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**SPECIAL TRAINING AS A DETERMINANT  
BEHIND PUBLIC ETHICS OF CARE**

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**LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS**

DIT	Defining Issues Test
NPM	New Public Management
Q1, 2, 3, ...	Respective questions in the questionnaire list
RANEPA	Russian Presidential Academy of National Economy and Public Administration under the President of the Russian Federation
RG	Reinventing Government
SSMS	Stewart – Sprinthall Management Survey

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**ABSTRACT**

Transition to new forms of governance and alteration of traditional mechanisms of production and delivery of public services have resulted in inconsistency of old public ethos and new administrative reality. Employment of private sector practices to raise flexibility, quality and effectiveness of public services, and simultaneously to reduce their costs, caused clash between public and private sector values. Lack of relevant public ethical guidance provoked subsequent practical problems, such as raise of corruption and decrease in citizens' trust in public institutions. Many researchers voiced for necessity of introduction a new public ethical framework. The current thesis argues that public ethics of care may fill in the gaps in public values and provide a relevant guidance for ethical conduct.

As different people demonstrate different degree of inclination towards care, this research aimed to test empirically whether deliberate teaching of public ethics of care may influence moral orientation of public officials. The work employed a quantitative method of survey to gather the research data; a quantitative exploratory data analysis was used to evaluate the findings. 107 students majoring in public administration participated in the self-administered Internet-mediated questionnaire.

The results showed significant interdependence between variables of knowledge of public ethics of care and inclination to care. The students who studies public ethics of care tended to choose care-oriented conduct in 14% cases more than those without respective training. At the same time no considerable evidences of gender differences could be found. The findings support the idea of compulsory teaching of public ethics of care to future public sector employees.

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**KEYWORDS:** public ethics, ethics of care, public values, education, gender



## 1. INTRODUCTION

The welfare state model of governance implies that key role in protection and promotion of social and economic well-being of citizens is laid on government. In order to accomplish these tasks, core democratic values, such as justice, integrity, equality, trust, personal and political freedom should be put in the basis of every administrative decision. At the same time, caring for citizens implies employment of personal approach underlying decision-making, especially in spheres where multiple ways of policy-making is possible. The current study argues that public ethics of care offers a vital ethical tool for welfare state public administration, as they both has same core values – reciprocity and consideration for needs of others, interpersonal relations between people and care. This thesis suggests that special training may enhance ability of public officials to apply care-ethical approach to their professional tasks.

### 1.1. Background of the study

Public reforms of the last decades have changed the mechanism of public service production and delivery. Namely, different forms of public-private partnership, contracting-out, general marketization of the governance were undertaken to raise efficiency, flexibility and cost of public service. Unfortunately, these alterations have caused tensions between new public roles and old public ethos, which entailed even more significant problems, such as raise of corruption, lack of control mechanism for multifaceted governmental agencies, and decrease of citizens' trust in government. The evident deterioration of the old public values prompted boom in public ethics research, and the bulk of works confirmed the necessity to introduce new tools and guidance for ethical public decision-making (for example, Maesschalck 2004: 465-466; Bilhim & Neves 2005; Brady 2003: 525-526; Frederickson 1999).

As recent research showed, public officials, who take and apply managerial decisions, and citizens, who are influenced by these decisions, have the same aims and objectives. (Lehtonen 2010: 28) In fact, "citizens and civil servants value the same things, such as

equality, integrity, and responsibility” (ibid). However, in practice, public administration is often accused of being slow, inflexible, over-bureaucratic and indifferent (ibid). Public employees are expected to take decisions that consider characteristics of each particular case, practice empathy and ability to care. The current study considers principles of the ethics of care in public administration as a promising way to meet a lack in public ethical values, satisfy citizens’ expectations and raise their trust in public institutions.

This study investigates general development of public administration ethics and values and their change over time and political, economic and historical context. The research emphasizes development of ethics of care as a concept of moral philosophy and its application within the sphere of public administration. Inclination to care varies in different people (Lehtonen 2010: 39). As previous studies show, the information about determinants that lay behind application of public ethics of care is very controversial and abstract (Stensöta 2010: 297). Inspired by Lehtonen’s suggestion that “the education of future civil servants should involve studies in what might be called “empathy in work” (2010: 39, 41), this work considers importance of education as a fundamental determinant influencing application of public ethics of care. Particularly, the significance of teaching ethics of care to students studying public administration is empirically investigated.

## 1.2. Research Questions and Objectives

Main research questions of the current thesis are formulated as follows:

*Whether public ethics of care may facilitate ethical decision-making for public administration in modern welfare states; and if it may,*

*Whether special training contributes to inclination to apply principles of public care ethics.*

In order to answer these questions, the following research objectives should be accomplished:

1. To identify in what way recent reforms in public administration of western welfare states have influenced traditional public values;
2. To study whether use of principles of care ethics may aid solving ethical problems of public administration in welfare states;
3. To investigate whether inclination towards caring conduct is innate or might be cultivated deliberately by the education.

### 1.3. Methodology and materials

The current study is monomethodological; it utilizes quantitative research strategy of survey, and respective quantitative method of data analysis. The survey is conducted via online questionnaire tool SurveyMonkey™ to reach bigger number of respondents and to simplify participation. Monographs, selections of articles and handbooks, as well as separate articles from specialized public administration journals were used as data sources.

### 1.4. Framework of the study

This study contains six chapters. The Introduction describes briefly the research topic and shows the “idea stage”, which preceded the study and caused primordial interest to the topic. Following chapter is devoted to the theoretical investigation of the main related concepts, such as welfare state, general public ethics, ethics of care as a notion in moral philosophy and its previous application within public administration, as well as general direction of public management reforms of the past decades with corresponding changes in public ethos.

Chapter 3 aims to describe research works and their findings on the determinants behind ethics of care in public administration. Limitations, challenges and quality of the previous research are critically considered. Literature review is employed to investigate the intellectual history of the research object and to focus on the determinants within the disciplinary boundaries of the public administration, and thus, to make the study precise.

This is followed by the methodology framework, depicting general research design, research methods used in the study and data collection techniques, describing pilot and cognitive questionnaire testing. The chapter also explains the choice of the research subjects. Finally, validity and reliability of the research is discussed.

Chapter 5 is devoted to the survey results, their interpretation and analysis. An exhaustive description of the research sample characteristics is presented, as well as distribution of the answers. The findings are vividly introduced with employment of exploratory analysis.

The final chapter contains conclusions of the research and suggestions for further investigations. This is followed by the list of references and appendixes.

## 2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

A welfare state can be defined as a concept of government, in which the state plays key role in protection and promotion of the economic and social well-being of the citizens (Lähdesmäki 2010: 66). Main principles of welfare state model are equitable distribution of wealth, equality of opportunity, and public care for those, who are unable to provide themselves maintenance for a good life. The general term may cover a variety of forms of economic and social organization (Chulitskaya 2005: 61).

In the theory of Welfare State emphasis is placed on providing high standard of living for the members of the society with regard to improvement of distribution of income, property, and in terms of functioning of government for the sake of its citizens (Batygin, Bashina, Kurtin et al. 1992: 4).

The concept of Welfare State started to be developed actively in the middle of XX century (Chulitskaya 2005: 62). Significant role in development of theory of Welfare State played research of English economist John Maynard Keynes, who advocated the need of active interference of government in economic system of the country. Main Keynes' concepts are expounded in his work "The General Theory of Employment, Interest and Money", 1936. In its basis lies an idea of government's intervention into development of capitalistic economy for the purpose of removal crises, achieving maximal employment, enhancement of social production (Keynes 1936).

### 2.1. Approaches to the classification of models of social policy

In spite of the fact that the main goal of all governmental social policies is the same – providing welfare to its citizens, or to put it differently, caring for them, - each government carries out different approaches to achieve best results, with taking into consideration concrete conditions. Nowadays, a variety of different models of welfare social policy can be distinguished: model of Nordic countries, Germany and France, Great Britain and the USA, former Soviet countries, and many others (Chulitskaya

2005: 62). Practical realization of social policy depends on political structure, level of economic development, structure of administration, available resources, historical and cultural background, etc. (Fabricius 1995: 12).

Depending on dimension of comparison of socio-political systems, several classifications of social policy can be distinguished. For instance, can be determined *Bismarckian* and *Beveridgean* models; or Richard Titmuss' *Residual Welfare, Industrial Achievement*, and *Institutional Redistributive* models; or *Nordic* model, model of *Continental* and *Southern Europe*, and *Anglo-Saxon* model (Chulitskaya 2005: 62-63; Batygin et al. 1992: 10; Fabricius 1995: 36-37).

Bismarckian and Beveridgean models differ from each other in part of population included in the insurance system, type of financing sources, and relative extent of contributions (Batygin et al. 1992: 10). Different models of social policy are considered to be Bismarckian or Beveridgean on the principle of their typical features and character of providing public assistance. Bismarckian welfare systems can be characterized by a very strong dependency of the level of social security on the length of professional labor activity. Social benefits are provided on income-related basis to employed citizens and their families, as these benefits are covered by tax allocation, paid during whole working period. It is significant that enrolment to social security system is conditional and depends on a satisfactory contribution record. The needs of those unable to labor activity are met by the means of national financial support for low-income groups or by charity (Kholostova 2008: 33).

In its turn Beveridgean model of social policy rests on the idea that every citizen, regardless his or her belonging to economically active population has a right on minimal security in case of sickness, retirement or in any other case of reduction of the income. The volume of support corresponds with the need, and social benefits are mostly flat-rate. They are financed via taxation and state budget (Kholostova 2008: 34).

Consequently, main differences of these two systems are in their "eventual goal". Bismarckian system aims to maintain financially employed population, while

Beveridgean tries to prevent poverty and support the most vulnerable groups of society. (Batygin et al. 1992: 10).

As far as historical-geographical division is concerned, Nordic, Continental European, Anglo-Saxon and Mediterranean models are of particular interest (Chulitskaya 2005: 62-63). Nordic welfare model is typical for Northern European countries – Finland, Sweden, Norway, Denmark and Iceland. This model has its distinguishing features, for instance, high level of corporatism, as labor unions and employers' organizations have strong influence on social policy. State social assistance is provided in all circumstances of economic vulnerability. Nordic welfare states employ developed system of progressive taxation to maintain collective responsibility for well-being of the citizens. Governments support laid off workers with unemployment benefits and retraining (Chulitskaya 2005: 62). Lähdesmäki (2010: 66) has stressed four particular traits of Nordic Welfare Model, namely, “largescale public responsibility, social-political equality, full employment, and strong income redistribution”.

Continental European model refers to such countries as Austria, France, Germany, Belgium and Luxembourg. This model takes after both Nordic and Anglo-Saxon models. Unemployment benefits are insurance-based, but generally a system of subsidies is not conditioned to employability. Emphasis is put on reducing poverty, providing health care of high quality. High share of all social expenditure is devoted to pensions and invalidity subsidies (Chulitskaya 2005: 62).

Anglo-Saxon social model in Europe is used by the UK and Ireland. One of the main peculiarities of this model is comparatively low level of social expenditure. This model can be considered as more Bismarckian than all above mentioned, and public support is directed to a higher extent to the working-age population than to pensions. Social assistance tends to be a last resort, if other means failed. Access to subsidies is conditioned to employability, and comparative level of inequality is quite high in terms of income (Chulitskaya 2005: 63; Kholostova 2008: 33).

Mediterranean model corresponds to southern European countries, such as Italy, Spain, Greece, and Portugal. This model was developed later than all abovementioned. It is the model with lowest share of expenditures and is strongly based on pensions and a low level of social assistance (Chulitskaya 2005: 63).

## 2.2. Classical welfare state classification

First division of welfare state models was introduced by Richard Titmuss in 1974 (Fabricius 1995: 36). In the basis of division is laid fashion of provision of services. Residual Welfare model implies that problems of individuals should be solved mainly with assistance of the family and relatives or by market. Public assistance can be rendered only in case of impossibility to solve the problem on one's own and this fact should be proved. Even in a case when the support is granted, it is usually short-term and frugal (ibid).

In another model, an Industrial Achievement one, social institutions have a significant role in social policy and needs of citizens are met on the basis of merit, work performance and productivity (ibid: 37). According to the third model, Institutional Redistributive, public assistance is universal and has preventive character. Level of support is usually corresponding to needs, and social welfare is regarded as a major integrated institution in society. The problems are solved with regard to the established rules and norms (ibid).

Titmuss' classification of welfare states was reconsidered by Gøsta Esping-Andersen, a Danish sociologist. This resulted into emergence of probably the most well-known welfare state classification scheme, which he set out in his work "The Three Worlds of Welfare Capitalism" (1990) (Baldock 2012: 23). In this book he claims that classifications made before him took as a basis for classification level of social expenditure relative to the gross domestic product of the country. Esping-Andersen considers this approach as misleading, because all spending cannot be counted equally. His classification is based on two characteristics: the degree of decommodification and the kind of stratification it leads to within the society (Esping-Andersen 1990: 19-21).

Decommodification can be determined as “the degree to which individuals, or families, can uphold a socially acceptable standard of living independently of market participation” (ibid: 37), and a state of affairs “when a service is rendered as a matter of right, and when a person can maintain a livelihood without reliance on the market” (ibid: 21-22). The notion of stratification “refers to the intensity of redistribution and the level of universality of solidarity that is imposed by the welfare state” (ibid: 22).

Based on these characteristics, Esping-Andersen distinguished three types of welfare state: Liberal, Conservative and Social Democratic (ibid: 26).

In Liberal type the level of decommodification is low, while stratification of the society is high. State interference takes form of regulation of the markets. Public assistance is rendered on the residual basis, only to those who are the most in need. Governmental responsibilities include providing of particular minimum of social guarantees to all members of the society. Esping-Andersen attributed this model to Great Britain and the U.S (ibid: 27).

Conservative type implies high level of both decommodification and stratification. Government guarantees financial provision and regulates markets. This type implies launching separate social programs and campaigns for different professional and status groups related on labour contribution. This type is common for France and Germany (ibid).

Social Democratic type refers to high level of decommodification, but the level of stratification in the society is low. Governmental interference is realized by direct financial provision. Originally this type emphasized concentration of social fund, supporting trade unions and other democratic non-government organization. Later the principle was extended on all citizens, who have equal rights in getting benefits regardless of needs and labour contribution (ibid). This type is used in Nordic countries.

Regardless the fact that Esping-Andersen’s work has been presented more than 25 years ago, and has been criticized by many authors (Arts and Gelissen 2002: 138), the Three

Worlds of Welfare Capitalism “have obtained a paradigmatic status and its claims and findings are often taken for granted rather than challenged” (Emmenegger, Kvist, Marx et al. 2015: 3).

It is significant that all abovementioned models are quite relative and none of them can exist in a pure form, “the real world is likely to exhibit hybrid forms” (Arts and Gelissen 2002: 139). These models can hardly be attached to any real policy model, and their main function is scientific and theoretical. However, this schematic division simplifies understanding of diversity in welfare system all over the globe (ibid).

To sum up, all welfare state models imply obligation of the state to take care of the citizens, though to a greater or lesser extent. From institutional point of view, the essence of public policy should not be detached from the form of the policy. This makes public ethics of care a vital part of care policies, intrinsic to the notion of welfare state.

### 2.3. Public Administration Ethics

This section considers general public administration ethics as a special case of professional ethics, with respective ethical values and norms. The aim of this investigation is to distinguish specific features, characteristic for public administration ethics, and thus, to define and describe this notion.

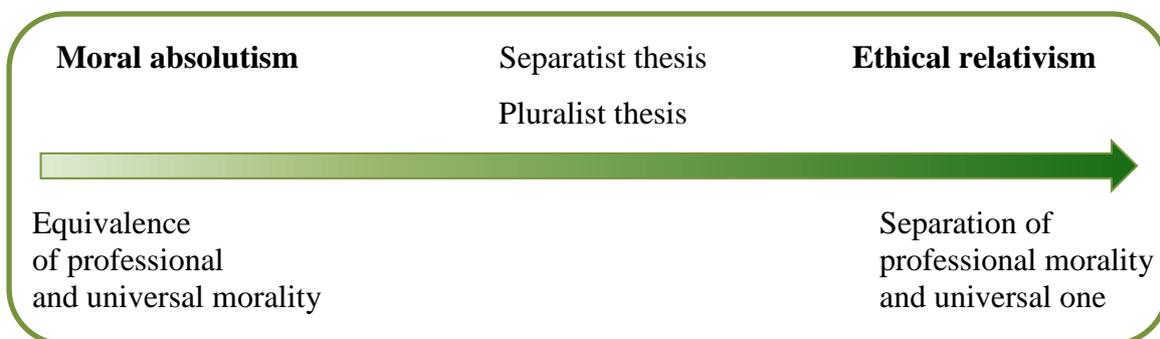
#### 2.3.1. Views on professional ethics

Core distinctive attributes of any profession are possessing specific knowledge and competences, comprehensive training, and engagement to fulfil duties properly with guidance of ethical code (Goss 1996: 574). According to Goss (1996: 576), there are several basic theoretical propositions on professional ethics. In fact, the criterion for division between them is the position of professional ethical values with respect to ordinary values, resident in a person (this distribution is vividly presented on Figure 1). For instance, notion of moral absolutism stands for inclusive nature of ordinary morality

that comprises all ethical values and norms of a person, which cannot be distinguished from each other. From this viewpoint, there are fundamental, core values and norms that are universal; they transcend cultures and contexts, and are timeless, because they refer to the conception of moral duty and reflect characteristics of what is proper or right. In context of public administration such ethical values are, for instance, fairness, integrity, and caring (Goss 1996: 575).

Separatist approach to professional ethics claims that each profession holds a specific set of role-based ethical values that are exclusive for particular professionals. They differ not only from those values possessed by representatives of other professions, but also from values of ordinary citizens. Role-based ethical system in this case is independent from universal one, and can even be superior to the latter in a personal ethical hierarchy. Being guided by different moral principles, professionals may behave inconsistently with other public, specifically while solving ethical dilemmas (Goss 1996: 573, 575).

Another view on professional ethics is offered by pluralist approach. It denies existence of one universal and all-embracing morality, since every person is free to choose what is right or wrong. Hence, a powerful group of individuals has competency to have their own ethics, including separate professional groups. Noteworthy, both separatist and pluralist approaches, if raised ad extra, lead to some forms of ethical relativism (Goss 1996: 575).



**Figure 1.** Views on professional ethics.  
Based on Goss (1996)

At the same time, there are evidences that role-based ethical values within public administration may be shared beyond cultural and national borders, which to some extent extends the notion of absolute professional morality. For instance, Gilman (1996: 517-519) advocates existence of public service ethical values, which are common for most of public officials in countries that reached particular level of democratic maturity and economic development. Among these commonalities Gilman (1996: 519-522) empirically found evidence for inclination to shared public administrative values, such as impartiality, efficiency and effectiveness that exists regardless of distinctive cultural values and norms. This community of ethical values is rooted in shared goals on the one hand, and deliberate desire to develop normative public ethical framework, on the other. Moreover, numerous countries, out of 53 under investigation, launched structurally similar public ethics programs. Noteworthy, mutuality in norms and values does not imply mutuality in actual behavioral compliance with them (Gilman 1996: 518).

### 2.3.2. Reforms in Public Administration and their impact on public ethos

Since its foundation as a separate field of knowledge in the end of XIX century, public administration has undergone sufficient reforms. Approaches to public administration have changed respectively with the tasks and demands that public administrators were entrusted with, according to historical, political and economic context at a point in time. Alteration of approaches to public administration was followed by changes in administrative values and tools. Together with new challenges new modes of public ethics came on the scene. Recent trends in public administration and respective change in agenda between bureaucratic and democratic public ethos in favor of the latter made government less depending on formal rules and procedures on the one hand, and more trusting in the entrepreneurship and efficiency on the other (Pollitt&Bouckaert 2011: 10-11). This shift encouraged boom in research in public ethics, which showed clear contradiction between new management trends and traditional public values (for example, Stensöta 2010; Brady 2003; Frederickson 1999; De Montricher 1998).

The most significant qualitative reforms in public management began in 1960s. These reforms became not just procedural changes within one particular European country, as it used to be before, but more of an international political and economic matter. This was followed by massive administrative reforms to create compatible law frameworks in developed countries. Further, by the end of 1980s multi-national management consultancies begin to play significant role in the alteration of public management of many countries. Thus, apart from single-country governments, new forms of independent actors emerged on the scene (Pollitt&Bouckaert 2011: 6-7).

This coincided with perception of necessity to make Western welfare state governments more efficient, citizen responsive, and, above all, economical. Hence, the aim of central government reforms in Western countries was to make management of public sector more market-oriented, adopting private sector practices (De Montricher 1998: 109). These manifold reforms were conceptualized by Christopher Hood under the term New Public Management (NPM) (Hood 1991; Pollitt&Bouckaert 2011: 6). With change in public operations, public sector values had to correspond with this change as well. However, as De Montricher noted, “it is an open question ... whether the values inherent to the national public service were being maintained, were changing, or were disappearing under the onslaught of reform” (De Montricher 1998: 109).

In 1980-90s large public sector organizations were split into more specific-purpose ones, holding more managerial freedom. However, this emphasized necessity of greater coordination and raised a problem of political accountability. Thus, new values came to political agenda – transparency, strategy, and mainly, trust (Pollitt&Bouckaert 2011: 7). Framework of the New Public Management (NPM) encouraged boom of researches in administration ethics since mid-1970s. The consequent expenditure of work and literature in the sphere has confirmed the centrality of the topic within the field. Active changes in public administration reality caused alteration in ethical challenges (Pollitt&Bouckaert 2011: 10; Stensöta 2010: 295; Maesschalck 2004-5: 21).

One of the central topics concerning interaction between the new administration forms and ethics is relations of law and ethics, as implementation of NPM principles causes introduction of respective laws. Thus, ethics conception needed to be adapted to the new version of public service (Pollitt&Bouckaert 2011: 10).

The main point of NPM is introduction of privatization and marketization to the work of the public services organizations, as they are considered to be the sufficient mechanisms to ascertain quality in public service supply and delivery, as well as its efficacy and efficiency (Hood 1991: 4-5). To reach these goals, the public sector reforms were introduced to reduce the number of public administration staff, curtail the costs of government action, and alter organizational public values (De Montricher 1998: 109).

As far as ethical area is concerned, NPM gainsaid the notion of ethical neutrality of public administration, and as a consequence, the role of citizen participation and transparency has been heightened within administrative decision-making. Generally, quality of public service has become a central value in public administration (Pollitt&Bouckaert 2011: 9).

The idea following and developing NPM got the name of Reinventing Government (RG), and it is considered to be less radical, softer than NPM (Bilhim & Neves 2010: 3); the model mostly employed in the U.S. (Pollitt&Bouckaert 2011: 9). RG advocates that public administration has to accomplish its mission to satisfy the customers' needs on the one hand, while improving productivity on the other. To achieve these tasks hierarchical structures of public administration should be more dispersed and flexible, which promotes implementation of delegation mechanisms. In the ethical area, Public administration should still account for all the process and maintain control (ibid). Thus, such values as responsiveness and accountability come on the scene.

Paradigms of NPM and RG influenced modern public ethics, as the government became only one of the actors in governance. Hence, determination of boundaries between public and private became a complicated and ambiguous challenge, provoking "clash of value systems" that "provoke ethical dilemmas" (Maesschalck 2004-5: 28). As new

forms of delivery of public services developed, it became harder to supervise multiple autonomous agencies. As a consequence, in the “points of transaction” between private and public sectors increased propensity for corruption (Frederickson 1999: 301). This in its turn resulted in decrease of public trust in government. Thus, new relevant administrative values were introduced to public sector – accountability and transparency.

In the traditional bureaucratic model, if a citizen demands a service, the public administration can satisfy the demand or not, depending on whether it is possible according to the rigid associating to the law. Under the New Public Administration, citizen’s need should be fulfilled, even if it requires deviation from written rule (Bilhim & Neves 2010: 10). Moreover, public services are produced and delivered via complex networks, by diverse actors. These changes made ethics management more complicated than ever before. Thus, a need for new tools and combinative ethical approaches becomes evident (Stensöta 2010: 295; Brady 2003: 526; Maesschalck 2004-5: 21). The evolution of public administration values and ethical framework over time and contexts is summarized in Appendix 1.

Another widespread argument for necessity of implementation of new ethical guidance claims that majority of traditional research in the sphere of public ethics focuses on universal values and ideas, which are supposed to support meeting universal public duties. However, in reality public officials daily deal with nothing but various “publics” and diverse duties, and efforts to apply universals make administrating difficult. Brady (2003: 532) suggests focusing attention on the importance of particularity in ethics, which, he claims, is as vital as holistic voices, such as common goals, a sense of direction and procedural fairness. Moreover, too much of ethical universals can threaten trust of citizens in governance while neglecting of personal relationships may produce a society of alienated and indifferent people (ibid). In contrast, ethics of care is appealing to alternative ethical perspective, which is based “not on the primacy and universality of individual rights, but rather on a very strong sense of being responsible to the world” (Gilligan 1982: 32). In its turn public ethics of care provides bottom-top approach for

monitoring of citizens' expectations of governance, as it "listens to and takes into account what individuals (i.e., citizens) say and wish" (Lehtonen 2010: 31).

#### 2.4. The ethics of care: origins of the notion

The ethics of care can be defined as a normative ethical theory, a moral framework that judge action as "right or wrong depending on whether they exhibit a caring or uncaring attitude" (Lehtonen 2010: 33). The ethics of care emphasizes the importance of relationships, the empathy created within them and, particularly, "the interdependence between individuals, which leads to mutually beneficial outcomes" (Featherstone 2010: 73-74). It encourages the motivation to care for those who are dependent and vulnerable, and "promotes the well-being of care-givers and care-receivers in a network of social relations" (Sander-Staudt 2009). Thus, the ethics of care can be attributed to sentimentalist tradition of moral theory. In that sense, it is opposed to the ethics of justice that has rationalism in its basis (Lehtonen 2010: 33).

The idea of care ethics was developed by feminists in the second half of the twentieth century as a reaction on dominating masculine perspective on morality (Sander-Staudt 2009). Feminists claimed that all the traditional concepts of moral philosophy are man-oriented, as they evolved from typically men's fields of occupation, such as governing and trade. These activities require completing particular duties and following rules. The model of rules and obligations was laid into basis of the system of moral principles. The concepts of morality developed on this basis imply strict code of behavior, and regard actions as right or wrong depending on their accordance with the rules (ibid).

Since the second half of the twentieth century a new branch of moral philosophy has started to evolve. Its founders and developers were women philosophers who doubted that man-modeled morality is the only one right concept (Held 2006: 4). They claimed that it is traditionally woman's experience of raising children and nursing that should be taken as a model for moral reasoning, with emphasis on caring for others. They opposed empathy and benevolence to aloofness and mechanical performing of the duties. It is

important to stress that feminist ethics doesn't exclude men from caring process, but offers moral principles that imply sympathy for others as a key to determine moral responsibility. Noteworthy, that care ethics and feminist ethics are not synonymic. However, originally care ethics has been primarily considered as a feminine ethic, particularly in relation to political theory. As a political theory, the ethics of care considers questions of social justice, including the distribution of social benefits and burdens, legislation, governance, and claims of entitlement (Sander-Staudt 2009).

The emergence of care ethics is often attributed to the American ethicist and psychologist Carol Gilligan, who developed her moral theory in response to another one by psychologist Lawrence Kohlberg (Gilligan 1982: 18; Knox, Fagley & Miller 2004: 41; Stensöta 2010: 296;). Having specialized in research on moral education and reasoning, Kohlberg (1981) introduced a theory of cognitive moral development. This model proposed that people progress through 6 distinct sequential stages of moral reasoning, with later stages based on the concept of justice (Knox et al. 2004: 41). First stages - obedience, instrumental egoism and the interpersonal – focus on self-interest, while more advanced stages – law and duty, consensus building, and social cooperation – are more abstract and based on asserting rights and principles, involving no personal affinities (Donenberg & Hoffman 1988: 702; Rest et al. 1999: 294). Kohlberg (1981) claimed that higher stages of reasoning were superior to simpler, more conventional thinking.

This theory had an undoubtedly significant role in encouraging research in moral development, though Kohlbergian methodology became a subject of intense criticism. Namely, Carol Gilligan blamed Kohlberg's theory for being gender-biased, because "women systematically scored scantily, looking immature or primitive in their moral reasoning" (Gilligan 1982: 32). She stated that the schema displayed a particularly masculine perspective on morality, founded on justice and abstract duties or obligations. In her part, Gilligan (1982) conducted her own research in the same field. She held a row of interviews with girls and presented a description of a complementary ethics — the ethics of care. Gilligan's basic assumption was that individuals incline to view morality in different terms. While men tend to develop "justice" moral orientation,

women regularly progress along alternative reasoning path – “compassion and care”. Depending on the innate moral orientation, a person is likely to evince either orientation towards response to the needs of others, or focus on protection of individual rights and sustaining of rules (Gilligan&Attanucci 1988: 235).

Another outstanding American feminist and philosopher, who is regarded as one of the founders of the care ethics theory, is Nel Noddings. According to Noddings (1984), ethical caring occurs when a person acts caringly out of a belief that caring is the appropriate way of relating to people. In the caring relationship she identified two parties —“one-caring” and the “cared-for” (Noddings 1984: 4). Caring is seen as the ethical ideal, with focus on concrete needs of the care-receiver. Noddings characterized caring as an act of “engrossment” whereby the one-caring receives the cared-for on their own terms, resisting projection of the self onto the cared-for, and displacing selfish motives in order to act on the behalf of the cared-for (Noddings 1984: 6). Caring may require a willingness to make sacrifices (in wide sense) for the sake of others (ibid; Lehtonen 2010: 35).

By Noddings (1984: 4), “caring” is used to describe a certain kind of relation. Human relation, meaning human encounter and affective response, is taken as a basis of human existence. Caring relation is created by two mutually dependent actors – the one-caring and the cared-for. The one-caring demonstrates typically “maternal” characteristics and is associated with “the universal feminine” (ibid), while the cared-for is a representative of a masculine spirit. It is crucial to note that division on feminine and masculine is figurative, and does not imply that men cannot embrace feminine approach and vice versa. Ethics of care is feminine “in deep classical sense – rooted in receptivity, relatedness, and responsiveness” (Noddings 1984: 2).

The ethics of care is presented as distinct from dominant logical, mathematical, masculine model of moral reasoning. Noddings (1984: 2) states that masculine approach to morality is detached and constrained by principles and laws. Being moral from this position means to obey the accepted norms, and perceive as immoral deeds of those who behave in accordance with different norms.

In contrast, feminine model views morality from the position of moral attitude rather than moral reasoning. When making a moral decision, women pay attention on feelings and impression (ibid: 4).

Noddings (1984: 3, 90, 92) sees ethics of care as an important conceptual tool for ethical behavior, which guides an actor, rather than directs particular universal rules and principles. Generally, ethics of care rejects principles as a major guide to ethical behavior, as they can lead to devaluation of those who embrace different principles. Notion of universalizability is also repelled by the ethic of caring, as there cannot be identical human encounters to be treated universally. At the same time, caring attitude IS universally acceptable and forms “universal heart of the ethic” (Noddings 1984: 6).

Ethical caring originates in natural caring, which implies natural inclination of the one-caring to behave in caring manner. Each person, regardless the gender, has both masculine and feminine characteristics in self, and the aim of ethics is to encourage “a dialogue of genuine dialectical nature in order to achieve an ultimate transcendence of the masculine and feminine in moral matters” (ibid.).

According to Noddings (1984: 86), morality requires two feelings: sentiment of natural caring and another sentiment, which occurs in respond to a remembrance of the first. Natural caring is a result of initial feeling of sympathy. When internal impulse does not occur in respond to the need of other to be cared for, a person faces moral dilemma with “I must” on the one hand, and “I don’t want to” on the other (ibid: 88). The memories of feeling care and being cared for during the best moments in the past arise “vision of best self” (ibid: 5). These memories may become a moral guidance, and encourage to overcome conflicting desires to serve one’s own interests and respond to the plight of others. Thus, one’s own ethical ideal is created, relative to which all moral dilemmas might be solved.

Our impulse to act in behalf of the one who needs to be cared for is innate, which means that aspiration for caring relations is implicit in each of us. Moreover, this latent caring

within motivates us to incline toward morality (Noddings 1984: 83). Thus, the one-caring is following the natural inner impulse. However, (s)he may reject this impulse as well, if the desire to be moral is not strong enough. This may happen in the state of lack of internal balance or deliberate desire to decrease the ethical ideal (ibid).

Among other significant researchers of care ethics is – Virginia Held. Held (2006) considers care ethics to be an alternative to traditional moral theories, such as Kantian ethics and utilitarianism (2006: 3, 11). In contrast to these moral theories, Held argues that the ethics of care centers on personal relations and communal ties. She considers care ethics as a feminine model with a distinguished mother-figure, not in a biological sense, but a “mothering person”, who can be of either sex (ibid: 31). Held (2006) views “mother-child” relationships as a metaphor of an ideal type of philosophical principle, suggesting an alternative model of moral reasoning (ibid: 3). While acknowledging the feminist roots of care ethics, Held defends it as an independent moral framework, whose broader agenda is distinguished from the feminist agenda and also from virtue-ethics (ibid: 4). Held develops the notion of care ethics not only as a moral theory, but also demonstrates the relevance of practical implication of it to political, social and global questions (ibid: 107). She formulates her ideas as a criticism of moral philosophy which views moral problems solely as a conflict of rights between individuals. She criticizes the ethic of rights, which implies that “possession of rights is the primary factor transforming individuals into human “persons” (Sevenhuijsen 1998: 12). Personhood, in Held’s viewpoint, cannot be separated from the possibility to exercise right to, for instance, property (ibid). And as moral dilemmas are none other than conflicts of distinct right claims, ethics aims “to discover the highest principle, in order to determine which claim should take precedence” (ibid). Held regards ethics of care as a combination of values and practices, and defines a truly caring person as “one who has appropriate motivations to care for others and who participates adeptly in effective caring practices” (Sander-Staudt 2009).

Another developer of care-ethical morality is Juan Tronto, who contributed into investigation of the junction of care ethics and political science. She views the ethics of care not as a sentimental philosophical notion, but as a political one. According to

Tronto a feminist care ethic is a tool for counteraction “the accretion of power to the existing powerful, and to increase value for activities that legitimize shared power” (Sander-Staudt 2009). She “highlights the political dynamics of care relations which describe, for example, the tendency of women and other minorities to perform care work in ways that benefit the social elite” (ibid.).

Following Tronto, a number of care ethicists explored the implications of care ethics for a variety of political concepts. For instance, Selma Sevenhuijsen defines care as a style of moral reasoning “that involves listening and responding to others on their own terms.” (Sevenhuijsen 1998, 85). She criticizes the concept of motherhood for the risk of reproducing the mode of arguing in binary oppositions: “mother-figure”, concrete, caring, compassed versus the ideal of the atomistic “economic man”, abstract and bounded to rules (Sevenhuijsen 1998: 12). This binary opposition is associated with symbols, hierarchically placed concepts of femininity and masculinity. So it fails to open up innovative lines of thinking, and this philosophical problem results in a problem on the level of practical reasoning. Sevenhuijsen (1998: 15) suggests to accommodate both care and justice arguments, and apply principle of “judging with care”. In this regard, Sevenhuijsen’s arguments may be regarded as the most practicably applicable, among others, in the field of public administration.

### 3. PUBLIC ETHICS OF CARE

In the current chapter the sources, describing different factors influencing an individual's ability to use ethics of care as a tool in dealing with ethical problems, are presented. The aim is to consider the research question in a broad scope and analyze an intellectual history on the subject across disciplinary boundaries. Further, among these works, those describing moral orientation in public administration were singled out to narrow the scope of the research. On the later stage, the elaboration of determinant of education was chosen to evaluate its significance in application of ethics of care.

#### 3.1. Individual determinants of care ethics: history of empirical findings

The ability to care varies from one person to another (Lehtonen 2010: 39). The factors, which affect this ability, were studied a lot by different researchers. Gilligan's theory (1982) linked the ethics of care to women. Her research resulted in the whole body of subsequent investigations in this field, and the connection between gender and the ethics of care has been studied actively, but with arguable and unconvincing results (for example, Rest, Narvaez, Bebeau & Thoma 1999; Kuhse, Singer, Rickard & van Dyk 1997; Jaffee & Hyde, 2000; DeHart-Davis, Marlowe & Pandey 2006; Stensöta, 2010).

Generally, gender has been the most intensively studied determinant of the ethics of care. However, after Gilligan and Kohlberg, none of empirical research showed definite, unambiguous gender differences in ethical reasoning. For instance, such findings were made by Kuhse et al. (1997) and Schminke and Ambrose (1997), who conducted interviews with medical personnel and managers respectively. Kuhse et al. (1997) examined 300 doctors and nurses in different regions of Australia to test conjectural interdependence between variables of gender, professional position and care or justice approach to moral reasoning. The researchers hypothesized that female respondents would emphasize care, while male ones – justice; and that more qualified health care professionals would possess justice orientation, while junior medical staff would be more oriented to care (Kuhse et al. 1997: 228-229). The results disproved the

hypothesis, as no relations between variables under scrutiny were confirmed (Kuhse et al. 1997: 230-231). In its turn, the research by Schminke and Ambrose (1997) aimed to reveal differences in patterns of 175 male and female managers in solving ethical dilemmas in business and non-business contexts. In addition to evaluation of models of ethical decision-making per se, the researchers studied “whether women and men differ in their perceptions of the models used by own- and other-sex groups” (Schminke and Ambrose 1997: 720). The results showed wide range of employed ethical models both in and out business, with no evidences proving females to emphasize care. Schminke and Ambrose (1997) concluded that in fact men and women employed different models of dealing with ethical dilemmas, but without gender determination, as suggested by Gilligan (Schminke and Ambrose 1997: 726). Moreover, women proved to be more accurate predictors of models chosen by both sex groups (Schminke and Ambrose 1997: 727).

Other researches have revealed certain gender differences in moral reasoning, but in the other way than it has been stated by Gilligan. For instance, Donenberg and Hoffman (1988) interviewed seventy-one middle-class children and teenagers to test whether boys predominantly utilized Morality of Justice, while girls emphasized Morality of Care, as Gilligan proposed; whether younger children of both sexes inclined to care, while older boys stressed justice, as suggested Kohlberg (Donenberg & Hoffman 1988: 706). The results showed no support to Kohlberg’s scale, but at the same time younger subjects tended to be more care-oriented, while older ones emphasized morality of justice (ibid: 714). As far as Gilligan’s theory is concerned, Donenberg and Hoffman confirmed two separate modes of moral reasoning – care and justice. However, if girls showed significantly stronger orientation on care, boys utilized both morality of care and justice equally (ibid: 715). Thus, Gilligan’s attribution of care solely to females did not find evidence.

Sequential studies of the reasons of difference in people’s ability to care have revealed support for other determinants of the ethics of care. Research conducted by Stack in 1997 (cited in Stensöta 2010: 297), for instance, showed that ethics of care was strongly associated with race, not with gender. The suggested conclusion was that the ethics of

care includes an ethics of subordination. However, subsequent research by Knox, Fagley and Miller (2004) proved no connections between the ethics of care and race (Knox et al. 2004: 44). They have surveyed moral reasoning of 166 African American students with respect to their predominant orientation to care or justice. Knox et al. argued that, on the one hand, traditionally and culturally Afro-American community prized mutual dependency, support and care, but on the other, several decades of suffering from “societal and personal injustices” could turn their orientation towards defend of personal rights and promotion of justice (Knox et al. 2004: 42). This research did not find any evidence of difference in moral orientation between young men and women, but revealed predominance of focus on justice among all subjects. The researchers concluded that minorities generally tend to be justice-oriented due to difficult life conditions, when they have to assert their rights and search for just treatment (Knox et al. 2004: 44). Thus, choice of moral reasoning is not determined by gender or ethnicity, but rather by life situation.

The next assumed variable has been education. The study on this topic was launched by Forsthofer in 2002 (cited in Stensöta 2010: 297). He compared students of economics with students of social sciences, and concluded that the latter had a tendency to apply an ethics of care more often. However, the latest researches by Aldrich and Kage (2003) showed that age should be regarded as a more significant predictor of an ethics of care than education or gender. This study did not stress care-justice dichotomy, but rather focused on general differences in moral judgement of men and women per se. Aldrich and Kage (2003) came to the conclusion that gender is a minor variable behind ethical reasoning, but age of the subjects plays principal role; they proved that ethical motivation of subjects of both sexes tend to coincide as they age (Aldrich and Kage 2003: 35-36).

It is noteworthy that “studies on the determinants of an ethics of care in public administration specifically are much more limited” (Stensöta 2010: 297). The existing studies are rare, and their findings are often contradictory. For instance, the research by White (1999) tested influence of gender on moral development by presenting ethical dilemmas to nearly 300 public officials employed in a military-civilian public agency in

the United States. The chosen measurement tool was DIT, suggested by Rest et al. (1999). White (1999: 467) found that female employees scored significantly higher than men, and thus demonstrated strong inclination towards morality of justice.

In contrast, the study by DeHart-Davis et al. (2006) researched gender determinant behind ethical motivation of public employees within state-level health and human service agencies. Using as basis elaborated by Perry (1996) approach to measurement of motivation of public administration personnel, DeHart-Davis et al. (2006) put forward a hypothesis that in the context of public service women possessed different motivating factors than men; consistent with traditional attribution of rationality concept to masculinity and affective concept to femininity, their hypothesis was founded on the “historical relegation of women to the private sphere and their corresponding exclusion from public life” (DeHart-Davis et al. 2006: 875). The results of the study proved compassion to be a very important motive for female public officials; however, interest in policy-making was equally important (culturally male-attributed motive). Another traditionally attributed to men motive of commitment to public service did not show considerable gender differences (DeHart-Davis et al. 2006: 881-882).

To sum up, it may be claimed that determinants behind the ethics of care in generally, and within public administration particularly, are far from being properly conceptualized and explained. The studies on the matter are controversial and unsystematic. Thus, this sphere requires further exploration and represents a scope for exertion for researchers.

Variety of empirically investigated determinants behind moral reasoning and ethical orientation, as well as fluctuating degree of their significance across the researches, is vividly presented in Table 1.

**Table 1.** Previous research on determinants behind ethical orientation

Researcher	Main statement	Significance of the determinant
Individual determinant tested: <b>Gender</b>		
Kohlberg 1981	Men progress through sequential stages of moral reasoning, with later stages based on the concept of justice, while women stop in their moral development on simple stages of conventional thinking.	High significance
Gilligan 1982	Men and women treat moral dilemmas differently, either applying ethics of care or ethics of justice. Women are exclusively able to practice care, because of their specific identity formation as caregiver.	High significance
Donenberg&Hoffman 1988	Males and females employees both Morality of justice and Morality of Care. While girls utilize care much more than justice, boys utilize care and justice equally.	Relative significance
Kuhse et al. 1997	Examination of health care professionals showed no interdependence between variables of gender, professional position and care or justice moral reasoning.	Low significance
Schminke&Ambrose, 1997	Men and women employ different models of dealing with ethical dilemmas, but no evidences proving females to emphasize care were found.	Relative significance
Rest et al. 1999	Justice and care orientations are not contradictory, but complementary, and are developed simultaneously. Degree, to which a person practices them both, depends on his or her innate worldview.	Low significance
White 1999	Within public administrative context women demonstrated stronger inclination towards morality of justice than men	High significance

DeHart-Davis et al. 2006	The study of motivation of public administration personnel showed no definite evidences of gender differences	Relative significance
<b>Individual determinant tested: Race</b>		
Stack 1997	Conceptualized the ethics of care as an ethics of subordination	High significance
Knox et al. 2004	Choice of moral reasoning is not determined by gender or ethnicity, but rather by life situation	Low significance
<b>Individual determinant tested: Education</b>		
Forsthofer 2002	Specialization of education plays somewhat important role in inclination towards either care or justice moral reasoning.	Considerable significance
<b>Individual determinant tested: Age</b>		
Aldrich&Kage 2003	Differences in moral judgement of men and women lessen gradually as they age	High significance

### 3.1.1. Approaches to assessment of moral reasoning

The theory of moral development assessment founded by Lawrence Kohlberg has been described in Chapter 2 of the study. It has also been noted that his work provoked a heated debate and encouraged research in the sphere of moral development, among others, in public administration. Majority of the following investigations conducted has contested the original theory. Such example of objective critics on Kohlbergian theory is a list of its limitations by James Rest, presented below:

- By focusing on moral judgment (or deciding), Kohlberg presented a very limited view of moral behavior.
- By focusing on abstract global stages of moral development, Kohlberg ignored the role of intermediate concepts (such as conflict of interest or confidentiality) that are commonly used in ethical decision making.
- Kohlberg found very few examples of stage 5 or 6 moral reasoning.

- Kohlberg focused on justice or macro morality (the formal structures of society) at the expense of caring or micro morality—face-to-face interactions (Rest et al. 1999: 15).
- Kohlberg's emphasis of abstract top-down foundational principles favors certain ethical approaches (like Kant and Rawls) at the expense of other acceptable ethical positions.
- The hard-staircase development approach (one can be in one and only one stage) is no longer accepted in psychology.
- The Moral Judgment Interview overemphasizes verbal skills by requiring the subject to produce verbal responses.

Source: Swisher et al. 2005: 72

In 1993 Rest and his associates introduced an alternative model of moral development assessment, the Defining Issues Test (DIT) (Rest et al. 1999: 294). This neo-Kohlbergian perspective revised the original Kohlberg's theoretical framework and filled several major omissions in it. Particularly, their model focused on providing different criteria for ethical decisions, which serves as guidance for action in dealing with ethical dilemma. Precisely, instead of single focus of moral reasoning on "justice", Rest suggests 3 different moral judgment schemas, based on personal interest and welfare; maintaining norms and obeying rules; and on postconventional moral ideals and principles (Rest et al. 1999: 304). According to neo-Kohlbergian approach, people use "maintaining-norms" and "postconventional" reasoning simultaneously, but to different extend, which is determined by their personal moral worldview. In other words, Rest approaches "care" versus "justice" debate by suggesting postconventional moral reasoning that includes "common morality" (Swisher et al. 2005: 76).

Rest's DIT model has played an important role in assessment of moral development in Public Administration, as it has laid the foundation for elaboration of special moral evaluation system in this sphere. This system is named after its creators, Stewart – Sprinthall Management Survey (SSMS), and evaluates cognitive development of public administrators using administrative dilemmas emphasizing national or problem specific context (Stewart et al. 2000: 78).

### 3.1.2. Practical implication of public ethics of care

A research, conducted by Helena Olofsdotter Stensöta, an assistant professor and lecturer on public policy and administration at Linné University in Sweden, has inspired the current study; this is why it is worth being described in more details. In her research Stensöta (2010) deals with, public administration, gender, and ethics of care in comparative perspective. In the article, published in 2010, she claims that there is an urgently appeared necessity to provide new managerial values for public employees due to changes in administrative patterns (Stensöta 2010: 295). Hence, the need to focus on public ethics emerged, which, in its turn, led to active debates on how the character of such a public ethics should best be described. Stensöta states that “there seems to be a need for a characterization of public ethics that is sensitive to the contemporary tasks of welfare administration and puts the citizen in focus” (2010: 296). In this research, Stensöta presents a measurement for differentiating between a public ethics of care and a public ethics of justice in administration. She examines such indexes as gender, age, number of years in office, and education level as determinants behind a public ethics of care (ibid: 299-300). Following the original ideas of Tronto, Stensöta suggests the political and administrative concept of care as a tool for assessment inequalities in society (based on class, gender, and ethnicity) and evaluation of changes in welfare state.

With basis on Gilligan’s and Tronto’s definitions of care as inextricably linked with mutuality and responsiveness, Stensöta developed a measurement for a public ethics of care as well as for a public ethics of justice. Her research studies “how public employees relate to clients versus rules” (ibid: 298). Within the research, apart from general measurement of the two ethics, main individual determinants of the ethical dimensions were assessed by the means of large-N analysis to examine professional behavior of frontline specialists in the Swedish Social Insurance Administration (SSIA). The research aimed to explore whether the public employees within the Social Insurance Agency exhibit a public ethics of care convictions and a public ethics of justice convictions. In fact, the SSIA can generally be described as not entirely rule

bound, but as providing many opportunities for policy making. This makes SSIA a vivid example of governmental agency within modern welfare state system (ibid).

According to the research's findings, public employees within social insurance context exhibit convictions of ethics of care and ethics of justice simultaneously, and apply them complementary during handling their clients' cases. At the same time, the research showed that age and years in the office are two corresponding and the most significant variables, explaining application of ethics of care (ibid: 298-301).

#### **4. METHODOLOGICAL FRAMEWORK**

This chapter describes methodological framework of the study. Research strategy and tactics, data collection and analysis techniques are presented. Also the chapter highlights strategy of gaining access to the research subjects and ethical concepts. Background information on respondents is also presented. Finally, matters of validity, credibility and relativity of the research findings are considered in the current chapter as well.

##### **4.1. Research strategy overview**

The aim of empirical research of the current study is to determine possible correlation between special training and eagerness to apply principles of public ethics of care. Simultaneously, the research aims to investigate students' opinion on the importance of public care in the value system of modern welfare state.

As previous researches show, age of the respondents, correlating with the number of years in the office, is the most influential individual determinant of public ethics of care (Aldrich&Kage 2003, Stensöta 2010). To put it differently, it has been proved that understanding of expediency to apply ethics of care in practice comes naturally only after years of work in the field. It sounds logical to assume that deliberate teaching of public ethics of care may help young professionals to get this understanding at the very beginning of their career. Consequently, they might be more successful in fulfilling their duties, which would be mutually beneficial both for them and welfare state citizens. Thus, the following survey has research objectives to ascertain whether:

1. young public administration professionals consider care as a vital value of the modern welfare state;
2. ability to use principles of public ethics of care can be trained or not.

From methodological viewpoint, the research aims to test specific interdependency between variables, and as such, implies to be of descripto-explanatory nature (Robson

2011: 59). This comprehensive approach to the research process enables to accomplish two investigative tasks: to present a distinct picture of the examined phenomena through an extensive description; and to present an exhaustive explanation of the reasons underlying causal relationships between particular variables (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill 2009: 140). The obtained data are further analyzed by means of statistical tests in order to get a clearer understanding of the situation and draw consistent conclusions.

The current research adopted a survey strategy. Being one of the common research strategies, survey is considered to be of a great use for this work. The choice is justified by its specific characteristics, which make it particularly handy for answering the current research questions. First of all, survey allows collecting big amount of data from the considerable research population in a relatively saving fashion in terms of time and money resources. Also, survey enables easier collation of the data, because they are initially standardized, which, in its turn, results in more clear and accurate findings. (Saunders et al. 2009: 144)

The research utilized a quantitative data collection technique of questionnaire. This technique implies launching structured inquiry about a phenomenon, using specific questions in a determined order, aiming to reveal some trend (Robson 2011: 391). According to Saunders et al. (2009: 144), the main challenges in making an efficient questionnaire are to assure a sufficient response rate and to guarantee representativeness of the research sample. Several measures were undertaken to achieve questionnaire efficiency, such as piloting, using a respondent-friendly data gathering tool with engaging design, and employment of response-motivating methods. They will be described in details later in this chapter.

#### 4.2. Data collection tool description

The respondents will be questioned by the mean of online survey and questionnaire service SurveyMonkey™. This customizable tool for data collection and analysis is

chosen because of its specific characteristics and a number of advantages, both for the researcher and recipients of the questionnaire.

As far as researcher's benefits are concerned, first of all, the online service enables to question respondents, who are geographically dispersed, which is very relevant for the case. Secondly, this service helps to raise reliability of responses: it gives opportunity to reach a particular person as respondent, because the Internet-mediated questionnaire is linked to a personal email address. Also, this service contributes to higher response rate by providing possibility to create clear, nice-looking and "youth-friendly" layout. Then, the online survey tool enables to embrace the sufficient number of respondents to produce valid data analysis in reasonable timing. It also makes data collection and further analysis easier, as the responses input is automated. Moreover, SurveyMonkey™ in particular, gives opportunity to track the flow of the survey, indicate trends in response timing and activity. Finally, the online survey service makes relatively large research affordable, as pricing policy is fairly reasonable in comparison with, for instance, postal questionnaires.

As for the respondents, online survey service facilitates participation, as it gives opportunity to fill in the questionnaire in the most convenient time and place. Participants are free of time pressure, as they do not feel wait of an interviewer, as it could be, even if subconsciously, during personal or telephone interview. They also feel safer in terms of their anonymity, as it is ensured by internationally recognized privacy policy of the third party - SurveyMonkey™, which may be easily checked on its official website.

Speaking about potential drawbacks of an Internet-mediated questionnaire, it is important to mention relatively low likely response rate: from 30% to 11% or lower; especially in comparison with telephone questionnaires or structured interviews, where response rate amounts to 50-70% (Saunders et al. 2009: 364). However, this may be compensated by bigger relative number of recipients for the same period of time, or, as in the case of current research, by including in the recipient list only those people, who have expressed their interest in participation. Another possible weakness of the online

questionnaire is possibility of respondents to discuss the questions and answers with each other, and thus, to distort their responses. Still, the fact that each respondent receives hyperlink to the questionnaire on personal email address is expected to render this threat as small as possible (ibid).

#### 4.3. Research subjects overview

Students with major in Public Administration, studying at different branches of the Russian Presidential Academy of National Economy and Public Administration under the President of the Russian Federation (RANEPA) (RANEPA Charter 2012), will be examined to identify and describe possible relationships between abovementioned variables, and thereby, answer current research questions.

After a great merger of 12 civil service academies in 2010, RANEPA became the biggest humanities and socioeconomic university in Russia and Europe, with 61 branch locations around the country (ibid). The academy prepares administrative staff for the state, public and private sectors. As the leading higher education establishment in the field of Public Administration in Russia, RANEPA is considered to be an adequate platform for the current research, as it may provide the research sample of high representativeness.

Respondents are bachelor and master students of the 3<sup>rd</sup> to 6<sup>th</sup> year of study in 6 institutes within RANEPA, who are fairly academically prepared and already have basic conception of their future career. At the same time, knowledge of Public Ethics of Care varies among the respondents. Some of them have completed the respective course or general course of Ethics of Public Administration, while other students have not studied the discipline at the moment of participation in the survey. This makes the research cross-sectional, as the gathered data present the situation in particular moment over time horizon (Saunders et al. 2009: 155).

The permit to launch the research was granted by 3 institutes within RANEPА, namely, Institutes of Management in St. Petersburg, Nizhny Novgorod, and Orel. The total number of student, who meets the conditions of the research, is about 4000 (RANEPАa; RANEPАb; RANEPАc).

#### 4.4. Questionnaire overview

The whole inquiry list is presented in the Appendix 1. It has a form of a structured questionnaire, consisting of an introductory message, 17 closed questions that are logically sub-grouped, and an open field for comments. Each subgroup of questions has a short title to orientate the respondents and guidance for answering technique.

The opening message describes briefly the questionnaire itself, pointing out its aims, content, structure, and timing. However, one of its main targets is to ascertain the respondent of total anonymity and voluntariness of participation. Also, the message contains contacts of the researcher.

The questions are divided into two main groups: indicator and special questions. The former group consists of warm-up questions; they are intended to ascertain statistical characteristics of a respondent, such as age, year of study, name of the educational establishment one is studying at, and level of knowledge of public administration ethics. In these questions, the answer fields employ either multiple choice alternatives or drop-down lists of possible answers, which ease the task for respondents, and simultaneously help to avoid non-standard answers (Saunders et al. 2009: 375). In respect of the content, these questions are not demanding and not too personal, and quite abstract to threaten the respondent's anonymity (Saunders et al. 2009: 384). As of the research, these questions have very high importance for assessing results on the later stages.

The group of special questions is intended to figure out opinions and feelings of the respondents about core issues of the survey. 17 questions are divided into four subgroups on the basis of topic they devote to. All the questions offer a list of multiple

choice answers or employ Likert-scale of alternatives (Saunders et al. 2009: 378). Small number of question should eliminate respondents' fatigue and, consequently, random answering. The sequence of the questions is planned to minimize the chances of individual questions being misunderstood. They follow from easier to more complicated ones, demanding more considerations.

The first sub-group of special questions is intended to define students' point of view on the role of care in welfare state. The participants are asked to voice degree of their (dis)agreement with three statements concerning care as a vital part of modern welfare state values (Q1); necessity of empathy and developing relationships between individuals (Q2); and existence of interconnection between ethical behavior and caring attitude to a client (Q3).

The following three sub-groups of questions are based on Gilligan's and Sevenhuijsen's interpretations of principles of the ethics of care, namely identification with another person, responsiveness, and reciprocity. In fact, the second sub-group of questions inquires about ethically proper attitude to clients and their opinion (from the point of view of the public ethics of care). The statements concern clients' honesty and good intentions when addressing public services (Qs 4 & 5). Understanding of necessity to receive objective feedback on quality of public services, and strive to give an adequate response, is correspondent with principles of care ethics (Q6).

The third sub-group of questions is related to manner of handling public service cases. As was shown in previous chapters, a care-oriented public servant is supposed to prefer oral, personal communication over written and impersonal (Q8); and be flexible in handling cases. What is at issue here is that Stensöta refers to "relating to clients versus rules" (Stensöta 2010: 298) or making exceptions to the rules when particular situation or personal circumstances of a client calls for it (Qs 6, 7 & 9).

The final sub-group of questions consists of statements and a simulate case related to personal involvement and caring attitude to clients. The respondents are asked to express their opinion on such principles of care ethics as establishing interpersonal

relationships with clients (Q10); involvement into their cases (Q11); and ability to practice empathy and put oneself into a client's place (Q12) (Lehtonen 2010: 34-35).

#### 4.5. Data gathering procedure

During a period of two weeks in December 2015, an introductory video appeal (see record in Appendix 2) was presented to about 3200 of the potential respondents during the lectures at the three abovementioned institutes. Its main objectives were to draw attention to the survey, arouse primer interest in participation, and prompt some degree of credit to the research through the personal appeal of the researcher. The two-minute video introduced the researcher and gave description of the research, pointing its solely scientific aims, and called for voluntary participation. Total anonymity and absence of influence on the grades were emphasized. Also, contact information of the researcher was presented to give the students an opportunity to ask for more information and expect to receive personal response.

After showing the video appeal, email addresses of concerned with participation students were collected. Thereby, a list of 1096 contacts was composed. On the following stage, in order to verify validity of the email addresses, introductory letters were sent to each address in the list in mid-January 2016. The recipients were asked to follow an enclosed link to prove their informed consent and show desire to take part in the research. As a result, 571 students confirmed their willingness to participate in the survey, which was fixed on March 2016.

March is a relatively calm study period for Russian students; it is the middle of the semester, when students are not engaged with urgent assignments or exam preparation, because examination session is in June; thus, the students could pay their attention to the survey. For this reason, March was chosen as a proper time for gathering research data. The survey is planned to be conducted in three rounds, with a follow-up reminder sent in ten days after the first announcement, and a final call in five days later respectively.

#### 4.6. Piloting and cognitive testing of the questionnaire

Pilot testing is a vital part of producing successful and qualitative questionnaire; it enables the whole survey to meet its purposes and helps to reveal possible pitfalls and weaknesses, not obvious on the stage of designing. Piloting checks the run of the survey process, its length, clarity of wording, peculiarities of questionnaire administration and participation; it also shows whether lay-out is engaging, easy to operate, and encouraging participation. In other words, pilot testing may expose existence of drawbacks that trouble gathering research data (Granello & Wheato 2004: 392; Collins 2003: 231).

The sample chosen for pilot testing should be representative of the whole research population, meaning have similar attributes and characteristics, so that the results could be generalized (Saunders et al. 2009: 394). Moreover, to get sufficient feedback, the researcher should be present, while the piloting is taking place (Granello & Wheato 2004: 392). For these reasons, 32 students of the Institute of Management in St. Petersburg from among those wishing to participate were selected as members of pilot group for the survey. They are Master's or Bachelor's programs students of different study years, aged 20-23, majoring in Public Administration. Within several days in January and February they were invited in groups of 10-12 persons to fill in the questionnaire online and give their comments on-site. By means of piloting, the information about average time needed to complete the questionnaire, unclear wording of questions, and some other useful comments were received from the group members. This also showed in practice how the Web-based data collection instrument works, as well as the way it presents gathered answers and interim results.

However, general method of pilot testing has its limitation, and use of piloting alone cannot ensure accurate assessment of the questions. As a matter of fact, it cannot test whether respondents can understand the questions of the survey in a consistent way, or if everyone is able to interpret them exactly in the way it was meant by the researcher. The most significant task of the researcher is to test the questionnaire "for misunderstandings, incomplete concept coverage, inconsistent interpretations,

satisficing, and context effects” (Collins 2003: 231). To accomplish this task, the current research employs complementary cognitive testing of the survey that empowers to reveal which questions cause troubles and why. These techniques are rooted in social and cognitive psychology, and as such, they help the researcher to investigate the process of answering the questions, and define what affects respondents’ way of thinking in the context of the survey. Thus, cognitive pre-testing aims to elucidate questionnaire covert problems (ibid: 235).

Among diverse pre-testing methods, cognitive interviewing suites the current survey in the most sufficient way. This qualitative method implies verbal interactions between the interviewer and a respondent to enquire into completing questionnaire (ibid). Cognitive interviewing employs two techniques, which may be used separately or be mutually complementary: probing and think-aloud interviewing (ibid). The current research benefited from both techniques. The former implies respondents answering specific questions about their understanding of general concepts used in the questionnaire, their attitude to particular questions or topics, or what caused their hesitations while answering and why. According to the latter technique, a respondent is asked to literarily pronounce his or her thoughts out loud while answering the questions, so that the problems with going about the questionnaire become vivid. These cognitive techniques, used together with general pilot testing, may provide significant information about insufficiency of instructions, common misunderstanding of some questions, or incomplete concepts coverage, and show what causes them (Collins 2003: 229-230). The feedback gained through piloting and cognitive interviews contributed into more suitable and reliable edition of the current questionnaire.

#### 4.7. Reliability and validity of research findings

Assuring general credibility of research findings is the primary task of a researcher. Improvement of credibility implies minimization of possibility to receive unreliable data by every possible means. To achieve credible findings, special focus should be made on reliability and validity Robson (2011: 100). The former concept implies consistency of

findings over time and different occasions, as well as with different observers; also reliability is assessed in terms of transparency of the whole research process, starting from data collection and analysis, and finishing with drawing conclusions. The latter concept refers to whether the findings show exactly what they are intended to show. (Saunders et al 2009: 600; Robson 2011: 100-101) According to Robson (2011: 101-102), there are several potential measurement errors, which may affect credibility of the research findings; the current research aims to avoid those threads.

*Participant error* implies possibility of getting data wrong due to some external circumstances, which may influence answers of respondents, such as inconvenient time or place of participation. To avoid this error, the questionnaire is held in a period of study year when students are not engaged with preparation to exams or completing major assignments. The Internet-based method of questionnaire delivery implies possibility to participate in a convenient and calm setting. As the questionnaire is self-operated, the respondents may fill it in the time of the day when they are mostly disposed to do it and feel that conditions are right.

*Participant bias* may threaten reliability of the data as well, especially if students feel insecure towards influence of their answers to the study marks. They may want to give “right” answers, or those they assume to be more desirable by the teacher. This threat is considered to be one of the most dangerous in the context of specific cultural environment typical to Russian educational system, where role of a teacher tends to be somewhat authoritarian. The design of the current research is worked out to raise level of participants’ security by insuring their anonymity through independent Privacy Policy of the third party, SurveyMonkey™, which conditions may be easily checked by the students. The introductory message to the questionnaire contains direct link to description of actual privacy policy and information about purely scientific purpose of the survey.

There is threat to get the data wrong, if they are gathered in inconsistent or not unified way. This may be called an *Observer error*. Neutral wording of the questionnaire enables to avoid directing participants onto any answers. The Web-based data collection

instrument, chosen for the survey, ensures unbiased and uniform approach to every respondent in terms of questions wording and order, layout and design, providing equal context for participation.

Finally, inconsistency in data interpretation may threaten reliability of findings, which may be referred to *Observer bias*. The current questionnaire consists of several closed questions with multiple choice answers. Owing to this, level of standardization of the replies is very high, which leads to more accurate interpretation. Besides, SurveyMonkey™ is equipped with automatic answers processing tool that minimizes threat to miscalculate final data.

As far as validity concept is concerned, to be valid a research should present findings that, on the one hand, show exactly what is declared, and are generalizable on other research settings, on the other (Saunders et al 2009: 603; Robson 2011: 105-106). The current research develops existing studies in the field of public ethics of care and factors influencing use of its principles in practice. This enables to avoid false assumptions about the direction of causal interdependence between personal variables while designing the research and making conclusions afterwards. With respect to generalizability of the research, it is noteworthy that the research population obtains several particular characteristics (such as age, being a student of Public Administration program, and level of specific knowledge), which are principle, but not exceptional. Thus, the results of the current research may be generalized on settings, where the population possesses similar characteristics.

## 5. EMPIRICAL FINDINGS

The following chapter is dedicated to results of the survey and their analysis. Firstly, general description of response activity is presented, and exploratory analysis of respondents' demographical and educational characteristics is made. Then, the students' opinions and attitudes concerning core topics of the survey are described and analyzed. Finally, interdependence between inclination towards public ethics of care and two variables (level of knowledge and gender) is investigated.

### 5.1. Exploratory analysis of the respondents' characteristics

Method of exploratory data analysis is utilized for initial exploration and description of the empirical data, collected via self-administered online survey. This method facilitates better understanding of the data characteristics through visualization of the results with assistance of diagrams and tables. It also allows finding possible unexpected relationships between data, which could not be predicted on the designing stage (Saunders et al. 2009: 428).

Within 20 days of the survey 113 filled forms were received. However, not all of the responses were valid for further analysis, because 6 of the respondents did not meet the requirements of the survey. Specifically, their year of study was either first or second, which did not come within declared conditions. Thus, only 107 responses could be subjects of examination.

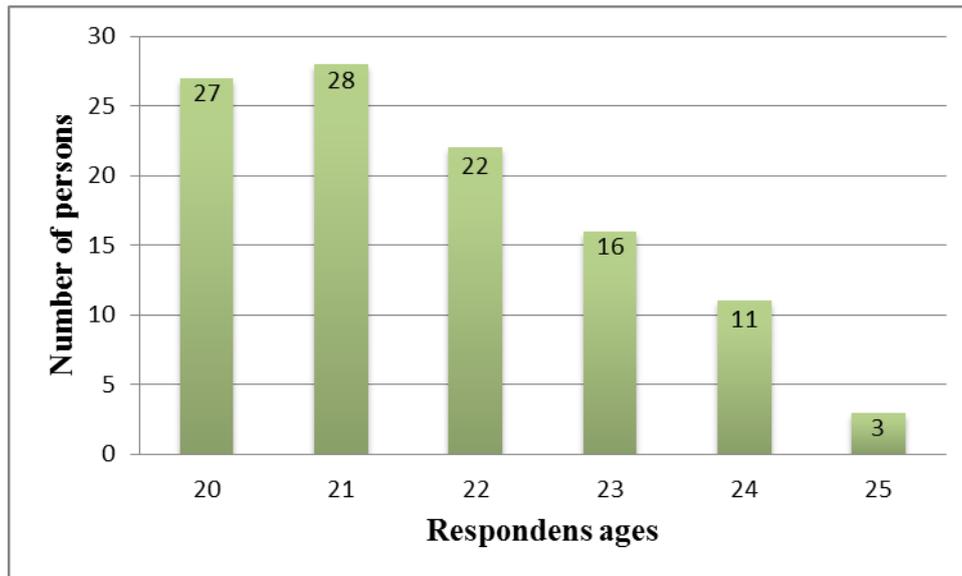
As was mentioned in previous chapter, a list of 571 email addresses of students willing to participate was made. Out of this number, 32 students were excluded from the general list, as they became members of the pilot testing group. Thus, total number of email addresses, on which the link for the questionnaire was sent, amounted to 539. Considering this, total response rate can be calculated using the formula:

$$\text{Total response rate} = \frac{\text{total number of responses}}{\text{total number in sample} - \text{ineligible}}$$

Source: Saunders et al. 2009: 220

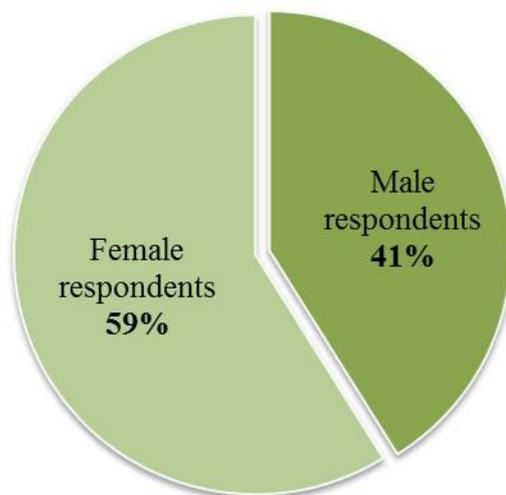
Thereby, total response rate makes up 21.2%. This level of response activity may be regarded as average for a survey employing Internet-mediated questionnaire as a data gathering tool (Saunders et al. 2009: 364).

As far as demographical characteristics of the respondents are concerned, it is important to describe respondents' age and gender distribution, as well as make a differentiation between participating institutes with regard to response activity. To begin with, students of age range between 20 and 25 years old took part in the survey. In fact, younger people of 20-22 years showed higher interest in participation than older ones, and comprised about 72% of respondents. Partly, this may be explained by initially higher percentage of younger students within the whole research population. Moreover, students of 23 years old and older are more likely to have part-time job in addition to their studies; thus, they might have less time for participation in the survey. As a matter of fact, with respect to the research objectives of the current thesis, age of the participants does not play as important role as their knowledge of public ethics in general, and awareness of principles of public care ethics in particular, do. Nonetheless, age distribution is a significant demographical characteristic of the research sample, and it is vividly presented in the Figure 2.



**Figure 2.** Age distribution of the research sample

As was discussed in previous chapters, gender has been considered as one of the most controversial personal variable of care ethics. The current research investigates gender as an additional variable, which can possibly be interconnected with ability to apply care within public administration. For this reason, gender distribution is regarded as a vital characteristic of the research sample. In fact, women composed majority of the respondents; their part of the sample amounted to 59% in comparison with 41% of males (see Figure 3), which is 63 to 44 persons respectively. Generally, in the institutes under investigation the students of Public Administration are predominantly female, composing from 55% to 90% in different study streams. Moreover, the proportion of female students increases in graduating groups. Thereby, the research sample may be described as dominated by women, with only one third of male representatives.



**Figure 3.** Gender distribution of the research sample.

Taking into account significant difference in proportions of male and female respondents in the sample, further data analysis may benefit from weighting the cases using the formula:

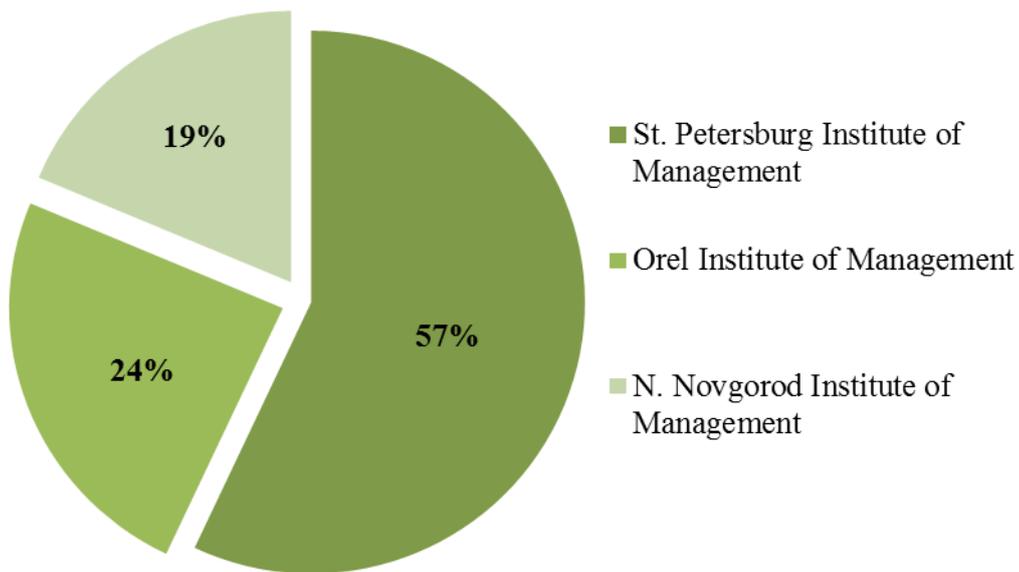
$$\text{Weight} = \frac{\text{highest proportion of population responding for a stratum}}{\text{proportion of population responding in stratum for which calculating weight}}$$

Source: Saunders et al. 2009: 428

Having calculated the weight for both female and male cases, respective weights of 1 and 1.44 were obtained.

Students of all three institutes constituted unequal parts of the sample. Saint Petersburg Institute of Management was initially the biggest educational establishment under investigation, with about 2500 students meeting the requirements of the survey. Logically, proportion of its students in the sample is bigger than that of other two, composing about 57% with 61 responses. Orel Institute of Management was next in size of students' population, with about 1000 of potential respondents. As a result, students from this institute made up second in terms of volume part of the sample: 24.3% with 26 responses. Finally, students of Nizhni Novgorod Institute of Management provided

the smallest part of responses. Namely, 20 filled forms were received from representatives of this institute, which composed 18.7% of the sample (Figure 4). Noteworthy, belonging of respondents to one of three institutes does not play any role in further analysis, as all the responses are of equal value.



**Figure 4.** Distribution of respondents over institutes

Next personal variable considered in the survey is year of study, which is closely related to the level of knowledge of public ethics of care. It is important to note that in Russian universities students' timetable and range of study courses is not flexible, meaning all compulsory disciplines are taught to all students at particular year of studies. To put it differently, if, in accordance with an overall university study plan, students learn course of public administration ethics during their fifth year of study, there is no possibility that, for instance, a fourth year student has knowledge of this discipline.

As the results of the questionnaire show, there is significant difference between the three institutions with regard to place of Public Administration Ethics course in

compulsory study plan. For instance, in St. Petersburg Institute of Management the respective course is obviously taught for graduates of Bachelor's programs, that is fourth year of study. However, the same discipline is professed only for Master's programs students in both Orel and Nizhni Novgorod institutes. In addition, majority of the respondents are Bachelor students, they constitute around 64.4% as against 35.6% of Master's (Table 2). For these reasons, proportion of the students, who were not familiar with public ethics by the moment of gathering answers is rather high in the sample – 49% (Figure 5).

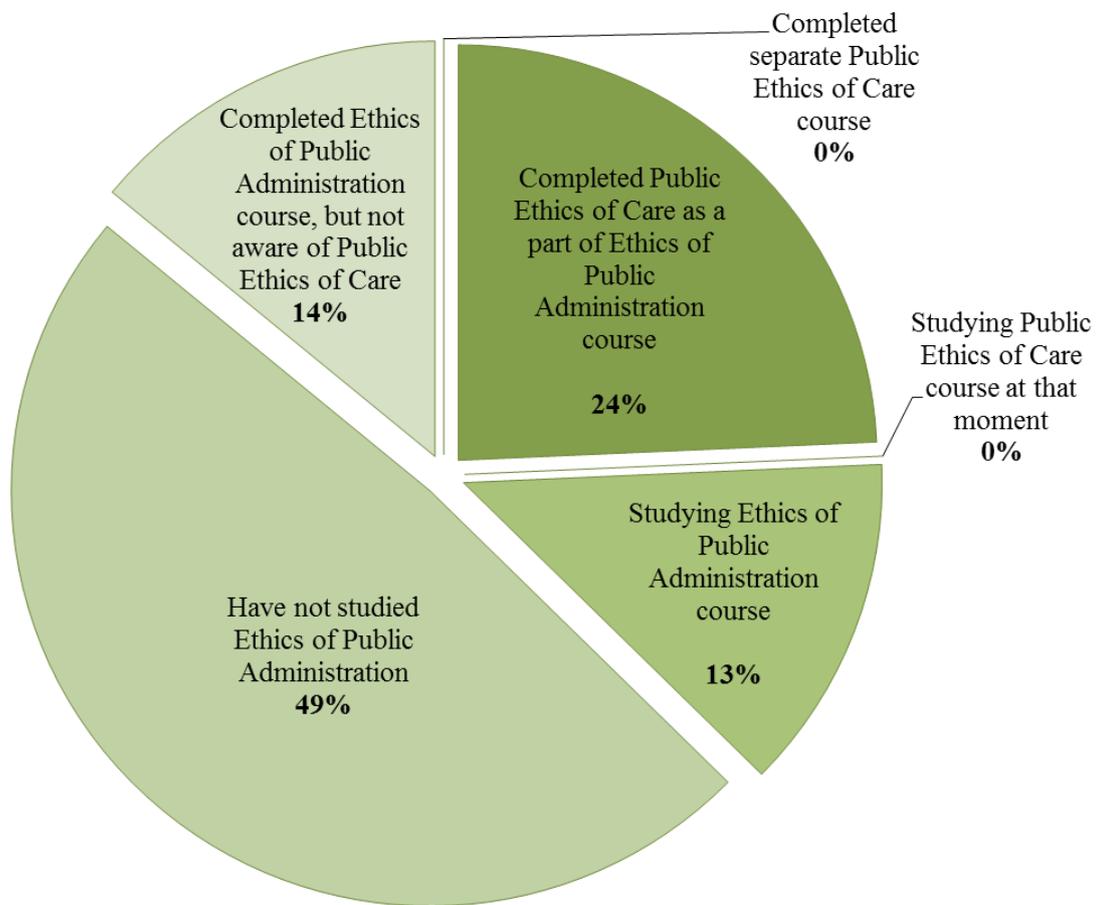
**Table 2.** Study year distribution of the participants

	Bachelor students		Master students	
Year of study	3rd	4th	5th	6th
Persons	37	32	19	19
% of total	34,5%	29,9%	17,8%	17,8%
Total	107			

Moreover, apparently, separate course of public ethics of care is not taught in any of the institutes considered. This conclusion is based on the fact that none of the respondents has chosen answers “I have completed a separate Public Ethics of Care course” or “I am studying Public Ethics of Care course at the moment” in the question inquiring about their awareness of public administration ethics in general, and particularly of public care ethics (Figure 5).

As a matter of fact, the course of the public administration ethics is taught in all three institutes under investigation, however, the content of the course differs. To be precise, 14% of the respondents have completed the abovementioned discipline, but are not aware of public ethics of care. At the same time, 24% of the respondents confirmed that they have studied public care ethics as a constituent part of general public administration ethics. As overview of the answer forms proved, the latter respondents are all students of St. Petersburg Institute of Management.

Remaining 13% of the respondents were studying public administration ethics course at the moment of completing the questionnaire. Thus, they have gained some basics of the discipline, however, their knowledge of principles of public care ethics is in doubt. This part of the sample is composed by the students of all three institutes and of various study years.



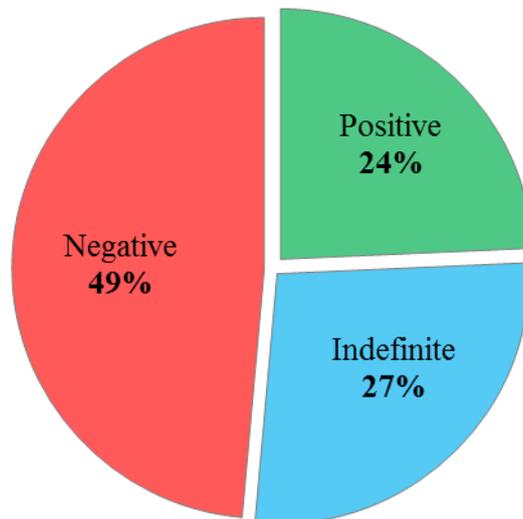
**Figure 5.** Respondents' knowledge of Public Administration Ethics by the moment of answering questionnaire

As of the research objectives of the current study, awareness of respondents of public care ethics plays vital role. Proceeding from students' answers, the sample may be

divided into three categories with regard to their knowledge of public care ethics in order to facilitate future analysis and comparison (Figure 6). Students without any knowledge of general public ethics may be attributed to “negative” sub-group, as they reliably are not familiar with respective topics. As was discussed above, this sub-group composes majority of the sample, making up 49%.

Those respondents, who have chosen answer “I have studied Public Ethics of Care as a part of Ethics of Public Administration course” may be ascribed to “positive” sub-group, because they confirmed their knowledge of public care ethics. This sub-group composes about one quarter of the whole sample (Figure 6).

The rest of the respondents have answered that they were either studying ethics of public administration course at the moment of filling questionnaire or have completed this discipline some time ago, but could not recall anything about public ethics of care. As long as level of their knowledge of public care ethics can be identified as neither certainly absent nor somewhat present, these students can be united in one sub-group, conventionally titled “indefinite” (Figure 6).



**Figure 6.** Respondents' awareness of principles of public care ethics

To sum up, after investigation of the demographical and educational characteristics of the respondents, the research sample can be described as predominantly composed of female and bachelor students. Their knowledge of public administration ethics in general and public care ethics varies, however, majority of the sample have not studied respective disciplines by the moment of answering the questionnaire. Noteworthy, all the respondents, who confirmed their awareness of public care ethics, have received this knowledge within studies of general public administration ethics, and none of the students have studied separate discipline devoted to the public care ethics.

## 5.2. Analysis of gathered data

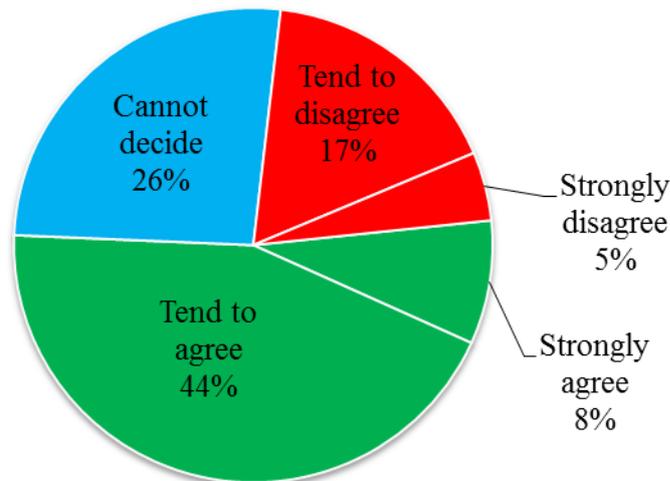
Having completed introductory part, the respondents had to answer 12 special questions, aiming to reveal their attitude to central concepts of the survey. First sub-group of questions is devoted to the role of care and empathy in the modern welfare state. This is followed by questions inquiring about general attitude to clients and their opinion. The third sub-group concerns manner of handling cases and preferable communication methods. Finally, students' opinion on significance of caring attitude and involvement into clients' cases is tested. Each of the sub-groups contains several questions, answers on which should be analyzed separately.

### 5.2.1. Role of care in welfare state

Importance of care as an essential element within value system of modern welfare state has been discussed in previous chapters of the thesis. In the empirical survey students of public administration stated their opinions and attitudes towards significance of care in welfare state, as well as interrelation between care, empathy and just and ethical treatment to a client.

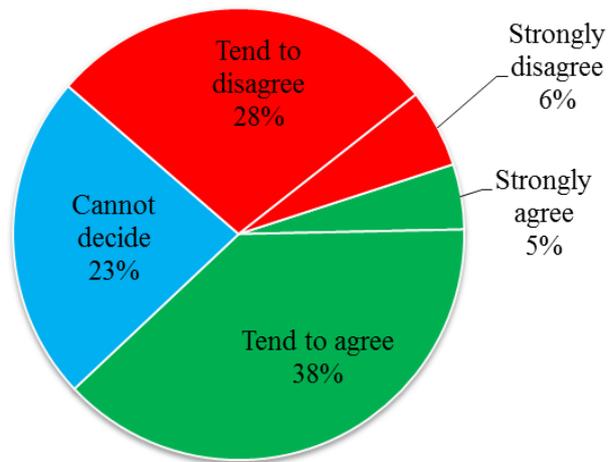
The first question of the sub-group inquires about equivalence of ethical value of care in comparison with such generally accepted values as equality, fairness and integrity. Vast majority of the respondents agreed that, with respect to just treating of a client, care

plays as important role as, for instance, equality and integrity. About 8% had strong belief in it, and 44% tended to agree. However, 22% of the respondent disagreed with the statement, obviously meaning prevailing role of equality, fairness and integrity over care. Still, even bigger part of the respondents, about 26%, could not make up their mind about the matter (Figure 7).



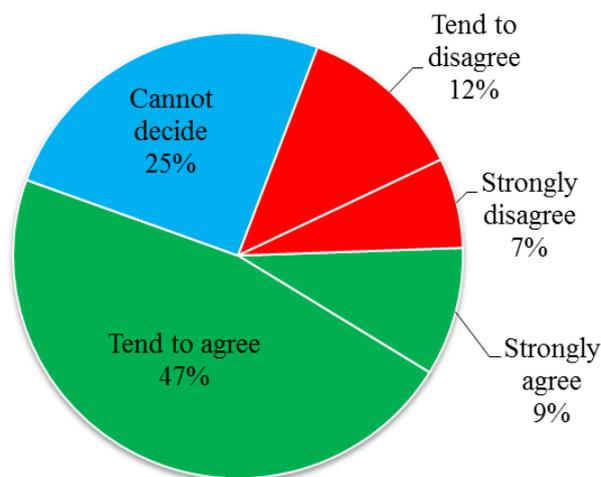
**Figure 7.** Q1: Treating clients justly requires care the same way as it requires, i.e. equality, fairness and integrity

As further answers show, opinion of the students on importance of empathy and personal relationships between individuals in modern welfare state is stated as follows: as seen in Figure 8, 43% of the respondents were either strongly or moderately agree with significance of these values, while 34% expressed their disagreement, and the rest 23% could not decide.



**Figure 8.** Q2: Empathy and personal relationships between individuals are among crucial values of modern welfare state

The attitude of the respondents concerning interrelation between ethical behavior and care was revealed. Majority agreed that to behave ethically a civil servant should have caring attitude towards clients. Part of the respondents, supporting connection between these notions, made up 56%. Those respondents, who viewed caring attitude and ethical behavior as irrelevant amounted to 19%. The proportion of the students, who were not sure about their attitude, made up more than 25%. The more detailed distribution of answers can be seen in Figure 9.



**Figure 9.** Q3: In order to behave ethically, a civil servant should have caring attitude to clients

To facilitate realization of the research objectives of the study, the respondents were divided into three groups with respect to their ability to use ethics of care while making choices within the survey. This division was made on the basis of answers they choose, as their choice defines them as care-oriented, not care oriented or indefinite. The attribution of the answers for the first sub-group of questions is shown in Table 3. It also presents percentage of the respondents ascribed to the respective groups.

**Table 3.** Attribution of answers: role of care in the welfare state

<b>Role of care in welfare state</b>			
	Attributed answers		
	Care-oriented	Indefinite	Not care-oriented
Q1: Treating clients justly requires care the same way as it requires, i.e. equality, fairness and integrity.	Strongly agree Tend to agree	Cannot decide	Tend to disagree Strongly disagree
Distribution of answers in %	52,3%	26,2%	21,5%
Q2: Empathy and personal relationships between individuals are among crucial values of modern welfare state	Strongly agree Tend to agree	Cannot decide	Tend to disagree Strongly disagree
Distribution of answers in %	43%	23,4%	33,6%
Q3: In order to behave ethically, a civil servant should have caring attitude to clients	Strongly agree Tend to agree	Cannot decide	Tend to disagree Strongly disagree
Distribution of answers in %	56,1%	25,2%	18,7%

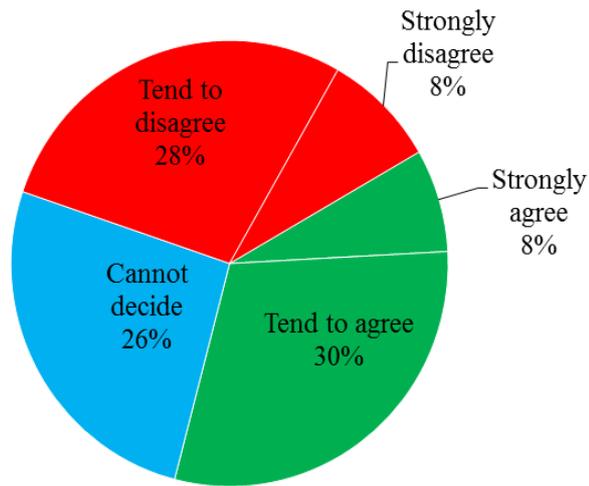
To sum up, the respondents mostly see care as a vital element of the value system in modern welfare state, with empathy and interpersonal relationships being considerably relevant topics. They predominantly interlink care and ethical behavior in the field of public administration, considering caring attitude to clients as a precondition for a decent public servant. Generally speaking, the proportion of students, who can be characterized as care-oriented with accordance to chosen answers on the questions of the first sub-group, is rather large, making up from 43% to 56%.

Noteworthy, the part of the respondents, who could not clearly express their opinion on the role of care in welfare state, is rather big; it composed from 23% to 26%. This means that almost one in four participating student found difficulties in deciding on the role of care in modern welfare state. Analysis of the personal variables of these respondents showed that up to 90% of them have not studied ethics of public administration. Gender structure of this part of the respondents is almost equally composed of representatives of both sexes.

#### 5.2.2. General attitude to clients and their opinion

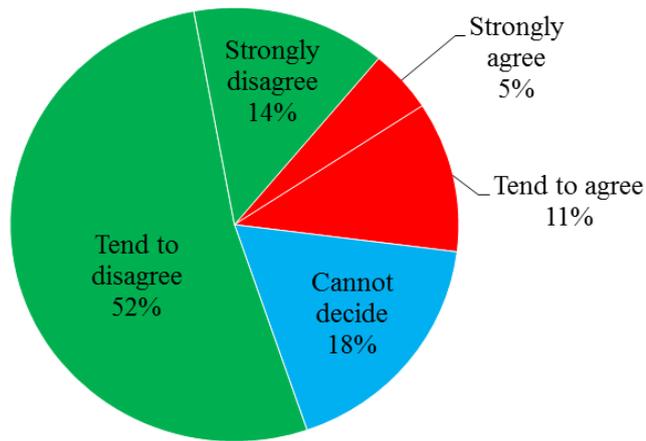
The notion of public ethics of care is inextricably linked with concepts of trust and reciprocity between a public official and a citizen. Demonstrating care towards clients also means being attentive to their opinions and responsiveness in taking steps to improve quality of services if needed. Taking into account objective clients' feedback may help a care-oriented public staff to correspond with demands of every unique case. All together these measures may lead to narrowing the gap between citizens' expectations and actuality of public administration.

The respondents were asked to voice their opinion on honesty and virtuous aims of the clients. As a matter of fact, their answers showed that they generally questioned clients' good intentions. More than 8% of the students expressed their strong doubts in citizens' honesty, probably meaning their possible intention to take advantage of social system. About 28% of the students took the same view point, more modestly though. Moreover, 26% of the respondents could not decide whether clients were always in good faith. In fact, only slightly more than one third of the students proved to be sure in good intentions and honesty of citizens (Figure 10).



**Figure 10.** Q4: Clients are honest with me and have good intentions

Still, vast majority of the respondents confirmed their concern in citizens' opinion and assumed constant monitoring of clients' feedback as important characteristic of proper public administration. To be exact, 14% of the students showed their firm certainty about necessity to gain information on clients' satisfaction with quality of public services, while 52% expressed their assurance more quietly. Part of the respondents, who could not decide on the matter, was the smallest among all the above mentioned statements, and amounted to 18%. Nonetheless, about 16% of the students supposed ascertainment of citizens' opinion unnecessary (Figure 11).



**Figure 11.** Q5: There is **no** need to define the degree of clients' satisfaction with the quality of public services

To sum up, the respondents showed mixed attitude to clients' honesty and opinions. On the one hand, they predominantly consider ascertainment of the citizens' satisfaction with public services as important and worth constant monitoring issue. On the other hand, attitude of the respondents to clients' sincerity and integrity is less well-defined. Large proportions of the students answering the questionnaire were somewhat suspicious towards citizens, while at that moment their own social role was the same. However, some further elaboration should be launched to reveal where this attitude arose from. Also, quite big part of the respondents who could not make their decision on the matter is alarming; they composed from 18% to 26%.

Analysis of the responses was also made with respect to evaluation of the students' orientation on care (Table 4). Generally, they proved to be sufficiently caring about clients' opinions, with 66.4% chose answers attributed to care. However, approximately equal number of the students chose care-oriented and not care-oriented answers concerning clients' honesty. Further analysis of respondents' characteristics is needed to reveal if inclination to particular answers may be linked to personal variables.

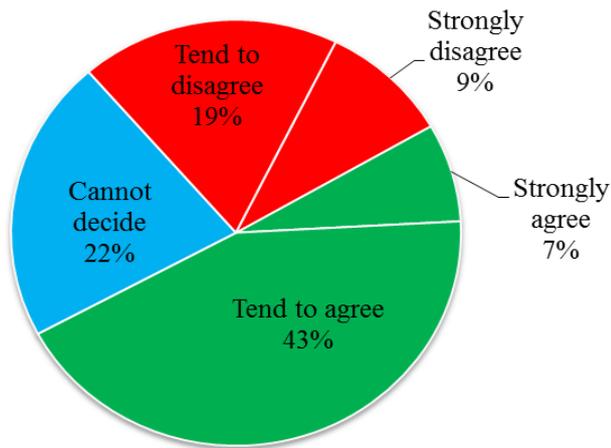
**Table 4.** Attribution of answers: general attitude to clients and their opinion

<b>General attitude to clients and their opinion</b>			
	Attributed answers		
	Care-oriented	Indefinite	Not care-oriented
Q4: Clients are honest with me and have good intentions	Strongly agree Tend to agree	Cannot decide	Tend to disagree Strongly disagree
Distribution of answers in %	37,4%	26,2%	36,4%
Q5: There is no need to define the degree of clients satisfaction with the quality of public services	Tend to disagree Strongly disagree	Cannot decide	Strongly agree Tend to agree
Distribution of answers in %	66,4%	17,8%	15,9%

### 5.2.3. Manner of handling cases

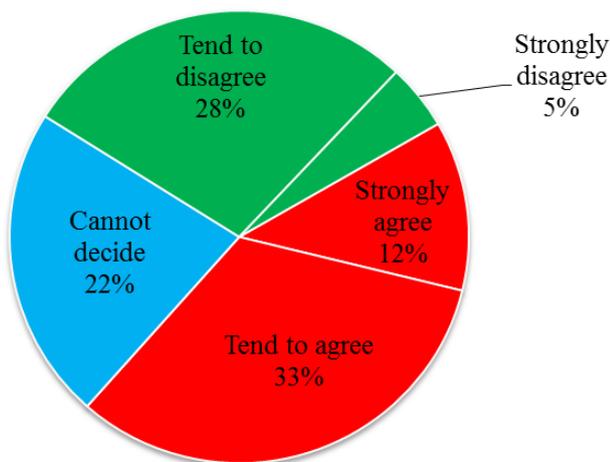
With accordance to the care ethics, public officials should adhere to care-oriented means of handling cases. For instance, the unique situation of a client should be taken into account to make an ethical decision. Also, to enhance understanding of citizens' needs face-to-face communication should be used when possible. Generally, personified approach is a vital part of public care ethics, which may require certain flexibility in processing cases and making choices.

The respondents expressed their opinions on necessity of considering personal circumstances of clients when making decisions, if it is not a mandatory requirement. Most believed a unique situation of each client to be significant argument in making fair resolution. As seen in Figure 12, about half of the students had agreed with this point of view. Nevertheless, almost one in three respondents felt that if taking into account personal situations is not compulsory, there is no need to waste resources on it. Probably, this choice was based on the desire to enhance efficiency of performance. Finally, for 22% of the respondents this question seemed too challenging to answer.



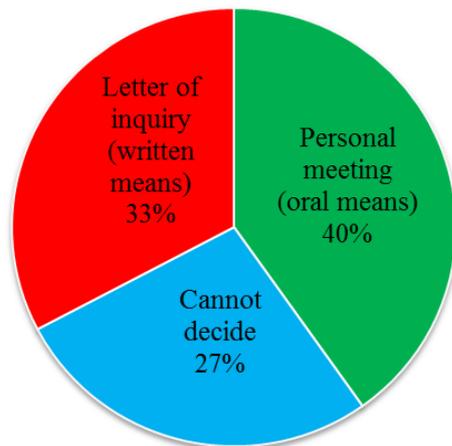
**Figure 12.** Q6: A civil servant should take personal circumstances of a client into account, when making a decision, even if this is not vital according to the rules

Among other, the survey aimed to test whether the students were capable of searching for tailor-made means of dealing with issues. The results showed that almost half of the respondents would prefer relying on existing routine to trying to “re-invent the wheel” (Figure 13). However, about one third were quite sure that their decisions should not be strictly rule-bound; this might be based on presumption that unified and impersonal norms of conduct cannot always provide optimal results. As in previous question, about 22% of the students did not manage to express their view.



**Figure 13.** Q7: A civil servant should take personal circumstances of a client into account, when making a decision, even if this is not vital according to the rules

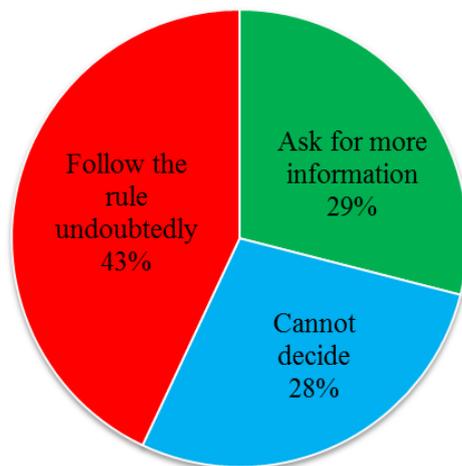
To reveal which means of communication with clients, written or oral one, seemed to be more suitable for the respondents, a simulated case was presented. They were asked to choose the most beneficial way to deal with an ambiguous case, either to arrange a meeting or require more documents to clarify the situation. Larger part of the students (with scant majority though) tended to choose face-to-face appointment to get comprehensive insight into the case and make a reasonable decision (Figure 14). At the same time, many preferred quite the reverse; they inclined to send a letter of inquiry to receive more documents and to make an unbiased assessment on their ground. Yet a considerable proportion of the students, about 27%, found difficulty in replying.



**Figure 14.** Q8: Simulated situation aiming to reveal preferred means of communication with clients

Another simulated case of the questionnaire inquired into ability of the respondents to treat clients versus rules. As was confirmed by previous studies (Stensöta 2010), public officials in the field tend to swerve from written rules in special occasions. The simulated case offered the respondents to choose tactics in a situation when a misdemeanor took place. On the one hand, the minor violation required imposition of a fine, but on the other hand, this violation could be caused by certain valid reasons, which would turn the fine into an unjustified penalty.

Distribution of the answers showed that no pronounced pattern in decision-making may be found in this respect. Large majority, 43%, demonstrated readiness to follow the rules in any case, without regarding the reasons that provoked the misdemeanor (Figure 15). On the other part, nearly one third of the respondents, 29%, inclined to ask for more information about the cause of infringement and treat the case individually. Possibly, this choice was additionally stimulated by announced amount of the fine, which could be considered as an excessive for that kind of minor violation. Also, a disturbingly big part, 28%, demonstrated confusion in making their decision.



**Figure 15.** Q9: Simulated situation aiming to reveal ability to treat clients versus rules

Summarizing the results of this part of the survey, it can be noted that the respondents did not show any certain pattern in handling cases. Solving the simulated cases seemed to provoke doubts among the students, judging by large proportions of indefinite answers together with almost equal distribution over opposites. Most believed that following unified and proven rules is the most appropriate way of dealing clients' cases, and agreed that there was no need in creating personified approaches. Nonetheless, in an ambiguous situation the majority would prefer using oral means of communication with clients and pay attention to personal circumstances of a client to gain all-embracing understanding of the needs and make a balanced resolution.

Generally, the respondents' manner of handling clients' cases cannot be characterized as definitely caring. As seen in Table 5, they showed eagerness to choose care-oriented alternatives when dealing with complicated cases, which need consideration of personal circumstances. Majority would also choose attributed to care (oral) means of communication with citizens, even if this would not have been compulsory. At the same time, the answers predominantly confirmed their disposition to follow the rules rigorously, which cannot be considered as a care-oriented conduct.

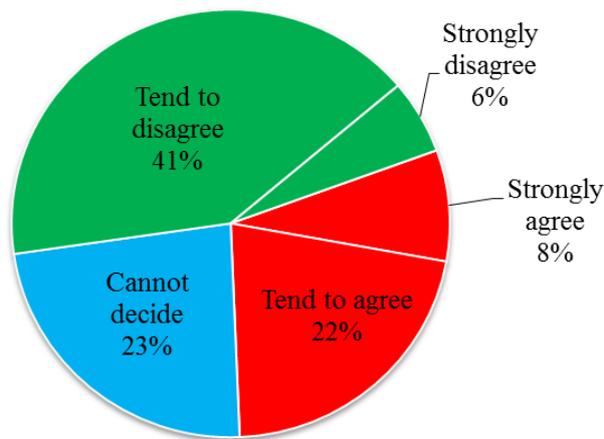
**Table 5.** Attribution of answers: manner of handling clients' cases

Manner of handling cases			
	Attributed answers		
	Care-oriented	Indefinite	Not care-oriented
Q6: Civil servant should take personal circumstances of a client into account, when making a decision, even if this is not vital according to the rules	Strongly agree Tend to agree	Cannot decide	Tend to disagree Strongly disagree
Distribution of answers in %	50,5%	21,5%	28%
Q7: If a procedure of treating a particular case is unambiguously described by rules, this is the only acceptable way to treat the case	Tend to disagree Strongly disagree	Cannot decide	Strongly agree Tend to agree
Distribution of answers in %	32,7%	22,4%	44,9%
Q8: Simulated situation aiming to reveal preferred means of communication with clients	Personal meeting (oral means)	Cannot decide	Letter of inquiry (written means)
Distribution of answers in %	40,2%	27,1%	32,7%
Q9: Simulated situation aiming to reveal ability to treat clients versus rules	Ask for more information	Cannot decide	Follow the rule undoubtedly
Distribution of answers in %	29%	28%	43%

#### 5.2.4. Personal involvement and caring attitude

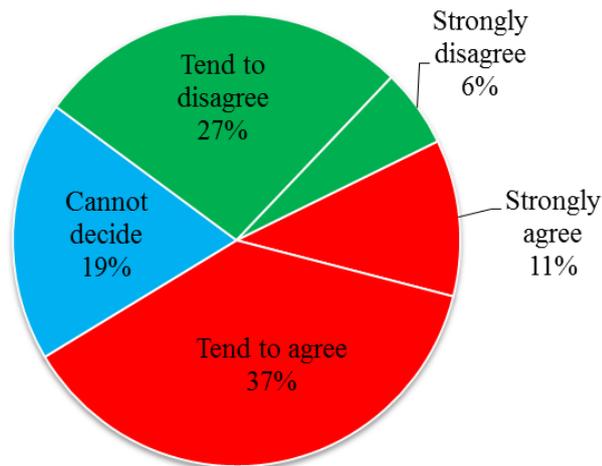
Ability to establish interpersonal relationships with citizens is an important prerequisite of making personified and all-embracing decisions, especially in situations when public officials dispose of certain level of independence. To care about citizens means not only ensuring their well-being by providing adequate support on the governmental level, but also practice caring treatment on administrative level. For instance, if decision-making is not absolutely rule-bound, ability to put oneself into a client's place may help to investigate a challenging case.

In the last part of the questionnaire the respondents were inquired about their readiness to establish interpersonal relationships with clients. Most agreed that this is an important element of their work, and the result can be beneficial. About 6% showed strong disinclination to alienate from the clients, and another 41% tended to consider interdependence between them and citizens as wholesome (Figure 16). These answers correlate with their opinion on significance of empathy in modern welfare state. This also confirms that in the majority of cases they incline to use these values as moral guidance for making administrative decisions. Having noted that, yet about 30% of the students considered establishing interpersonal relationships with their clients as irrelevant, and assumed that this may affect quality of their work. Probably, they must have been concerned about possible impact of relations with the clients on their objectivity.



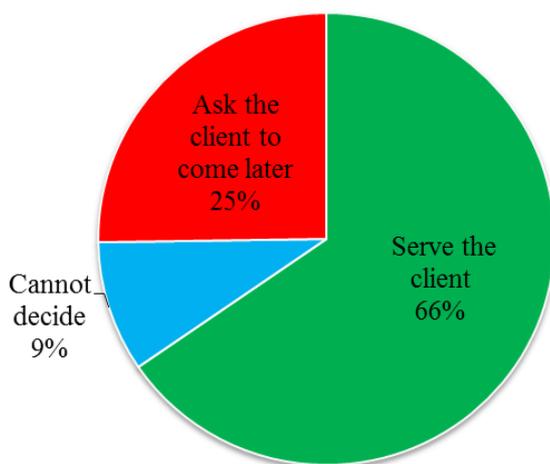
**Figure 16.** Q10: I must not establish interpersonal relationships with clients as this can harm my work

Vast majority of the respondents believed that personal involvement into clients' problems was unnecessary in their work. Almost half were convinced that they can fulfil their duties successfully without being involved into the cases (Figure 17). As several of the students noted in the comment field, they believed that taking clients' problems close to heart could lead to emotional burning-out, and thus affect quality of work. Still, 33% agreed that personal involvement is a vital element of efficient work, especially within public social system. Less than 20% could not make up their viewpoint on the issue.



**Figure 17.** Q11: I do not need to be personally involved into clients' problems to handle their cases successfully

Another simulated case tested ability of the respondents to sacrifice minimal comfort for the sake of client. Vast majority, 66%, agreed to spend part of their lunch break to serve a client (Figure 18). This was another argument in favour of holding strong empathy skills and ability to put oneself on a client's place. However, one quarter of the students preferred to stick to their official working timetable and keep work-rest balance. Noteworthy, the part of those, who preferred abstaining from answering, was the minimal out of all questions of the survey.



**Figure 18.** Q12: Simulated case aiming to reveal ability to sacrifice minimal comfort and put oneself into client's place

Summing up, the respondents showed considerable eagerness to establish interpersonal relations with their clients, as most believed it to be an appropriate practice in reaching mutually beneficial results. Vast majority chose care-oriented conduct and demonstrated ability to sacrifice minimal comfort for the sake of clients (Table 6). However, they predominantly seemed reluctant to become personally involved into cases they work with, as excessive emotional perception may trouble unbiased and clear decision making.

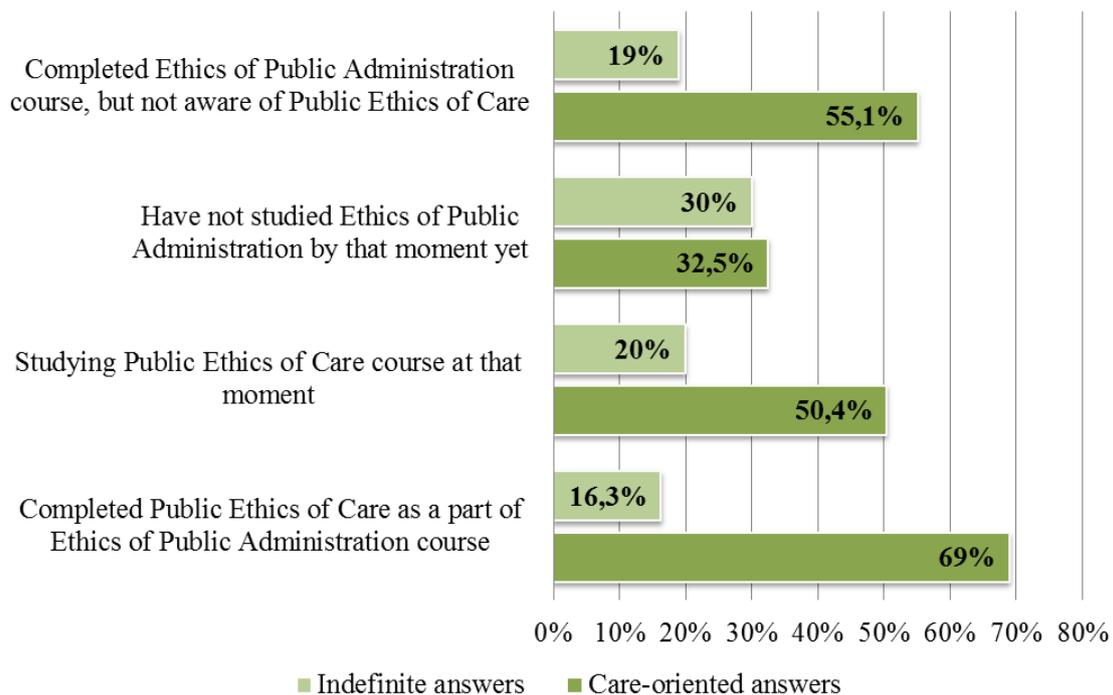
**Table 6.** Attribution of answers: personal involvement and caring attitude

<b>Personal involvement and caring attitude</b>			
	Attributed answers		
	Care-oriented	Indefinite	Not care-oriented
Q10: I must not establish interpersonal relationships with clients, as this can harm my work	Tend to disagree Strongly disagree	Cannot decide	Strongly agree Tend to agree
Distribution of answers in %	46,7%	23,4%	29,9%
Q11: I do not need to be personally involved into clients' problems to handle their cases successfully	Tend to disagree Strongly disagree	Cannot decide	Strongly agree Tend to agree
Distribution of answers in %	32,7%	18,7%	48,6%
Q12: Simulated case aiming to reveal ability to sacrifice minimal comfort and put oneself into client's place	Serve the client	Cannot decide	Ask the client to come later
Distribution of answers in %	65,4%	9,3%	25,2%

### 5.3. Public ethics of care: analysis of determinants

The survey aimed to test whether ability to apply public ethics of care can be trained. With respect to this, possible interdependence between specific training and inclination to follow principles of care ethics was investigated. Gender of the respondents was taken into consideration as an additional personal determinant, because its influence on ability to practice care has been a controversial point of many researches before.

By the moment of participating in the survey the respondents acquired various levels of proficiency in public administration ethics in general and public ethics of care in particular. To identify whether there is interdependence between education and taking decisions in favour of care, the responses of students with different levels of knowledge were analyzed separately. As a result, an average percentage of care-oriented answers for each group was calculated. The outcome is presented in Figure 19.



**Figure 19.** Average percentage of care-oriented and indefinite answers chosen by the respondents with respective level of knowledge

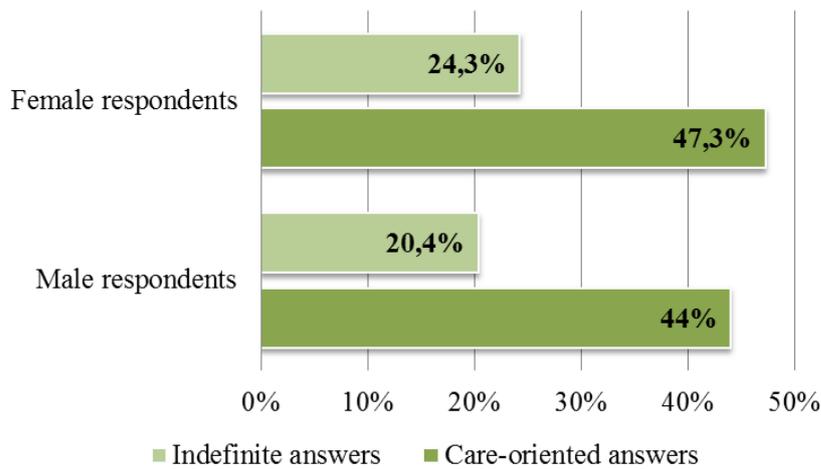
As a matter of fact, the respondents without any prior knowledge in public ethics tended to choose answers attributed to caring conduct least of all: on average only in 33% of questions. At the same time, they scored the most in choosing indefinite answers; in general, the respondents from this group hesitated over the answers two times more often than, for instance, those with knowledge in public ethics of care. They obviously felt confusion and lack of ethical guidance. Moreover, this group was mostly constituted by the youngest students, and thus, less experienced. Probably, due to relatively modest

skillfulness they felt less confidence in making decisions than students of senior study years.

Interestingly enough, those respondents, who have completed discipline of public administration ethics (without special emphasis on public ethics of care) and those, who were studying it by the moment of participation in the survey, scored almost equally. On average they chose care-oriented answers in every second question. Also, the students, who have finished the discipline, demonstrated their reasons for choices and definite points of view on the topics related to the survey; they were clearly expressed in their comments on the questionnaire.

Finally, the respondents who have studied public ethics of care as a part of general public ethics chose answers attributed to care in 69% of questions. They have also argued for their viewpoints actively. Moreover, their position concerning topics mentioned in the survey was predominantly determined, with only 16% of indefinite answers.

As far as personal determinant of gender is concerned, the same analytical tactics was applied. The average percentage of care-oriented answers was calculated for members of both sexes. The results are vividly showed in Figure 20. In contrast to investigations of founders of care ethics, gender seemed to have low significance with respect to inclination towards caring conduct within public administration. Young women tended to choose answers attributed to care more often than men, but only in about 5% of cases. At the same time male respondents inclined to have more definite resolutions, while female ones showed slightly more hesitation. However, the difference is so small that it cannot be regarded as supporting the assumption that women tend to require more information than men to make a decision.



**Figure 20.** Average percentage of care-oriented and indefinite answers chosen by male and female respondents

To summarize, analysis of personal variables behind public ethics of care proved both variables under investigation, special training and gender, to be of different significance. Noteworthy, as far as special training is concerned, not only presence of particular knowledge as such is significant, but also content of the knowledge. The analysis showed that students with awareness of public ethics of care inclined towards care-oriented decisions in 14% cases more than those with only general training in public ethics. This means that emphasis on public ethics of care during teaching provides students with additional moral guidance and more grounds for decision-making. This also helps them to take into consideration additional aspects of each case and offers wider possibilities for conduct.

In its turn, personal variable of gender cannot be regarded as significant determinant behind public ethics of care, according to the results of current research. Male and female respondents proved to make care-oriented decisions with almost equal frequency. Members of both sexes demonstrated active interest in the topics of the survey and eagerness to express their attitudes and beliefs in comments.

## 6. CONCLUSIONS

Welfare state governance promotes well-being of its citizens or, to put it differently, it cares about production and sustaining welfare. More specifically this implies putting into basics of decisions on all administrative levels such values as quality, effectiveness, responsiveness, and transparency. This research argues that to the same degree it requires empathy, interdependency between people, active reciprocity to achieve mutually beneficial results.

As alteration of traditional mechanisms of production and delivery of public services gather pace, the discrepancy of old public ethos and new reality of public administration resulted in necessity for introduction of relevant tools and guidance for ethical conduct. The current thesis investigated whether public ethics of care might offer necessary ethical framework, which would facilitate effective public administration in the context of modern welfare state, where public employees have to face change in administrative roles and modes of governance.

In contrast with traditional public administration, the new style of governance requires more flexible and unconventional conduct. Public officials have more freedom in decision-making at disposal; they face situations, when citizens expect their actions to be less rule-bound, but rather personified and responsive. These notions lay in the basis of public ethics of care and they also correspond with the welfare state objectives. Thus, public ethics of care may be employed as complementary ethical tool for public officials in modern welfare states. The current research promotes public ethics of care as a moral guidance to satisfy citizens' expectations and increase their trust in governance.

According to the previous researches on the matter by Stensöta (2010: 299), public frontline bureaucrats in governmental agencies tend to follow principles of care ethics, while taking decisions. Stensöta (2010: 299-300) also concluded that inclination towards care in public officials increases in direct proportion to the age and length of work in the field. Hence, reasonability of public care ethics is obtained after years of experience. The current research aimed to test empirically whether deliberate teaching

of public ethics of care to future public employees might develop their care-orientation, and thus, equip them with an additional valuable professional skill before they start actual work. This could ameliorate competence of young public servants at the very beginning of their career, exempting them from necessity to work out orientation to care all by themselves.

In order to accomplish research objectives, the respondents with different levels of proficiency in public ethics were invited to participate in the survey. The results showed that in general students advocated what can be called rational orientation to care. This implies that they predominantly admit significance of care and empathy as elements of ethical framework of modern public administration, and showed readiness to use them as moral guidance while taking decisions. On the other hand, young people demonstrated considerable adherence to following time-proved rules, though with some exceptions in ambiguous situations. Their aspiration for maintaining open-minded and unbiased approach was definitely seen in the replies and comments for the questionnaire.

What seemed to be alarming is that the students expressed doubts in citizens' honesty, and no specific reason for that could be found. At the same time they tended to sympathize clients' circumstances, and showed eagerness to consider their personal needs to take a balanced decision. This contradiction requires further investigation, probably of a qualitative nature.

As far as significance of deliberate teaching of public ethics of care is concerned, the results of the survey showed firm interdependence between care-oriented conduct and training. The students with knowledge of public ethics of care demonstrated stronger inclination to apply care within public administrative context than their colleagues without respective training. Moreover, the former seemed to take decisions more confidently than others. Thus, it may be concluded that teaching of public ethics of care tends to influence one's inclination towards caring reasoning. Studying of this discipline should be compulsory for all students of public administration, and educational establishments shall provide them such opportunity. This specific training widens

perspectives for evaluation separate cases, as well as for planning long-term governmental strategies. It also shows alternatives for strict rule-bounded decision-making and provides public officials with relevant ethical framework and moral guidance to meet challenges of modern welfare state.

Noteworthy, significant gender differences in moral reasoning were not identified during the survey. Students of both sexes tended to choose care-oriented answers with almost equal frequency. The discrepancy with previous theories, which confirmed strong gender conditionality, may be explained by the fact that “it has become easier for boys to be caring today than in the past”, when success of a man was explicitly associated with masculine conduct (Donenberg and Hoffman 1988: 714).

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### Appendix 1. Evolution of public administrative values and ethical framework

Based on Pollitt&Bouckaert 2011; De Montricher 1998; Macaulay 2006; Goss 1996.

Time period	State type	Style of public administration	Public administration values	Historical and economic context	Problems	Ethos
~ end of XIX century – 1960s	Weberian Bureaucracy	Traditional Public Administration	Hierarchy Rationality Predictability Consistency Impartial following ethical rules	One-state government mode	Low responsiveness Universal approaches to diverse problems Slowness and lack of flexibility Expensive and overgrown State machinery	Traditional bureaucratic civil servants ethos. Emphasis on public duty and ethics of justice
~1960-1980s	Transition period, active Public Administration reforms			The “golden age of planning” (Pollitt&Bouckaert 2011: 9) Economic downturn of 1970s proved Western welfare states to be unaffordable and ineffective		
~ 1980-1990s	Democratic Welfare State	Managerialism and New Public Management	Efficiency Effectiveness Responsiveness Quality	Market self-regulating mechanism fails due to: - problem of quality of public services, as providers’ motives are not always clear; - exit of citizens from the market is not always possible (monopoly of governmental agencies in some public spheres); - need for better coordination and control of multiple public organizations, as well as clear definition of their duties; -main ethical problems – political accountability, corruption and loss of trust in governance.		Deterioration of traditional public administration ethos; Clear contradiction between old and new administrative values proved a need for new combinative ethical tools
~2000s-present	Modern Welfare State	New Public Governance with relevant concepts of networks, partnerships	Public trust Transparency Citizens’ participation Reciprocity Accountability	Practical difficulty with performance measurement of networks. Need for internal and external public ethical management		Ethics of care might provide necessary complementary moral guidance

**Appendix 2.** Record of the video appeal to the students

Hello everyone!

My name is Daria Zhukova, and I am a student of University of Vaasa in Finland. I am studying public administration, just like you!

At the moment, I am writing my Master's thesis, and my research is devoted to the public ethics of care. To be precise, I investigate possible interconnection between inclination towards caring conduct and special training in the context of public administration.

I would like to ask you to participate in my survey and contribute to development of public ethics. Your participation is very desirable, but absolutely voluntary! The survey is a questionnaire of about 20 short questions, and will take you not more than 25 minutes to complete it.

I imagine, what you are thinking about now: "Another study test". But good news! It is not! The questions do not aim to assess your knowledge, but rather they will let you voice your opinion on relevant topics of public ethics. And also I would like to assure you that your teachers will not get your answers, as the survey is absolutely anonymous, and you will not be asked to write your name anywhere.

So if you feel like helping your colleague, please, write down your e-mail address in the list that your course leader will pass you in a moment! If you still have doubts, concerns or just want to know more, please, don't hesitate to contact me, I'm at your service! My e-mail address and phone number you can see now, and you also can find them in the list for your contacts.

Thank you for the attention, and I hope for your cooperation!

### Appendix 3. Survey questions

#### Survey on Ethical Decision Making for the Students of Public Administration

Dear participant,

I highly appreciate your readiness to take part in the survey! The questionnaire is designed to find out how students of Public Administration deal with ethical dilemmas. Your responses are of great importance, as they will underlay the empirical part of my Master's Thesis. For this reason, I kindly ask you to take the questions seriously and give sincere answers; this is vital for validity of the research!

It will take you approximately 20 minutes to answer 17 questions of different types. Please, note that the survey is not assessing your knowledge in Public Administrative Ethics, but rather aims to reveal general pattern.

I would like to assure you that the survey has solely scientific purpose, and will contribute to Master's research in the field of Public Administrative Ethics. Participation is absolutely anonymous and voluntary. You can check it easily by following Privacy Policy Conditions of the current survey, which are ensured by certified Privacy Policy of SuveyMonkeyTM (See [www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/privacy-policy/](http://www.surveymonkey.com/mp/policy/privacy-policy/)). It will not affect your study marks by any means. The results will not be passed to third parties (including your teachers) or published elsewhere apart from the Master's Thesis, for which the survey is held.

Please, make sure to complete the questionnaire before 21 March 2016. If you have any questions or need further information, please, do not hesitate to contact me at [dariazhukova@inbox.ru](mailto:dariazhukova@inbox.ru).

I hope you will enjoy completing the questionnaire.  
Thank you for your time and desire to help the researcher-your colleague!

Daria Zhukova

## Survey on Ethical Decision Making for the Students of Public Administration

Please, answer the following indicator questions. Your answers will not threaten your anonymity in any way, but will be used for further statistical analyses.

\* 1. What is your age?

\* 2. Please, indicate your gender.

\* 3. Choose the name of your educational institution.

\* 4. What is your year of study at the University?

\* 5. Have you studied Public Ethics of Care as a separate discipline or as a part of Ethics of Public Administration course?

- Yes, I have completed a separate Public Ethics of Care course
- Yes, I have studied Public Ethics of Care as a part of Ethics of Public Administration course
- I am studying Public Ethics of Care course at the moment
- I am studying Ethics of Public Administration course at the moment
- I have not studied Ethics of Public Administration yet
- I have completed Ethics of Public Administration course, but I am not aware of Public Ethics of Care

Other (please, specify)

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Please, answer the following 12 special questions, divided into four topical sub-groups for your convenience. Use your professional knowledge; you need to decide how a public servant should treat clients ethically, not how you would like to be treated as a client, even if, at the moment, this position is more familiar to you.

### I. Role of care in welfare state.

1. I think that treating clients justly requires care the same way as it requires, i.e. equality, fairness and integrity.

Strongly agree      Tend to agree      Cannot decide      Tend to disagree      Strongly disagree

2. I believe that empathy and personal relationships between individuals are among crucial values of modern welfare state.

Strongly agree      Tend to agree      Cannot decide      Tend to disagree      Strongly disagree

3. I am sure that in order to behave ethically, a civil servant should have caring attitude to clients.

Strongly agree      Tend to agree      Cannot decide      Tend to disagree      Strongly disagree

### II. General attitude to clients and their opinion.

4. I think that clients are honest with me and have good intentions.

Strongly agree      Rather agree than not      Cannot decide      Rather disagree than agree      Strongly disagree

5. There is no need to define the degree of clients satisfaction with the quality of public services.

Strongly agree      Rather agree than not      Cannot decide      Rather disagree that agree      Strongly disagree

### III. Manner of handling cases.

6. I believe that a civil servant should take personal circumstances of a client into account, when making a decision, even if this is not vital according to the rules

Strongly agree      Rather agree, than not      Cannot decide      Rather disagree, than agree      Strongly disagree

7. I think that if a procedure of treating a particular case is unambiguously described by rules, this is the only acceptable way to treat the case.

Strongly agree	Rather agree than not	Cannot decide	Rather disagree than agree	Strongly disagree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

8. You are a public servant within pension system. Your responsibility is to make decisions on early retirement on the grounds of documents confirming health problems, personal issues, etc. Thus, you are not required to meet applicants personally, but may assess papers only. When the case is ambiguous, you may appoint a meeting with the client to discuss controversial points or you may send a letter of inquiry to the client about additional documents. How would you contact the client?

- By a letter of inquiry, because it enables me to make an unbiased and fair decision
- By appointing a personal meeting, as I can get more additional information while speaking to a person and make personified assessment of the client's need
- I cannot decide

9. You work at passport issuance authority. There is an administrative fine for overdue passport replacement (e.g. due to change of surname) of 5000 RUB (85 EUR). Will you charge the fine in any case?

- Yes, because this is stated in administrative law and promotes equality in clients' treatment
- It depends on the client's personal reasons for the delay in replacement. I need to get more information from the client to make the decision
- I cannot decide

IV. Personal involvement and caring attitude.

10. I think that I must not establish interpersonal relationships with clients as this can harm my work.

Strongly agree	Rather agree than not	Cannot decide	Rather disagree than agree	Strongly disagree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

11. Even if I work in social public service system, I do not need to be personally involved into clients' problems to handle their cases successfully.

Strongly agree	Rather agree than not	Cannot decide	Rather disagree than agree	Strongly disagree
<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

12. As a frontline public official you receive clients in accordance with your office hours: from Monday to Friday, for 4 hours per day, with a lunch break from 12 pm to 13 pm. Average time of handling one case is 25 minutes.

You finish with a client at 11:55 am, and see that one more client, a senior person, is waiting for you. What will you do?

- I will apologize for the inconvenience, and ask the client to come again in an hour or tomorrow
- I will serve the client, even if I have to sacrifice some of my lunch time
- I cannot decide

13. Do you have any comments on the questions or the survey in general?

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I would like to thank you for finding time to complete the questionnaire. Your participation is highly appreciated. If you have any comments or questions, feel free to contact me by emailing at [dariazhukova@inbox.ru](mailto:dariazhukova@inbox.ru).

Daria Zhukova

