21 6,67 9,73	7 13,55 12,73 12,50 9,21 8,48 11,03	8 5,14 5,45 16,67 3,95 4,55 7,12	9 1,40 0,91 4,17 0,00 2,12 2,56	10 0,47 0,91 4,17 1,32 1,52 1,10	4,64 4,44 5,46 3,80 4,09 4,41
7	People's fairness	Most people try to take advantage of you, or try to be fair (PPLFAIR: A9)	0-10 (0 - Most people try to take advantage of me; 10 - Most people try to be fair)	Kaunas c. Klaipeda c. Panevezys c. Siauliai c. Vilnius c. Lithuania	0 2,86 4,55 2,74 15,07 4,71 4,54	1 3,33 3,64 0,00 4,11 5,05 4,23	2 8,10 6,36 2,74 4,11 9,76 8,26	3 14,29 9,09 15,07 10,96 13,47 12,24	4 14,29 15,45 17,81 13,70 9,43 14,35	5 21,43 27,27 15,07 30,14 29,29 22,10	6 12,38 10,00 9,59 9,59 8,42 10,64	7 13,81 14,55 13,70 5,48 10,10 11,15	8 8,57 4,55 13,70 5,48 5,72 8,31	9 0,95 0,91 5,48 0,00 2,69 2,89	10 0,00 3,64 4,11 1,37 1,35 1,29	4,75 4,85 5,51 4,04 4,54 4,73
8	Helping others	Most of the time people helpful or mostly looking out for themselves (PPLHLP: A10)	0-10 (0 - People mostly look out for themselves; 10 - People mostly try to be helpful)	Kaunas c. Klaipeda c. Panevezys c. Siauliai c. Vilnius c. Lithuania	0 3,29 10,81 2,78 20,00 7,65 7,40	1 2,82 9,91 5,56 4,00 14,98 8,46	2 12,21 13,51 13,89 12,00 14,68 12,59	3 20,66 19,82 19,44 10,67 19,27 16,77	4 17,84 17,12 13,89 10,67 8,26 12,99	5 21,60 14,41 13,89 29,33 20,18 18,38	6 11,27 3,60 12,50 12,00 5,50 9,47	7 6,10 4,50 8,33 0,00 6,73 7,65	8 3,29 3,60 9,72 1,33 1,83 4,48	9 0,94 1,80 0,00 0,00 0,61 1,36	10 0,00 3,45 0,00 0,00 0,31 0,45	4,14 3,45 4,28 3,32 3,39 3,91
9	Democracy working	How satisfied with the way democracy works in Lithuania (STFDEM: B27)	0-10 (0 - Extremely dissatisfied; 10 - Extremely satisfied)	Kaunas c. Klaipeda c. Panevezys c. Siauliai c. Vilnius c. Lithuania	0 12,26 6,80 1,45 21,05 28,66 14,52	1 9,91 9,71 2,90 9,21 14,02 12,23	2 12,74 15,53 10,14 19,74 11,84 14,57	3 9,43 17,48 13,04 21,05 14,33 13,43	4 10,38 17,48 11,59 9,21 8,72 12,08	5 10,85 15,53 20,29 7,89 10,28 11,87	6 14,15 5,83 15,94 5,26 4,67 8,35	7 9,91 2,91 8,70 2,63 4,05 5,44	8 7,55 5,83 10,14 0,00 2,80 5,81	9 2,36 0,97 5,80 1,32 0,62 1,40	10 0,47 1,94 0,00 2,63 0,00 0,31	4,00 3,71 5,00 2,76 2,51 3,40
10	Trusting police	Trust in the police (TRSTPLC: B6)	0-10 (0 - No trust at all; 10 - Complete trust)	Kaunas c. Klaipeda c. Panevezys c. Siauliai c. Vilnius c.	0 8,49 10,81 2,78 19,23 9,63	1 7,08 4,50 4,17 3,85 5,59	2 9,91 10,81 11,11 5,13 6,83	3 14,15 10,81 12,50 5,13 13,98	4 16,98 13,51 13,89 6,41 11,49	5 16,98 23,42 20,83 17,95 22,36	6 13,21 14,41 15,28 5,13 13,35	7 9,43 7,21 5,56 7,69 5,90	8 2,36 3,60 12,50 10,26 6,52	9 1,42 0,90 1,39 11,54 2,48	10 0,00 0,00 0,00 7,69 1,86	3,99 4,04 4,67 4,92 4,34

				Lithuania	9,62	7,14	8,61	10,43	12,25	19,09	11,24	8,00	7,85	4,46	1,32	4,40				
11	Trusting legal system (TRSTLGL: B5)	Trust in legal system (0-10 (0 - No trust at all; 10 - Complete trust))	0-10 (0 - No trust at all; 10 - Complete trust)	Kaunas c.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10					
				Klaipeda c.	20,28	9,91	10,38	14,15	12,74	17,45	8,02	3,77	2,83	0,47	0,00	3,13				
				Panevezys c.	20,00	12,38	6,67	17,14	18,10	19,05	3,81	0,95	1,90	0,00	0,00	2,90				
				Siauliai c.	5,88	4,41	11,76	16,18	23,53	19,12	10,29	7,35	1,47	0,00	0,00	3,91				
				Vilnius c.	27,27	7,79	5,19	6,49	7,79	22,08	3,90	5,19	12,99	1,30	0,00	3,55				
				Vilnius c.	19,11	20,06	12,74	13,38	14,97	12,10	3,50	0,96	1,59	0,32	1,27	2,62				
				Lithuania	15,90	12,97	12,45	13,18	13,79	13,64	7,36	4,99	3,96	1,29	0,46	3,28				
12	Assaults	Respondent or household member victim of burglary/assault last 5 years (CRMVCT: C5)	1-Yes; 2-No	Kaunas c.	1	2														
				Klaipeda c.	15,96	84,04													1,84	
				Panevezys c.	17,12	82,88														1,83
				Siauliai c.	12,33	87,67														1,88
				Vilnius c.	10,53	89,47														1,89
				Vilnius c.	25,15	74,85														1,75
				Lithuania	13,63	86,37														1,86
13	Safety after dark*	Feeling of safety of walking alone in local area after dark (AESFDRK: C6)	1-4 (1-Very safe; 2-Safe; 3-Unsafe; 4-Very unsafe)	Kaunas c.	1	2	3	4												
				Klaipeda c.	0,00	26,32	61,24	12,44											2,86	
				Panevezys c.	0,93	36,45	40,19	22,43											2,84	
				Siauliai c.	2,82	47,89	46,48	2,82												2,49
				Vilnius c.	14,86	43,24	37,84	4,05												2,31
				Vilnius c.	2,13	27,96	58,97	10,94												2,79
				Lithuania	2,82	41,77	46,43	8,98												2,62
14	Worrying about burglary	How often worry about your home being burgled (BRGHMWR: C7)	1-4 (1-All or most of the time; 2-Some of the time; 3-Just occasionally; 4-Never)	Kaunas c.	1	2	3	4												
				Klaipeda c.	8,49	36,79	35,85	18,87											2,65	
				Panevezys c.	8,18	36,36	32,73	22,73											2,70	
				Siauliai c.	2,74	32,88	52,05	12,33												2,74
				Vilnius c.	3,90	35,06	23,38	37,66												2,95
				Vilnius c.	9,57	54,01	25,31	11,11												2,38
				Lithuania	6,59	39,43	28,59	25,39												2,73
15	Worrying about violence	How often worry about becoming a victim of violent crime (CRVCTWR: C9)	1-4 (1-All or most of the time; 2-Some of the time; 3-Just occasionally; 4-Never)	Kaunas c.	1	2	3	4												
				Klaipeda c.	8,02	37,26	42,45	12,26											2,59	
				Panevezys c.	8,18	36,36	39,09	16,36											2,64	
				Siauliai c.	5,48	34,25	49,32	10,96												2,66
				Vilnius c.	1,33	28,00	25,33	45,33												3,15
				Vilnius c.	8,21	53,50	24,32	13,98												2,44
				Lithuania	5,16	37,60	30,97	26,27												2,78
16	Discrimination	Member of a group discriminated against in Lithuania (DSCRGRP: C24)	1-Yes; 2-No	Kaunas c.	1	2														
				Klaipeda c.	20,10	79,90													1,80	
				Panevezys c.	3,60	96,40														1,96
				Siauliai c.	4,11	95,89														1,96
				Vilnius c.	3,95	96,05														1,96
				Vilnius c.	10,43	89,57														1,90
				Lithuania	7,23	92,77														1,93
17	Religion*	Belonging to particular religion or denomination (RLGBLG: C17)	1-Yes; 2-No	Kaunas c.	1	2														
				Klaipeda c.	82,78	17,22													1,17	
				Panevezys c.	80,18	19,82														1,20
				Siauliai c.	71,23	28,77														1,29
				Vilnius c.	97,37	2,63														1,03
				Vilnius c.	80,30	19,70														1,20
				Lithuania	84,97	15,03														1,15
Physical-productive quality of life																				
18	Health services	State of health services in Lithuania nowadays (STFHLTH: B29)	0-10 (0 - Extremely bad; 10 - Extremely good)	Kaunas c.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10					
				Klaipeda c.	10,48	6,67	16,19	13,81	16,67	15,24	10,48	5,71	4,76	0,00	0,00	3,64				
				Panevezys c.	14,29	10,48	9,52	17,14	21,90	14,29	7,62	2,86	1,90	0,00	0,00	3,21				
				Siauliai c.	1,39	9,72	13,89	25,00	18,06	9,72	12,50	8,33	1,39	0,00	0,00	3,78				
				Vilnius c.	9,59	4,11	5,48	17,81	9,59	17,81	12,33	19,18	1,37	2,74	0,00	4,40				
				Vilnius c.	9,29	19,20	16,72	13,00	9,60	17,65	7,43	5,26	1,55	0,31	0,00	3,15				
				Lithuania	9,18	9,79	13,74	14,46	13,85	16,05	10,10	8,10	3,74	0,82	0,15	3,73				
19	Subjective health*	Subjective general health (HEALTH: C15)	1-5 (1-Very good; 2-Good; 3-Fair; 4-Bad; 5-Very bad)	Kaunas c.	1	2	3	4	5											
				Klaipeda c.	13,15	34,74	38,50	11,74	1,88										2,54	
				Panevezys c.	17,12	42,34	29,73	9,01	1,80										2,36	
				Siauliai c.	13,70	30,14	41,10	15,07	0,00											2,58
				Vilnius c.	28,21	30,77	25,64	12,82	2,56											2,31
				Vilnius c.	10,00	37,27	43,64	7,88	1,21											2,53
				Lithuania	11,76	39,89	37,24	9,61	1,50											2,49
20	Health hampering in daily activities	Hampered in daily activities by illness / disability / infirmity / mental problem (HLTHHMP: C16)	1-3 (1-Yes a lot; 2-Yes to some extent; 3- No)	Kaunas c.	1	2	3													
				Klaipeda c.	4,69	29,11	66,20												2,62	
				Panevezys c.	4,50	16,22	79,28													2,75
				Siauliai c.	12,33	23,29	64,38													2,52
				Vilnius c.	6,41	14,10	79,49													2,73
				Vilnius c.	4,60	29,45	65,95													2,61
				Lithuania	5,42	23,20	71,37													2,66
21	Education	State of education in Lithuania nowadays (STFEDU: B28)	0-10 (0 - Extremely bad; 10 - Extremely good)	Kaunas c.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10					
				Klaipeda c.	10,00	6,50	14,50	11,00	15,00	20,50	11,00	6,50	3,50	1,50	0,00	3,84				
				Panevezys c.	6,86	5,88	6,86	18,63	6,86	23,53	5,88	18,63	6,86	0,00	0,00	4,41				
				Siauliai c.	1,67	1,67	3,33	26,67	10,00	25,00	10,00	15,00	6,67	0,00	0,00	4,72				
				Vilnius c.	5,97	2,99	7,46	19,40	10,45	17,91	10,45	11,94	2,99	7,46	2,99	4,75				
				Vilnius c.	6,40	16,50	11,78	13,80	9,43	18,52	6,73	12,79	3,70	0,34	0,00	3,74				
				Lithuania	6,65	6,65	11,12	14,99	12,10	19,85	10,03	11,45	5,78	1,15	0,22	4,21				

* Higher mean values of these indicators implicate negative aspects of quality of life
Source: European Social Survey, Fourth round, 2008-2009