Impact of Migration to the UK on Lithuanian Migrant Family Relationships

Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the award of Doctor of Philosophy

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ABSTRACT

Since the opening of European borders to new EU member states, a large number of immigrants continue to arrive in the UK and specifically to the East Midlands and East Anglia. To date, little or no research has been conducted to understand their experience and adjustment in this part of the country. With my research I aimed to find out how Lithuanian emigration affected family relationships and to identify issues that families face when a member emigrates on his/her own. I conducted qualitative research using different methods of data collection: online (skype) and face-to-face interviews, focus group and remote discussion techniques. Data has been coded using NVivo8 and NVivo10 and analysed using grounded theory.

Findings show that the transition stage, while a family lives apart, puts an enormous strain on relationships within a family. However, it does not lead to nor causes break ups provided the family was a close unit prior to migration. The final results support the emerging theory that if the family had good relationships back in Lithuania, then all challenges of migration would not break that bond. On the contrary, they would strengthen relationships. My findings answer the initial research question as to whether migration to the UK affects Lithuanian family relationships by suggesting that it does not any more than any other stressful life events, e.g. death, childbirth, job loss, illness, house move, etc. Findings suggest that, if families discuss matters and look for the solutions together, the negative impact of migration might be avoided or lessened. My research contributes to the knowledge by applying novelty frameworks such as grounded theory and Layder’s theory of social domains in order to analyse and understand the Lithuanian migration phenomenon in the UK, particularly in East Anglia and the East Midlands.
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<th>Agency/Structure</th>
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<tr>
<td>ASEED</td>
<td>Action for Solidarity Equality and Environment</td>
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<td>APS</td>
<td>Annual Population Survey</td>
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<td>EA</td>
<td>East Midlands</td>
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<td>EE</td>
<td>Eastern European</td>
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<td>EYFA</td>
<td>European Youth For(est) Action</td>
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<td>EMN</td>
<td>European Migration Network</td>
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<td>EU</td>
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<td>FHREC</td>
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<td>FG</td>
<td>Focus Group</td>
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<td>FUI</td>
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<td>HSE</td>
<td>Health and Safety Executive</td>
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<td>IM</td>
<td>Instant Messaging</td>
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<td>IOM</td>
<td>International Organization for Migration</td>
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<td>LAT</td>
<td>Living Apart Together</td>
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<td>LFS</td>
<td>Labour Force Survey</td>
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<td>LTIM</td>
<td>Long Term International Migration</td>
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<td>NELM</td>
<td>New Economics of Labour Migration</td>
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<td>NSO</td>
<td>National Statistics Online</td>
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ONS    Office for National Statistics
OSP    Official Statistics Portal
QDA    Qualitative Data Analysis
RD     Remote Discussion
SADM   The Institute of Social Studies and Ministry of Social Security and Labour
VTAKI  Vaiku Teisiu Apsaugos Kontrolieriaus Istaiga (ir Lietuvos Respublikos Svetimo ir Mokslo ministerija) - (Lithuanian Child Protection Agency and Lithuanian Ministry of Education)
TEM    The East Midlands
UNDESA United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs
WFQ    Word Frequency Query
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

PREFACE

After our son, Lukas, was nine months old I decided to apply for a PhD program at DMU. The opportunity soon arose after I submitted my research proposal about Lithuanian migration to the UK and its impact on family relationships. When I got accepted, I was excited beyond belief. Firstly, that I would finally be able to study at the highest academic level, and secondly, that I would be supervised by the most renowned duo in the field – Professor David Ward and Jennifer Fleming.

Little did I know that at that time, I would be carrying another little one. Nine months later, our baby Rachel was born. Only parents with little children can understand how hard it is to juggle parenting and anything intellectual, let alone pursuing a PhD. Despite having the incredible support of my supervisors, my husband Paul and my mother, who was flying back and forth from Lithuania to help us with a child care, it was not easy. However, things were moving on. The children started school, my mother went back to Lithuania, and life finally seem to have regained its rhythm, until one day, we received a phone call from Lithuania and we realised that it was our turn to look after my aging mother. Soon after she moved in with us permanently, we realised how bad it was. The diagnosis was shocking – dementia. Little children, caring for a sick mother and doing a PhD was not an easy task. In 2015, our son, while playing football, had a severe head injury. Doctors were not sure whether he would survive. At the same time, mum was taken to hospital with grave hallucinations and mental disorder. My world was falling apart and that is where DMU stepped in.

I cannot thank the DMU administration enough for incredible understanding of my on-going family situation and suggesting an interruption, which I accepted with great appreciation. It was a time of great transformation – looking after my
recovering son and realising that it was not safe for my mother to live with us any longer. My heart was breaking having to let her go to a care home. I would visit her three times a day, to make sure that she was well looked after and was not missing love and family affection.

Nevertheless, at the end of the interruption, I found it very difficult to come back to the academic work. I was far too preoccupied with my caring duties and responsibilities. Once again, Professor Ward and my beautiful new supervisor Dr. Knight, supported me unconditionally. Their patience and understanding of my ongoing problems had no limits. I had been set a flexible and sensible schedule that would accommodate my ever changing “family situation”. Our son fully recovered, my mum felt safe and “at home”, and life seemed to be back to normal.

DMU also provided a Thesis Boot Camp, and that is where I would like to start my ‘acknowledgements and thank you’ section. I would like to thank Peta and Jason Eyre from Kimberlin library for the best last push to have this thesis finally written.

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First of all, I would like to thank my supervisors: Professor David Ward, Dr. Victoria Knight, and Jennifer Fleming for their faith in me and constant encouragement and support. I have always called them a “dream team” and I could not have wished for a better team and guidance for my research. They were my rock not only professionally (guiding me through the very dark woods of the research process) but more importantly on a human level – being always enthusiastic, supportive, encouraging, and available at any time.

I also would like to thank Dr. Thilo Boek for his practical support to help me master NVivo. Dr. Tina Harris – for being incredibly understanding and supportive of my ongoing family problems.
I am sincerely grateful to my research participants from the East Midlands and East Anglia. Due to the anonymity promise, I cannot mention their names, but I cannot thank them enough for their time and commitment of sharing their migration experiences with me. Special thanks to two families who hosted focus groups in their own home. It was true Lithuanian hospitality with delicious food that followed our meetings.

**LITHUANIAN ACADEMICS**

I should thank Lithuanian academics, Dr. Judita Kasperiuniene for being an inspiration to undertake grounded theory in my research, Dr. Giedrius Malinauskas, for his book “This Child Is Also Mine: a Narrative Approach to the Phenomenon of Atypical Custodial Grandparenthood” (2011) and collegial advice at the beginning of my research as well as my former supervisor from Vytautas Magnus University – Professor Veckiene for her encouragement and guidance.

Professor Regina Kulys – for inspiring me to do a PhD while in the USA. Her legacy at University of Illinois will always be a true inspiration for further pursuing my academic career.

**WORK**

I should also say a huge thank you to the Brooke House College administration for their support, and understanding the strain of a PhD, and giving me flexible hours to work. I especially want to thank my dear colleagues, Julie Dowling and Dr. Felicity Johnson, for their invaluable help with proofreading.

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My dear friends in Lithuania, Alina, Milda, Eligijus, Raimonda, Jolanta and Dainius for both practical and psychological help, but most importantly – providing care and retreat while in Lithuania.
My German friends, Thomas Rupp and Martha Wegjan – for always being there for me, and nurturing me with lovely stories of the German countryside as well as supplying me with ever needed choral/jazz music recorded by Thomas.

UK

Our dear South African friends, Steenkamp and Ganga’s families (Bridget, Bernhard, Jeremy Yoleen) for never ending encouragement and support.

Ruta and Darius Furmonavicius – for being dear friends, and a great inspiration for their own academic work.

Avinash and Smita Mehta – for understanding the silence on social media and missing children’s birthdays due to constant writing. Missing them dearly.

My dear Kurdish fellow PhD student – Aveen whom I went with to the conference in Cumberland Lodge and I am going to remain friends with for life. Her energy, sense of humour and love for life was and still is a fuel for me to keep going.

USA

Baniute Kronas – for being my muse and a guardian angel. Together with her late husband Romas, (R.I.P.) they have always been there for me whenever I needed their help. Their home in the suburbs of Chicago has always been a harbour of peace and serenity. I cannot thank Baniute enough for providing a greatly needed retreat during my conference in Chicago. It was the time when I needed to “recharge my batteries” the most. For all the encouraging correspondence throughout the years and the most delicious Lithuanian dishes ever (particularly for barstukai).

To my dear family and friends in Chicago – Enrika, Erika, Latifa and Rasa. For always believing in me and supporting at all times.
I should also thank the Lithuanian artist community in the USA: Jurgis Daugvila (R.I.P.) – Indiana (his son Darius and daughter-in-law Cheryl in Illinois), Vanda Alekna (Illinois), Vida Stankuniene (Indiana), Vytautas and Brone Volertas (Delaware) not only for the hospitality but, most importantly, for being a great inspiration, and taking me back to my Lithuanian roots.

My dear friends from Pennsylvania, Manish and his beautiful wife Shri; Kathy and Bill – for looking after me while I was doing last minute preparations for the conference in Philadelphia and the healthiest food I have ever tasted.

I also want to thank my dear friend Rosario Rosi – most beautiful American sculptor, whose art inspired me, whose help and support kept me going, and whose friendship I will treasure for the rest of my life.

**FAMILY**

And last but not least, I would like to thank my family.

I want to thank my Mum. Although with her rapidly progressing dementia she may not understand what I am doing (what I am writing till dawn) but she certainly knows that it is very important for me and she will be delighted to see my happy face when it is all finished. If not for her help during those crucial years looking after our young children, I may have stopped pursuing my degree ages ago.

I should also thank my most patient husband for all those long weekends and family holidays without me. He is simply a saint.

I should also be thankful to our beautiful children Lukas and Rachel, who went through the transformation with me by first asking why I was not going to the park with them and daddy always has to play with them. Then, telling their teachers and friends with a pride that mummy is busy because she is doing her PhD. Until very recently – “mum, are you there yet? How long do we still have
to wait until you finish?” I promised that we would finally go together to Scotland for Christmas. They are my greatest motivation and I am longing for quality time together as a family at last!

To my parents-in-law, I cannot thank enough - Douglas (R.I.P) and Vivien, who kindly provided a holiday shelter and entertainment for Paul and the kids while I was working on my PhD at home.

I am also extremely grateful to Tim and Angus – for being the most understanding brothers-in-law (for a great supply of exclusive coffee) and entertaining children while “mummy was writing”.

I will remain forever grateful to all my family, friends and colleagues for allowing me to pursue my academic dream.
Thesis is dedicated to my mother, Aldona Velickiene, who, because of her dementia will never understand its significance, yet she was at the very core of my thesis writing process and will always remain in my heart as the most loving person in the world.

To my two beautiful children, Lukas and Rachel – as a compensation for all those missed holidays and family time

To my rock, to my foundation, to my only survival ‘kit’ – my dearest husband Paul. We can finally go skiing, darling!
1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. A PERSONAL JOURNEY/REFLECTION

As a child, I was very inquisitive, always wanted to know why things were happening, and when I learned it, I shared it with my friends and family by “teaching” them, such as teaching English to my aunts or younger children, as I learnt it in school. As far as I remember I have always wanted to influence and change the world. My first degree was in stage management and directing. I thought that through art and stage production I could make a difference in society. The Soviet Union was at the brink of collapsing at that time so, as soon as Lithuania became independent, my wings were ready to fly abroad. The world was my oyster – whether joining European Youth For(est) Action (EYFA) and coordinating an international women’s project with the aim of empowering women, especially Eastern European women, to take a lead by organizing women’s, or organizing international, environmental camps and teaching about sustainable living. While working in the Netherlands for EYFA I became involved in their mother organization ASEED (Action for Solidarity Equality and Environment) and helped to organize a women’s conference in Greece. It took place in the nowadays infamous Lesvos island with hundreds of migrants landing every day. Back then it was a peaceful and serene place to discuss gender inequalities and get inspired. It was there that I met and was hugely inspired by our key speaker – Margaret Papandreou, a former first lady of Greece. She told us that action was not enough to change the world. There must be a knowledge to support it: “You need to know why and what are you fighting for”. That inspired me to study. I went back to university and earned a master’s degree in social work. But even then I felt I needed to learn more. I wanted to learn how society works and what/who holds the power to influence change. At that time, I did not know anything about agency and structure - I only learned about this dualism of social reality later during my PhD. However, there were so many
changes in Europe: collapse of the Soviet Union, emerging new independent countries (Lithuania was one of them), expanded memberships of the European Union (EU), free movement, etc. The joy of newfound independence and becoming part of the EU brought its own challenges to Lithuania – emigration was one of them.

After moving to the UK and planning my postgraduate studies, I continued following Lithuanian news. Every morning, I would scan Lithuanian news through Lithuanian national papers online. There was hardly a day that an issue concerning Lithuanian migrants was not mentioned in the national papers, from crime abroad conducted by Lithuanians (or against them) to the social impact on left behind children or the migration consequences on the national economy and demography. Until very recently, the biggest national paper, Lietuvos Rytas, used to have an online “Migration” column, as did the most popular Lithuanian news portal – Delfi. That is when the migration topic became my prime focus.

1.2. RESEARCH FOCUS

Migration from Lithuania has been very intense in recent years. According to Statistics Lithuania, over the last ten years (2004–2013), 439,500 people left Lithuania. A total of 107,200 immigrated, giving this decade the largest negative net migration (per 1000 population) in the European Union (Statistics Lithuania, 2014).

In 2007, Lithuania lost almost 3,000 children who emigrated with their parents abroad (Statistics Lithuania, 2008). In 2013, this number increased (0-4 years old– 1,749, 5-9 years old– 1, 749, and 10-14 years old – 1,399) (Official Statistics Portal (OSP), 2013). However, the general trend at the time was that Lithuanians did not leave with their children, at least at the beginning. In 2007, this was what motivated my research the most and I decided to study and answer the question of what happens to those children and their family relationships when either one
or both of their parents move abroad in search of a better life. I wanted to know what price Lithuanian migrants paid for staying in the UK. Was it worth it? What did they gain? What did they lose? How did it affect their families, their self-esteem and their wellbeing? What were their hopes and aspirations? What was the reality? What were their challenges, obstacles, experiences? How did they cope with separation, homesickness and isolation? Was there any support help available from the British social and health services? The aim of my research was to find answers to those questions and the main purpose of my study was:

1. To find out how immigration effects family relationships

2. To identify problems that face families when one of their members emigrates on his/her own.

Since I have started my PhD, there has been a number of studies completed in Lithuania on similar issues that I explored. This validates my belief that Lithuanian migration was, and continues to be, a burning issue and that urgent studies are needed in order to answer this question and understand the consequences, both individual and familial.

In much of the previous literature migration has been portrayed as a problem rather than an opportunity. The findings of those, for example, Kuzmickaite, 2003; VTAKI, 2006; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007; SADM, 2008, suggest that no matter what migration stage people are in, migration undeniably affects family relationships and their personal growth. With my research, I was attempting to look at migrant family relationships by exploring their coping mechanisms, searching not only for their negative but also the positive experiences, not only for their losses but also for their great achievements in migration, personal growth and development.

It was anticipated that implications for intervention, policies and services, concerning immigrant families would be revealed through this study. This
would provide valuable information to the support services and influence their practice both in Lithuania and the UK. This could offer successful interventions that help Lithuanian emigrants to sustain their families when they immigrate to the UK. I also hoped that the result of this study would not only lead the emigrants to sustain their families but also raise awareness among decision-makers and anyone who wants to understand immigration, as Castles (2003) states “one of the burning issues of our times”. In the initial planning stage of my research, I was confident that my study would make a significant contribution to knowledge, because so far the phenomenon of Lithuanian family relationships has not been investigated within the Lithuanian immigrant community in East Anglia and the East Midlands.

1.3. INFORMATION SEARCH ENGINES/TOOLS

In the search for information, I used various search engines such as, Google Scholar, Web of Knowledge, Sciencedirect, DMU databases, including:

1. Subject guides: Psychology; Sociology; Social Work; Youth and Community Work;

2. Databases: Ebsco, ASSIA, IBSS, Scopus, Social Care online, Social Sciences Citation Index, ZETOC, COPAC, LexisNexis Butterworths, Web of Knowledge;

3. Web sites: National Statistics Online; Research in Practice; Official Statistics Portal (OSP); Migration Watch; International Organization for Migration (IOM); European Migration Network (EMN); Migration Statistics Quarterly Reports;

4. E-journals and e-books.
5. The keywords I used: Lithuanian migrants, Lithuanian families in the UK, immigration to the UK, migrant family relationships, and effect of immigration on family relationships, social expediencies of immigrants, adaptation.

1.4. MAIN TERMS. EMIGRATION, IMMIGRATION OR MIGRATION?

According to the Lithuanian Department of Statistics (2013): Emigration is the departure from a country with the intent to take up permanent residence in another country or for a period longer than 12 months. Immigration is the arrival in a country with the intention to take up permanent residence or for a period longer than 12 months.

Bartram et al (2014) define Migration as follows: “International migration is the movement of people to another country, leading to temporary or permanent resettlement” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 4). Since my research is mainly about the transition stage of migration, when people leave their families behind or are left behind, I decided to use the term ‘Migration’ since it encompasses both terms - emigration and immigration.

1.5. THE STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

The thesis is organised into six chapters. Chapter One locates the thesis within a wider context to understand the complexities of Lithuanian migrants’ lives in the UK and how it affects their family relationships. I present the research aims and the main research questions. I also introduce search engine tools I used for my information search. I conclude this chapter with definitions of the main terms: emigration, immigration and migration.

Chapter Two presents a summary of the literature review. It is divided in to three parts. The first part is about global migration and its trends, where I
introduce statistics and discuss global as well as Lithuanian migration patterns. In the second part, I explore family migration issues. I discuss the definition of a ‘family’ concept, and present literature exploring transnational living, the role of kinship and networks in migration process as well as psycho-social effects on individuals and families. The last part of my literature review looks at a wider discussion on why people migrate through an analysis of migration theories.

In Chapter Three, I discuss my methodology. I explore the practical aspects of my research, namely how I selected the research strategy, including the methods adopted for my research, data collection and its analysis. I also look at the concepts of credibility, rigour and trustworthiness and their use in qualitative research. Later, I present two stages of the data collection and the transcribing process as well as the coding and analysis of my data. I also present a summary of the ethical issues considered during the whole research process and I finish this chapter with an evaluation and my personal reflection on the research process.

I present research findings in Chapter Four. This chapter is divided in two parts. In part one, I discuss my core category – “the skeleton” - and all related themes and categories that emerged after the first stage of data collection and analysis. This is presented in the sequence they appeared after initial, interim and advanced coding and analysis. The second part of this chapter displays the final findings after the second part of data collection and analysis.

Chapter Five is dedicated to discussion. I look at my findings in the light of existing literature and highlight my contribution to the knowledge. Following this, I introduce the rationale of social theory and discuss middle-range theories and social dualisms in social research. Furthermore, I discuss the significance ‘agency-structure’ dualism has in explaining social reality and its interpretation based on my findings. I finish this chapter discussing the need for another, more complex explanation of social reality and how it lead me to discover the ‘theory
of social domains’, which prompted a new look and interpretation of my findings.

Chapter Sixth of my thesis is about my contribution, recommendations and personal reflection. It highlights my contribution to the empirical and methodological knowledge. I also make suggestions for further investigation of Lithuanian family migration in the UK and make recommendations for policies and practices. Those recommendations are derived from the participants themselves. They came with a list of suggestions regarding the official support they needed in order to sustain their families and manage the transition stage better. I finished this chapter with a personal reflection on my research journey, including my challenges and joy of discoveries.

In the next chapter, I present a literature review on the existing knowledge of recent migration trends and patterns, studies on family migration and a brief analysis of migration theories. I also discuss my prospective contribution to the knowledge.
2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. INTRODUCTION

In 2007, when I started my literature search with the hope of being flooded with relevant information, I was greatly surprised to find very little, if any, on the Lithuanian family migration experience and its impact on familial relationships. However, I managed to compile a literature survey that revealed three areas of publications relating to the broader social impact of Lithuanian migration. The sources included books, journal articles and news-based Internet sites.

The most relevant study "geographically" was based on a PhD research topic of Eastern European Immigrants (Kopnina, 2005). Other family based studies within the EU included those of Kofman (2004) and Geddes (2003). The former focused on the specific consequences of family-related migration, whereas the latter explored wider policy issues of migration among EU nations. Further studies addressing the impact of immigration outside the EU are those of Smith et al (2004) and Lashley (2000) who studied the Caribbean community (parent-child relationships). These relationships have also been explored by Ransford and Palmer (1990). Finally, an interesting report detailed the immigrant father’s perception of fatherhood. This challenges the notion that immigration is a risk factor for fatherhood (Strier and Roer-Strier, 2005).

The second wave of literature search started when I completed my final research analysis in 2014. Until then, I was restricted by the methodology of grounded theory that does not support nor encourage literature exploration until the theory has finally emerged. This ensures that external “knowledge” does not influence the outcome nor the interpretation of the results.

During the past seven years, it seems that migration literature has really exploded. A number of studies became available, such as: **patterns and trends of**
The field of statistics also expanded. In 2007, I was able to access migration statistics in Lithuania only through the official Lithuania statistics site. Currently, through collaboration among different migration institutions and agencies, joint data bases are available, along with projects such as the website called “the Migration in Numbers”. Data can also be accessed from EMN (European Migration Network), IOM Vilnius Office, Eurostat, etc.

Some of my statistics on the situation in the UK is taken from the official Migration Watch website. I found it a unique and reliable source of information since it is an independent and non-political think-tank having a distinguished advisory service array of professions, including journalism, law, politics, business, medicine and academia.
I decided to divide my literature review into three parts: 1. Global Migration, Trends and Patterns, 2. Family Migration (focusing on family concepts, transnational living, the role of kinship and networks in migration process as well as psycho-social effects on individuals and family) and 3. Migration theories (looking at a wider discussion on why people migrate).

2.2. GLOBAL MIGRATION. TRENDS AND PATTERNS

THE ARTICLE 13 OF THE UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS states, that:

(1) *Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state.*

(2) *Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.* (www.un.org/Overview/rights.html).

The migration process is as old as human civilization. The desire for humans to explore and extend their range of experiences has been part of the psyche for millennia. Migration is the way hunters and gathers colonised new areas with better food sources, shelter and protection. Humans chose to escape natural disasters of famine, floods fire and conflict with other humanoid groups (Hanlon and Vicino, 2014).

According to Castles et al (2014), one of the largest drivers for human migration is the enhanced opportunities or the desire to flee conflict. However, the 16th century saw a change in European migratory movements as well as an expansion due to the Industrial Revolution. This ‘industry-driven’ migration saw a movement of large populations from rural to urban centres, both within and across national borders. A noteworthy large migratory movement occurred from Europe to North America from the 19th Century to World War I. During this period, over 59 million European people headed for new settlement.
opportunities in North/South America, New Zealand, Australia and South Africa. “Some scholars call this the “age of mass migration” and argue that these international movements were even bigger than today’s” (Hatton and Williamson, 1998, cited by Castles et al., 2014, p. 5).

“The 1850 – 1914 period has been perceived (by Western scholars at least) as mainly one of transatlantic migration, while the long-distance movements that started after 1945 and expanded from the 1980s involve all regions of the world” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 5). This large, migratory movement has continued throughout the 20th century into the 21st. According to the United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs (UNDESA), the worldwide migratory total (defined by those people living away from their country of birth for at least 12 months) expanded from around 100 million in 1960 to 2000 to 214 million in 2010. These figures appear high but as a percentage of world population (7 billion), this total migratory figure represents only 3.1% (UN Population Division) (Castles et al., 2014, p. 7).

The trends in migration towards the end of the 20th century reveal some interesting patterns. For example, in the early 1990’s, there was worldwide economic stagnation and this was reflected in a downturn in labour migration. However, during the early 90s, “Western Europe was gripped by fears of uncontrollable mass migrations from the east and the south (Castles and Miller, 1998, p. x). Later it was evident that impoverished people did not migrate ‘en masse’ as predicted/expected, possibly due to strict border control, political resolution and economic stability in Eastern Europe, or, according to Castles and Miller (1998), “because migrants lacked the social networks and cultural capital required for migration” (Castles and Miller, 1998, p. x). Nevertheless, in the mid 90s the increased migratory flows were explained by the political upheavals of that time (Castles and Miller, 1998). These included the collapse of the Soviet Union as well as the dismantling of apartheid in South Africa, the wars and
famine throughout Africa, and the rapid growth and development in Asia. Additionally, Castles and Miller (1998) reported “a shift from dictatorships to unstable and debt plagued democracies in Latin America; and growing economic and political integration in Western Europe. (…). Millions of people are seeking work, a new home or simply a safe place to live outside their countries of birth” (Castle and Miller, 1998, p. 3). A second expansion in migration occurred around 2008 when the economic growth fuelled migration towards new employment opportunities, especially for highly skilled individuals (Castles et al., 2014, p. 116).

On 1 May, 2004 Lithuania joined the EU at the same time as nine other countries. They were known as EU10 and caused an historic enlargement of the EU from 15 to 25 countries, adding almost 75 million citizens to a political and economic group that became 450 million.

The EU10 included “three former Soviet republics (Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania), four former satellites of the USSR (Poland, the Czech Republic, Hungary and Slovakia), a former Yugoslav republic (Slovenia) and two Mediterranean islands (Cyprus and Malta)” (Europa, Summaries of EU legislation, 2014).

According to Castles et al (2014), “Most of the existing member states (the EU15) decided to restrict migration from the new Eastern and Central European member states over the seven–year transitional period, but Ireland, the UK and Sweden opted not to. This stimulated major immigration of Poles and of citizens of Baltic republics, especially Lithuanians, to the UK and Ireland, but not to Sweden (partly due to Labour market conditions)” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 117).
2.2.1. TRENDS AND PATTERNS OF MIGRATION

Most of the world's 6.6 billion people never cross a national border. Most live and die near their place of birth. Those who cross national borders usually move to nearby countries, for example, from Mexico to the United States, or from Turkey to Germany (Martin and Zurcher, 2008, p. 3). The largest flow of migrants is from less developed to more developed countries. The data from the Population Bulletin contradicts this. In 2005, 62 million migrants from developing countries moved to more developed countries. However, almost as many migrants (61 million) moved from one developing country to another. Examples of this include movement from Indonesia to Malaysia. “Large flows of people also move from one industrialized country to another, from Canada to the United States, for example, and much smaller flows move from more developed to less developed countries, such as people from Japan who work in or retire to Thailand” (Martin and Zurcher, 2008, p. 3).

According to Castles et al (2014), international migration has changed its transnational shift from migrant–sending to migrant–receiving societies. Most countries experience both migration trends. Countries such as New Zealand, Australia, Canada and USA are known as ‘classical countries of immigration’. Their current population results from large-scale immigration “to the detriment of indigenous populations” (Castles at al., 2014, p. 14). However, they are no longer the primary destinations of international migration. These have shifted to Northern and Western Europe. “Since the 1980s, Southern European states like Greece, Italy and Spain, which for a long time were zones of emigration, have also become immigration areas, although in recent years emigration has been increasing in response to the global economic crisis. Today Central and Eastern European states are experiencing both significant emigration and immigration” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 14).
“Most countries discourage immigration—they do not welcome the arrival of foreigners who wish to settle and become citizens. Some also discourage emigration. This was the situation in communist nations as symbolized by the Berlin Wall, which was used to deter crossing from East to West Germany between 1961 and 1989” (Martin and Zurcher, 2008, p. 4). Today North Korea continues to prevent its citizens from leaving the country, which was also the case for citizens of the former Soviet Union. All 15 republics of the Soviet Union were tied up within one big country, so it was no surprise that, at independence, membership of the EU became an aspiration. Once European borders became more porous, Lithuanians rushed to see another world and chose the UK as their primary destination.

UK IN NUMBERS

According to the Office of National Statistics (ONS), net migration (the difference between immigration and emigration) to the UK was 243,000 people in the year ending March 2014. The Migration Watch graph below shows how the statistics fit into the wider context of net migration to the UK from 1975.

Figure 1: Net Migration the UK 1975 – 2013, Source. Migration Watch/ONS 2014
The ONS (2014) admitted that “net migration estimates for the UK for 2001-2011 have been revised in light of the results of the 2011 Census. The Census showed that net migration was underestimated during the preceding decade, with the largest single cause likely to have been underestimation of immigration of EU8 citizens in the years following Accession in 2004” (Migration Watch, 2014).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>All Citizenships</th>
<th>British</th>
<th>Non-British</th>
<th>EU</th>
<th>Non-EU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immigration</td>
<td>560,000</td>
<td>81,000</td>
<td>479,000</td>
<td>214,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emigration</td>
<td>316,000</td>
<td>131,000</td>
<td>186,000</td>
<td>83,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Migration</td>
<td>243,000</td>
<td>-50,000</td>
<td>293,000</td>
<td>131,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1: Net Migration by Region. Source: Migration Watch

This table shows how the patterns of migration vary between EU citizens (excluding British citizens) and non-EU citizens. “Net migration of non-EU citizens was 162,000 in the year ending March 2014. Net migration of non-EU citizens has been declining since 2011, although the latest estimates suggest this recent decline may have ended. Net migration of EU citizens was 131,000 in the year ending March 2014, a statistically significant increase from 95,000 in the previous year. This increase has been driven by increased levels of immigration and steady emigration” (ONS, 2014).

Migration Watch clarifies that “of the 131,000 Net Migration from the EU, 63,000 was estimated to come from the EU15 and 44,000 was from the A8” (Migration Watch, 2014).
According to Migration Watch, the UK population in mid-2013 was 64.1 million and the average net migration (2003 – 2013) was 238,000. Migration Watch warns that if net migration is allowed to continue at these levels, the population of the UK will reach 70 million in 2026 and will increase by 10 million in 20 years.

A founder of Migration Watch, Sir Andrew Green, was made a peer for “his tireless work campaigning for stricter immigration controls” (The Daily Mail, 2014, 22nd Oct. p. 24). Initially Watch group was treated with resentment as it experienced hostile backlash when it sought to warn (based on the projected trend) Britain of an impending population to grow of two million over the course of one decade. “Since then Migration Watch has published dozens of reports on population growth, the numbers of houses required to cope with immigration and the pressure it causes on the NHS and class sizes” (The Daily Mail, 2014, 22nd Oct. p. 24).

According to The Daily Mail (2014) Sir Andrew foresaw the likely consequences of Britain failing to impose transitional controls on Poland and seven other Eastern European countries which joined the EU in 2004, when the government predicted only 13,000 arrivals a year. The true number, however, had reached a million within a few years. In 2013, when the Home Office refused to predict how many people might arrive from Romania and Bulgaria after restrictions on their ability to work here were lifted in January, only Migration Watch had the courage to respond. “The group estimate of 50,000 a year appears on course, once again proving Sir Andrew right” (The Daily Mail, 2014, 22nd Oct. p. 24).

In regards to Migration Policy, Migration Watch (2014) suggests that:

1. Net migration must eventually be brought down to around 40,000 per year if the UK population is to be stabilised.
2. Non-EU net migration has fallen by a third since 2010 and is now around 140,000 a year. Further reductions are needed.

3. EU migration has risen sharply in recent years to 125,000 a year. Some modification of EU free movement will be necessary, at least for as long as immigration pressures persist.

However, they do suggest no restrictions on:

1. Free movement of genuine students who leave at the end of their studies.

2. Adequate scope for key workers from overseas to fill skills gaps while British workers are trained.

3. Refuge for genuine asylum seekers.

Migration Watch raises the question: Where do net migrants come from? Data shows that “traditionally most net migration to the UK has been from outside the EU but this has been declining over the last decade. Meanwhile, EU migration has been increasing and is now almost at a similar level” Migration Watch (2014).
According to ONS (2014) one of the main reasons to migrate is to “better oneself” economically by finding employment. However, the ONS (2014) have highlighted that the second reason to migrate is for educational needs. There has been a historic drop in migration due to economic downturns between 2009 - 2012. Nevertheless, migrants numbers rose in March 2014 from 190,000 to 228,000, an increase of 20% (ONS, 2014). Student inflow has bucked some of the economic turmoil and in 2008 Migration Watch identified a sharp increase in student migratory numbers. The recent government change with respect to the visa requirements has caused a sharp fall, particularly in the FE sector of UK education. Other reasons for migration remain constant, excluding a 40% increase in those travelling to join others (ONS, March, 2014).
2.2.2. EU MIGRANTS IN THE UK

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EU 15</th>
<th>EU8</th>
<th>EU2</th>
<th>EU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(excluding the United Kingdom) Austria, Belgium, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, the Irish Republic, Italy (including The Vatican), Luxembourg, Netherlands, Portugal, Spain and Sweden.</td>
<td>Czech Republic, Estonia, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Poland, Slovakia and Slovenia.</td>
<td>Romania and Bulgaria.</td>
<td>EU15, EU8 and EU2 countries plus Cyprus, Malta and Croatia (from July 2013).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2: EU countries by 2014 (ONS, 2014)

Comparisons of EU graphs show that, while EU8 citizens migrate at a steady rate, those immigrating from EU2 and EU15 countries (please see Figure 2 above) have significantly increased (ONS, 2014). Their reasons appear similar, with 72% and 79% of migrants seeking employment from EU15 and EU8 respectively.

“The latest estimates from the International Passenger Survey show that in the year ending March 2014, 107,000 EU15 citizens, 60,000 EU8 citizens and 28,000 EU2 citizens migrated to the UK. Immigration of EU15 and EU2 citizens have shown a statistically significant increase relative to the previous year, whilst immigration of EU8 citizens has remained relatively steady compared to the previous year. 64% of migrants from the EU15 arrived for work, compared to 72% of migrants from the EU8 and 79% of migrants from the EU2” (ONS, 2014).
2.2.2.1. TRENDS IN MIGRATION

Long-term international migration (LTIM) of EU citizens, UK, 1975 – 2014 (year ending March 2014). LTIM has always increased at a steady rate. The number of people moving from the EU to the UK each year has been estimated at 20,000 in the mid 70’s up to 60,000 in the late 90’s. In 2007, the inclusion of Malta and Cyprus into the EU (now EU10) caused a steep increase in EU net migration. However, from 2008 EU citizens left the UK, presumably due to the tougher labour market conditions in the UK during the financial crisis. It was not until 2012 – 2013 that net – migration from the EU began to increase, regaining its earlier levels within a few years. The ONS (2014) found, via LTIM estimates, that the immigration of EU15 group citizens increased by around 22% in one year, compared to that of EU8 citizens, which showed a more modest 9.5% increase. By contrast, although involving fewer people, the EU2 group of countries marked by ONS (2014) increased by approximately 230% from 12,000 to 28,000 in the same time period (ONS, 2014).


Figure 3: International Passenger Survey estimates of long-term international immigration of EU citizens, UK, 2003 – 2014 (year ending March 2014). ONS, 2014
ONS Migration Statistics Quarterly Report, August 2014 state data according to the latest International Passenger Survey (IPS). In the year ending March 2014, 107,000 EU15 citizens, 60,000 EU8 citizens and 28,000 EU2 citizens migrated to the UK (ONS, 2014).

2.2.2.2. WHY DO EU MIGRANTS COME TO THE UK?

The IPS records show a person’s main reasons for migration is to work (Table 3). However, they also state that this may not be the person’s sole reason for migration.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Main Reasons for Migration</th>
<th>EU27</th>
<th>EU15</th>
<th>EU8</th>
<th>EU2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(thousands)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Related</td>
<td>1.187</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Formal Study</td>
<td>248</td>
<td>166</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accompany/Join</td>
<td>589</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>250</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>273</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3: Estimated population of EU nationals resident in the United Kingdom by Main Reasons of Migration, January 2013 to December 2013, ONS, 2014

“The category “Accompany/Join” includes those respondents who arrived to the UK as a spouse/dependent of a UK citizen, or as a spouse/dependent on someone coming to the UK.

The category “Other” includes those respondents who arrived to the UK to either get married /form civil partnership, to seek asylum, as a visitor, or for other reasons not stated” (ONS, 2014).
Work

According to the ONS (2014), approximately two-thirds of EU citizens immigrating to the UK migrated primarily for work in the year ending December 2013. In 2014, there has also been a statistically significant increase in immigration of both EU15 and EU2 citizens for work. By contrast, inflows of EU8 citizens for work have remained relatively stable over the last year (ONS, 2014).

National Insurance Number (NINo) allocations for the year ending June 2014 showed a 6% increase in allocations to EU nationals overall, compared to the previous year (ONS, 2014). The largest increases in the number of allocations were to nationals of Romania (up 46,000 to 63,000), Bulgaria (up 12,000 to 22,000) and Italy (up 3,000 to 39,000). The highest number of registrations continued to be to Polish citizens (92,000) (ONS, 2014).

Study

Approximately 20% (38,000) of long-term immigrants to the UK from the EU migrated for study in the year ending March 2014. Numbers of EU students have remained fairly stable over the last 5 years. Citizens of EU15 countries accounted for 26,000 of the EU students in the year ending March 2014 (ONS, 2014).

Other reasons

Other reasons for immigrating to the UK include accompanying or joining friends and relatives, asylum seeking and returning home to live. IPS estimates show that there was a statistically significant increase of 9,000 in citizens of EU8 countries immigrating to the UK to accompany or join family or friends in the year ending March 2014 compared to 4,000 in the previous year.
2.2.3. LITHUANIAN POPULATION IN THE UK

In 2013, according to the ONS (2013), 140,000 Lithuanians ranked 15th in the highest overseas-born population in the UK (Table 4). They were the second largest EU8 group after Poland, which had an estimated 690,000 Polish residents in the UK. India topped the UK population table with approximately 734,000 overseas-born individuals residing in the UK.
Table 4: Estimate overseas born population resident in the United Kingdom by sex and country of birth. January 2013 to December 2013, ONS, 2014

However, other estimate tables ranked according to nationality and gender, show Lithuania as the fifth largest group (see Table 5).

The ONS (2014) notes, “Nationality refers to that stated by the respondent during the interview. Country of birth is the country in which they were born. It is
possible that an individual’s nationality may change, but the respondent’s country of birth cannot change. This means that country of birth gives a more robust estimate of changes over time” (ONS, 2014).

Two main reasons were given for the differences between nationality and country of birth (ONS, 2014). The first was due to the ‘remainers’ applying for citizenship, and the second was due to returning children born overseas to British parents as is the case within military families (ONS, 2014).

According to the Population by Country of Birth and Nationality report, (ONS, August 2014) the top five non-British resident-types in the UK were those from Poland, India, Republic of Ireland, Pakistan and Lithuania. “Comparing estimates for 2013 with those for 2011 and 2012, there were no significant changes, although Lithuania has appeared in the top 5 most common non-British national countries for the first time since the APS (Annual Population Survey) began in 2004, replacing the United States of America, which had previously appeared in the top five every year since the APS began in 2004” (ONS, 2014).
Table 5: Estimated population of overseas nationals resident in the United Kingdom, by nationality. January 2013 – December 2013, ONS, 2014, thousands

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>United Kingdom (K02000001)</th>
<th>Yorkshire and the Humber (E12000003)</th>
<th>East Midlands (E12000004)</th>
<th>East (E12000006)</th>
<th>Northern Ireland (N92000002)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>726</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of Ireland</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>25</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes: “Estimates are based on the Annual Population Survey (APS) which is the Labour Force Survey (LFS) plus various sample boosts.

It should also be noted that the LFS:

- Excludes students in halls who do not have an UK resident parent
- Excludes people in most other types of communal establishments (e.g. hotels boarding houses, hostels, mobile homes sites, etc.)” (ONS, 2014).

According to the official population residential tables, Lithuanians represent the highest migratory inflow to Northern Ireland, Yorkshire and to the East of the UK (including the East Midlands). The research area for this PhD is in the East of the UK, which offers a rich data pool to study. As such, most of my respondents reside in the East Midlands and East Anglia.

In January 2013, The Guardian published an article by Helen Pidd entitled, “Baltic exchange: meet the Lithuanians who have made Britain their home”. Apart from
telling a story about the youngest gold medalist in the London Olympics (Lithuanian Ruta Meilutyte), it is one of very few positive articles about Lithuanians in the UK and reveals pertinent data from the 2011 census, “Where they live: Lithuania's UK hotspots (2011 census)” (*The Guardian*, 2013, 7th Jan.), Table 6.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lithuanian Population</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>2001 Population</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8,348</td>
<td>Newham</td>
<td>360</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4,028</td>
<td>Barking and Dagenham</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,712</td>
<td>Peterborough</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3,500</td>
<td>Waltham Forest</td>
<td>121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2,827</td>
<td>Redbridge</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,979</td>
<td>Greenwich</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,861</td>
<td>Boston, Lincolnshire</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,738</td>
<td>King’s Lynn and West Norfolk</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,651</td>
<td>Fenland</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,332</td>
<td>Lewisham</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,292</td>
<td>Ealing</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,206</td>
<td>South Holland, Lincolnshire</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,140</td>
<td>Tower Hamlets</td>
<td>102</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6: Distribution of Lithuanian population in the UK. Source: *The Guardian* (2013)/2011 Census

### 2.3. LITHUANIAN MIGRATION

“A core principle of the EU is “freedom of movement,” meaning that an EU national may travel to another EU member state and live, study, or work on an equal basis with native-born residents” (Martin and Zurcher, 2008, p. 11). Lithuanians embraced this freedom and became the second largest Eastern European nation residing and working in the UK (see Table 7).
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>All Residents</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>726</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>373</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>159</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of Ireland</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>185</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>147</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7: Estimated population of overseas nationals residents in the United Kingdom by sex and by nationality (Jan 2013 – December 2013) (ONS, 2014)

2.3.1. LITHUANIA IN THE CONTEXT OF EU MIGRATION TRENDS

The Table 8 below shows net migration rates across the EU countries.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Net migration</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>-7.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>-7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>-5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>-4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portugal</td>
<td>-3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Estonia</td>
<td>-2.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cyprus</td>
<td>-0.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bulgaria</td>
<td>-0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>-0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovenia</td>
<td>0.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Slovakia</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>0.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Romania</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>0.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Czech Republic</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hungary</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>2.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finland</td>
<td>3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belgium</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>4.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>5.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>6.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malta</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Luxembourg</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 8: Net migration in EU Member States per thousand residents, 2012,
Source: Eurostat 2014
According to the EMN (European Migration Network), “a country has a positive net migration rate, if the number of immigrants exceeds the number of emigrants, i.e. United Kingdom. On the contrary, countries such as Lithuania or Ireland have negative net migration rates because there are more people leaving the country than coming to it. Another example is Poland. In 2012, almost 276,000 people left the country but at the same time, immigration was high at 218,000. Due to the large population of Poland, its net migration rate is just – 0.2%” (EMN, 2013).

2.3.2. REASONS TO MIGRATE

Martin and Zurcher (2008) found the decision of international migration by an individual or family was carefully considered with reason(s) that fell into two main groups – the economic and non-economic reasons. Factors that affect the decision(s) are either demand-pull, supply-push and/or networks (Martin and Zurcher, 2008, pp. 4-5).

In their executive summary on Social Impact of Emigration and Rural – Urban Migration in Central and Eastern Europe, Poviliunas and Krupickaite (2012) explain why Lithuania shows the highest migration rates in EU: “There are several socio-economic push factors (…) These include low overall employment, high rates of youth unemployment, high numbers of minimum monthly wage earners (even during periods of economic growth), a prevalent in-work poverty among low-educated single parents with dependent children, a low minimum income scheme, weak social safety nets and the accumulated experience of emigration” (Poviliunas and Krupickaite, 2012, p. 1).

Although IOM figures show that the main reason for Lithuanians to leave their country is financial, a survey carried out by IOM Vilnius revealed that other socio-economic factors, such as social insecurity, lack of justice, unacceptable work
relationships and better career opportunities play a big role in people’s decision to move abroad (IOM, 2011).

Kuzmickaite (2003), EMN (2013), argue that, although the vast majority of people emigrate for economic reasons, migration studies also indicate that the decision to emigrate is influenced by a combination of different factors. These may include a lack of social security and justice, no trust in the state, demeaning attitude(s) of employers toward employees and/or better work opportunities abroad (EMN, 2013). Along with socio-economic reasons, Kuzmickaite (2003) emphasized personal reasons for people to leave Lithuania. These may be the cutting the ties with dysfunctional family and/or seeking professional growth and fulfilment. A study by Rakauskiene and Ranceva (2012) showed that the fundamental reasons to leave Lithuania were due to an “ineffective economic policy and the lack of self-realization opportunities in Lithuania” (Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012, p. 1). The results of their research showed that people with higher education (aged 26 to 35) living in urban areas and earning higher wages were much keener to emigrate because of better career prospects abroad. “That is why smart youth tending towards professional development (especially researchers, scientists) leave Lithuania. They cannot find an appropriate niche for themselves, lacking professional, spiritual, intellectual and creative environment” (Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012 p. 254). The authors explained the reason why young educated people left Lithuania, namely the country’s inability to recognise intellectual potential and a subsequent lack of opportunity for self-realization (Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012).

2.3.3. MIGRANTS’ PROFILE

According to the IOM (2011), most Lithuanian migrants are young, single and well educated. For example, in 2010, 55% of emigrants were 20–35 years old; 52% were female and 50% had upper secondary education. Additionally, 25% had higher and professional education. According to Statistics Lithuania, 73% of
emigrants are between 15 and 44 years old. In stark contrast to this, fewer than half (40%) of Lithuania’s residents belong to this age group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age group</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Residents</td>
<td>Emigrants</td>
<td>Residents</td>
<td>Emigrants</td>
<td>Residents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-14</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>10.2%</td>
<td>14.9%</td>
<td>10.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-24</td>
<td>14.6%</td>
<td>24.1%</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>28.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-34</td>
<td>13.0%</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>33.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35-44</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
<td>16.3%</td>
<td>13.9%</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
<td>15.2%</td>
<td>8.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55-64</td>
<td>11.0%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
<td>11.4%</td>
<td>2.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>65+</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
<td>17.9%</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9: Emigrants who declared their departure and permanent Lithuanian residents by age groups. Source: Statistic Lithuania

According to the IOM, family emigration is also on the rise. “Until recently, migrant parents preferred to leave their children with extended families while they were abroad but this trend is changing now. More parents take their children along with them when they leave. Such emigration, when all family members leave the country, highly reduces the chances of return migration in the future” (IOM, 2011).

DESTINATION

“Countries that attract the highest numbers of migrants from Lithuania have been changing over time. Prior to the accession to the EU, it was the Russian Federation, Commonwealth of Independent States and the USA that attracted the highest numbers of migrants from Lithuania” (EMN, 2011).
The Table 10 shows which continent receives the most immigrants from Lithuania.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Continent</th>
<th>2010</th>
<th>2011</th>
<th>2012</th>
<th>2013</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Europe</td>
<td>78981</td>
<td>50833</td>
<td>38493</td>
<td>35941</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. North America</td>
<td>3039</td>
<td>2041</td>
<td>1717</td>
<td>1521</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Asia and Oceania</td>
<td>928</td>
<td>833</td>
<td>739</td>
<td>1203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Africa</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. South and Central</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Not indicated</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Unknown</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10: (EMN) Emigrants by the destination continent, 2013. Source: Statistics Lithuania

Statistics Lithuania explains that the UK remains the main destination country for Lithuanian migrants due to its well-established social networks. The UK is followed by Ireland and Germany in popularity. According to the EMN, in 2010 approximately 50% of emigrants moved to the UK and 15% to Ireland. Norway (5.8%), Germany (4.6%) and Spain (4.3%) were other popular destinations. However, the data of Lithuania statistics show that since 2010, emigration to Scandinavian countries, especially Norway, has been on the rise. In the beginning of 2013, around 50,000 Lithuanians resided in Norway.
Table 11: (EMN) The number of Lithuanian citizens who reside abroad, beginning of 2013. Source: Migration Department

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United Kingdom</td>
<td>135000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ireland</td>
<td>84958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>46690</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>45000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>27751</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spain</td>
<td>22316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>USA</td>
<td>13951</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denmark</td>
<td>8657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>7745</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belarus</td>
<td>5011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Italy</td>
<td>4524</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3.4. CONSEQUENCES OF LITHUANIAN MIGRATION

2.3.4.1. POSITIVE CONSEQUENCES OF LITHUANIAN MIGRATION

In 2012, Kukonenko’s (2012) published “Causes and Consequences of Lithuanian Migration”. The most positive consequences of Lithuanian migration were reported to be:

1. Increases of Lithuanian influence in the World

2. Gained experience abroad

3. Remittance sent to Lithuania
4. Resolution of social and economic problems

5. Cultural exchange

6. Decrease of social tension in labour market and society.

According to Statistics Lithuania, in 2013 the financial flow by Lithuanian citizens from abroad amounted to 5.345,61 billion Lithuanian Litas, the equivalent of 4.5% of gross domestic product (GDP). Compared to 2012, this financial flow increased by almost a third. Generally, remittances from abroad are used for basic consumption. On the aggregate scale, they help reduce financial pressure on family members left in Lithuania during economic slowdowns (Statistics Lithuania, 2014).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years</th>
<th>Total (million Ltl)</th>
<th>Remittances and GDP ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>2946.47</td>
<td>2.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2008</td>
<td>2993.11</td>
<td>2.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2009</td>
<td>2418.7</td>
<td>2.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2010</td>
<td>3386.92</td>
<td>3.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2011</td>
<td>3966.33</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2012</td>
<td>3557.67</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2013</td>
<td>4760.49</td>
<td>3.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12: (EMN) Private remittances and some other derivative factors. Source: Central Bank of the Republic of Lithuania

2.3.4.2. NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION

Castles and Miller (1998) argue that the “impact of migration is much greater than the small percentage suggests. People tend to move not individually, but in
groups. Their departure may have considerable consequences for social and economic relationships in the area of origin” (Castles and Miller, 1998, p. 5).

Poviliunas and Krupickaite (2012) argue that “emigration affects demographics in Lithuania (e.g., with a negative impact on marriage, fertility rates, families) and in the longer run might influence labour resource developments (e.g. shortages of labour). Lithuania is primarily losing young people and people of employable age. Most emigrants who have not declared their departure are low-skilled workers, but the percentages of high-skilled workers and emigrants with a higher education level are relatively high and rising. The impact of emigration on the economy is increasing” (Poviliunas and Krupickaite, 2012, p. 1).

Statistics Lithuania (2014) echoes these concerns regarding the future of Lithuania. By their calculation, Lithuania has lost a larger proportion of youthful working-force (73 % were 15-44 years old) than the very young or older workers. In Lithuania’s population, fewer than half (40%) of residents are between 15–44 years old. Emigrants who were over 65 years old accounted for 1.8% in Lithuania, whereas citizens over 65 years old constituted 18%. The consequence would likely undermine the development of Lithuania. “First, the labour market might suffer from shortages of workers, especially those who can add value to the economy. Second, the burden on workers will increase as they will have to support more non-working people (i.e. those receiving benefits)” (Statistics Lithuania, 2014).

Among the most negative consequences, Kukonenko (2012) mentions the loss of social capital, social problems that children experience after being left behind, a decrease in tax revenue contributions, the above mentioned demographic changes, the net-out flow of labour migration, and/or human trafficking. Rakauskiene and Ranceva (2012) go even further in revealing demographic, social and economic consequences as a result of emigration from Lithuania. “One of the most severe consequences of emigration in Lithuania is diminishing
intellectual potential of the country as the smartest youth and high-qualified specialists are leaving the country. In this case, Lithuania faces a real threat of falling behind the successfully developing states. Emigration causes great danger to Lithuania. According to the forecasts of Eurostat and the United Nations (UN), Lithuania will no longer have 3 million inhabitants by 2035. This will inevitably impact the labour market: with decreasing supply of labour power and the number of working inhabitants, it will be harder to support healthcare and social security systems funded from tax money; the need for those services will increase as the society is getting older. Therefore, the increasing scale of emigration creates dangerous demographic, economic and social consequences for Lithuania” (Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012, p. 246).

The ‘brain drain’ is another widely discussed consequence of migration from Lithuania (MacDonald, 2010; Kukonenko, 2012; Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012). They emphasise the impact of the brain drain on academic society, with particular focus on the development of the sciences. “It is necessary to emphasise that despite general acceptance that science is the driving force of contemporary economics of knowledge, science is still not a priority in Lithuania” (Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012, p. 255).

An area that is not universally recognised in literature is the impact of migration on the migrant family: those leaving the home country and those left behind. Kuzmickaite, 2003; Leliugiene et al., 2005; Malinauskas, 2006, 2007, 2011; Maslauskaite, 2007; Kukoneno, 2012; Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012, are among the authors who have recognised this in the Lithuanian context. “As far as partial migration is concerned, where one or both parents go to work abroad and the family remains in Lithuania, the social capital of Lithuania, the family, is weakened. The conception of family as a value and the sense of family stability weakens” (Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012, p. 247). It is this area of research I
wish to expand upon in this PhD. I look at the family and migration literature in the second part of my literature review.

2.4. FAMILY MIGRATION

2.4.1. HOW WIDE AND DEEP HAS MIGRATION PHENOMENON BEEN INVESTIGATED

Numerous scholars have explored the migration phenomenon from different perspectives: family-related migration (Kofman, 2004); the politics of migration and immigration in Europe (Drbohlav, 1997; Stalker, 2002; Geddes, 2003), social cohesion and social capital building among Hispanic migrant families (Cheong, 2006), racial discrimination of immigrants (Mahalingham, 2006), post-war migration in Europe (Morokvasic, 2004), EU enlargement (Krasus and Schvager, 2004), demographic and socioeconomic consequences in the UK and Europe (Coleman, 1995).

With my research I focus on the impact of immigration on Lithuanian families and their relationships. Since there is very little academic literature written on the Lithuanian migrant family experience, I explore the effect of migration on the family by referring to studies mostly researched outside Lithuania.

There is a thread of major themes that goes through migration literature. Effect of migration on:

Children (Lashley, 2000; Smith et al., 2004; VTAKI, 2006; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007; SADM, 2008);

Adolescents (Bulik, 1987; Lashley, 2000; Arnold, 2006);

Old migrants and their health issues (Bowlby, 1961; Parkes, 1971; Slonim-Nevo et al., 1995; Anson et al., 1996; Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000; Stenberg, 2000; Zilber, 2001);
Family transition (Roer-Strier et al., 2005; Segal and Mayadas, 2005; Moin and Sharlin, 2006);

Family relationships (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007; Hadas et al., 2008);

Migrant adaptation and adjustment issues (Cochrane and Stopes-Roe, 1977; Roer-Strier, 1996; Stenberg, 2000; Segal, 2002; Papadopoulos et al., 2004; Segal and Mayadas, 2005; Van Ecke, 2005; Moin and Sharlin, 2006; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007).

I discuss these themes in the following sections of my review.

2.4.2. DISCUSSION ON FAMILY CONCEPT

My research shows that migration experiences are complex, both from sociological and psychological perspectives. These experiences involve dealing with challenges such as relocation and “doing family” from a distance. They also involve an array of emotions associated with loss and separation, as well as adapting to new family roles and responsibilities. In this part of my literature review, I look at the literature that explores some migration challenges.

Before studying the literature on migration consequences on a family, I had to consider the concept of family as an institution from a sociological perspective. The questions I was trying to answer were the following: of what does a family consist of? How does it function? Are there any pre-assigned/pre-defined family roles to fulfil?

While searching the literature for family and kinship definitions, I could not find a common concept. Giddens and Sutton (2013) explain why there is a divided opinion about the ‘family’ concept: “this is not easy, as there is no generally or universally agreed definition of ‘family’ in sociology. (...) many sociologists argue that we cannot discuss ‘the family’ as if there is just one model of family life that is more or less universal. The evidence is clear that there are many different
family forms - heterosexual families, same-sex families, step-families, single-parent families and more. (...). So, although we may often discuss ‘the family’ as a key social institution, it is vital to remember the variety this generalization covers” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 383). However, to discuss family phenomenon in his work, Giddens and Sutton (2013) adopt “established working definitions of family”, such as *kinship*, *marriage* and a *household*. I found them invaluable while working on my research. Firstly, they define **family** as “a group of persons directly linked by kin connections, the adult members of whom assume responsibility for caring for children” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 384). Then they explain the concept of **kinship**. According to Giddens and Sutton (2013) “kinship ties are connections between the individuals, established either through marriage or through the lines of descent that connect blood relatives (mothers, fathers, siblings, offspring, and so on)” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 384).

Giddens and Sutton (2013) also define the concepts of **nuclear** and **extended families** and elaborate on the notions of **marriage** and a **household**. According to them: “marriage – (...) socially acknowledged and approved sexual union between two adult individuals, though this is not universally true for all cultures (...). Family relationships are always recognized within wider kinship groups. In many societies, we can identify what sociologists and anthropologists call the **nuclear family** - two adults living together with their own or adopted children in a **household**. However, a household is a more general concept covering single individuals or groups of people who share a common housing unit, common living rooms and the essentials for living, such as food. In most small-scale societies, the nuclear family was part of a larger kinship network. When close relatives other than a married couple and children live either in the same household or in close and continuous relationship with one another, we speak of an **extended family**. This may include grandparents,
brothers and their wives, sisters and their husbands, aunts and nephews” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 384).

2.4.2.1. DIVERSITY AND CHANGE IN FAMILIES AND HOUSEHOLDS

My research on the Lithuanian community in the UK is impacted by the key features of the European family. According to Giddens and Sutton (2013) these include the following:

“1. The partnership is monogamous and monogamy is established in law (…).

2. European marriage is based on the idea of romantic love or “affective individualism” (…).

3. Western European families are generally patrilineal and neo-local. Patrilineal inheritance involves children taking the surname of the father. (…). Many indigenous Native American tribal groups developed matrilineal systems in which surnames and often property passed down the female line. A neo-local residence pattern involves a married couple moving into dwelling away from both of their families. Many families, particularly in poorer, working-class or South Asian neighbourhoods, are matrilocal – the newlyweds settle in an area close to where the bride’s parents live (if the couple lives near or with the groom’s parents, it is called patrilocal)” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 391).

The fourth and last point in defining European family is that “the nuclear family consists of one or two parents living in a household with their children, even though nuclear family units are not entirely isolated from other kin ties” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, pp. 390–391).

On the other hand, Chambers (2012) points out the research by the CAVA (Care, Values and the Future of Welfare) research program at Leeds University which demonstrated that “the group of people that we identify as ‘my family’ is no longer necessarily the same as those living in our own household. Many people
experience close relationships that stretch out beyond their own to other households as a result of divorce, step-parents and children, cohabitation, and wider family relationships, and through same-sex partnerships and friendships. These links may even traverse countries and continents via migration processes” (Williams, 2004, cited by Chambers, 2012, p. 43).

All of the above mentioned definitions were useful to consider before I formulated my research questions. First of all, it helped me to draw a clear line between a family and a household. It also helped me to choose the type of field I wanted to study – whether to study migration experiences of a married couple with children, or could my research equally benefit from the analysis of Lithuanian household in the UK. I found it important to have a clear definition of family, both nuclear and extended, since operationalisation using the correct concept is essential for increasing reliability and validity in any research project. To this end, I define the Lithuanian family based on the following studies below.

2.4.2.2. LITHUANIAN ‘FAMILY’

Leonaviciute and Juozeliuniene (2009) conducted a sociological research in Lithuania. Their focus was on “families with parents abroad as multi-local parents-situated in several households in different countries”. Scholars tried to find out if families with parents abroad and separated by labour migration were regarded as true families. They drew attention to the term ‘family household’, where a multi-local family could be divided between different locations. In contrast, the household of a migrant family is located in a receiving country (Leonaviciute and Juozeliuniene, 2009, p. 87). Their survey of 264 respondents asking if they regard multi-local “social groups/units” as a ‘family’ revealed that 68.5% said yes, provided they met three criteria, namely, the parents were married, had children and lived in the same household. Less immediate social groups, such as parents, children and grandparents were regarded as extended families by 93.9% of respondents. However, couples with no children were
regarded as family only by 83.3 % of respondents. It is interesting to note that the presence of children played a bigger role in deciding whether the “social unit” was considered a family. Cohabitating couples with and without children were regarded as family by 71.6% and 25.4% respectively (Leonaviciute and Juozeliuniene, 2009).

Adult siblings (brothers and sisters/uncles and aunties) living in the same household were regarded as family by 68.3% of respondents. However, 35.1% considered living together but not blood-related social groups of people as a family. These values decreased with “living-apart–together” social units (LAT – couples having intimate relationships but living separately). Only 28% of respondents regarded these as family.

To understand what constitutes a Lithuanian family, 2000 respondents were studied by Cesnuityte in 2012. She raised the hypothesis: “for the population of Lithuania a family is associated not only with the modern nuclear family but also with extended family members and people beyond the nuclear and extended families. That means that the family concept, characteristic to the postmodern society, is emerging in the minds of people in Lithuania” (Cesnuityte, 2012, p. 270). In order to test her hypothesis, the database of representative quantitative sociological studies was used. Research results confirmed the research hypothesis: “in the mind of the population of Lithuania, the concept of family has characteristics that are close to the postmodern family concept” (Cesnuityte, 2012, p. 270).

The research findings that led to such a conclusion are as follows: 1) although the majority of the population (70%) associate their family with the modern nuclear family, Lithuanians are not completely and totally focused on the nuclear family. Among the members of a family, they identify persons from their extended family and persons beyond the nuclear and extended families. 2) One tenth of the population named a partner (boyfriend or cohabitant), a former spouse or a
former partner (boyfriend or cohabitant) as family members. This demonstrates the orientation of part of the population towards a non-traditional family model. 3) Among other features worth mentioning within the concept of family, includes that of kinship of the maternal line being dominant. This partly reflects the changing roles and influence of men and women in the family, which is characteristic to the postmodern family. 4) The named family members are not limited to one or two generations and include persons from three or more generations, that is, according to the prominent sociologists, characteristic of the future family (Cesnuityte, 2012, p. 270).

I will argue, the Lithuanian migrant family structure is very complex and cannot be put in a simple definition of a family unit, e.g. nuclear family. My findings show that it is not about who Lithuanian family is, but how people function together and how they maintain meaningful relationships through separation during the transition stage. While searching for a family definition in the literature, it became apparent that a family is more of a verb (what do they do) rather than a noun (who they are). In the end, I came across the work of family sociologist David H. J. Morgan.

2.4.2.3. FAMILY PRACTICES

While discussing family life, Giddens and Sutton (2013) recommend an alternative - to use David Morgan’s (1999)’s term ‘family practices’, meaning “doing the family” – as an activity rather than a defined concept. This, according to McCarthy and Edwards (2011), helps better understand family’s dynamics and its functions. It also gives a much broader perspective on family phenomenon. Giddens and Sutton (2013) quote Morgan (1999): “all of those activities engaged in by people which they perceive to be part of ‘family life’. This theoretical shift means that “Family” represents a constructed quality of human interaction or an active process rather than a think-like object of detached social investigation” (Morgan, 1999, cited by Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 383).
In his book “Rethinking Family Practices” (2011), Morgan explains why he had difficulty in using family concept. “The term ‘The Family’ not only simplified a large range of practices, statuses and experiences, but it also carried some normative baggage that disadvantaged certain groups in society, not only gays and lesbians, but also lone parents, couples without children and people living on their own for a variety of reasons” (Morgan, 2011, p. 4).

He explains further, “Studies of work and employment raised questions about the relationships between attitudes and practices within the workplace and commitments and involvements outside. The “life” in the phrase “work/life balance” was normally understood to refer to family obligations. In a slightly different way, I argued that developing areas of interest to do with, for example, Time, Space and The Body could also be seen to have a family dimension. In short, in order to study family life you did not necessarily have to begin with those areas conventionally associated with the word “family” such as parenting and partnerships” (Morgan, 2011, p. 2). Giddens and Sutton (2013) explain advantages of using ‘family practices’ as a term by quoting Chambers et al (2009):

“it rebalances existing sociological work on the family as a social institution by looking at the agency of the individuals involved, who actively create their family roles and routines, thereby helping to explain changing family forms” (Chambers et al., 2009, cited by Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 384).

The concept of ‘family practices’ allows a better understanding of what is happening within the Lithuanian migrant family. My respondents represent different family forms, such as divorced/single parent/same sex families, which are all affected by migration; shorter or longer separation from significant others. Since this cannot be placed in a pre-defined family model, ‘family practice’ gives a wider understanding and perspective on how Lithuanian migrants sustain relationships with their significant others.
According to McCarthy and Edwards (2011), the concept of ‘family practices’ “encompasses people’s identifications, understandings, feelings, values, interaction and activities that draw on ideas about kinship relations, marriage and partnership, parenthood and parenting, (…), as well as the expectations and responsibilities that stem from these. (…) These relationships and activities, which are often thought of as a natural or given, have an emotional and moral significance for individuals and for society generally. They may be perceived as good or as oppressive or dysfunctional. (…). In this way, family practices provide a link between self and society” (McCarthy and Edwards, 2011, p. 88). Or, as I see it, between the ‘agency–structure’ domains.


“The first key feature of ‘family practices’ is that it alerts us to the perspectives of both actors and observers (such as other family members, social workers or social researchers) and interaction between these viewpoints. Secondly, the concept focuses on activity rather than an object. (…). Thirdly, the idea conveys a sense of the daily and unremarkable nature of people’s family existence; the mundane small activities – everyday care such as bathing the children or preparing food, leisure activities such as taking them swimming – that link into what Morgan refers to as wider systems of meaning about family life. (…). Fourthly, linked to the ‘dailiness’ of family life, the term invokes regularity and repetition rather than unusual events (e.g. children are bathed every evening at 7 pm). Fifthly, (…) Morgan stresses the sense of fluidity that the concept carries. While family practices are (…) every day and regular, they are also open-ended. Family practices are not discrete but connect with and relate to values, sites and practices more broadly. For example, they may be related to and/or understood as ethnic or religious practices (e.g. how people form particular ethnic or religious groups live their family lives), as gendered practices (e.g. expectations
about mothering or fathering), as **age** practices (e.g. parents taking responsibility for children) as **body** practices (e.g. who may or may not touch whom, when and where). This means that practices can be understood in more than one way or in different ways, as noted above in relation to actor and observer having shared or different perspectives.” (McCarthy and Edwards, 2011, p. 89–90). The final feature of ‘family practices’, according to McCarthy and Edwards (2011), is “their constitution as a major link between **history** and **biography**. The historical context in which family life takes place has a bearing on family practices, and this is subject to shifts and change while, at the same time, family practices are also rooted and created in an individual’s **life history** and experience” (McCarthy and Edwards, 2011, pp. 89–90).

Chambers (2012) adds that “the ‘doing’ of family life becomes more significant than the institutional and legal framework in which it is set” (Chambers, 2012, p. 42). However, according to Chambers (2012) “Morgan (2011) argues that the term ‘family’ should not be abandoned. It remains meaningful and the term ‘family practices’ is sufficiently fluid to embrace intimate and personal practices. (...) Morgan also highlights the importance of emotions in family practices” (Chambers, 2012, p. 42).

In the next section, I look at the literature on the impact and consequences of migration on families. Initially, I wanted to organize it in separate themes such as loss, wellbeing, education and attachment, etc. However, during the process I realised that all those themes are so interconnected that it would be impossible to single each out of the literature so, instead, I have arranged the following sections in cohorts and themes: 1. Children, 2. Teenagers, 3. Elderly migrants/left behind parents, and 4. Adaptation new roles and adjustment. In some case overlapping parts exist, for example, parent–child relationships. One may argue that teenagers are also children. However, adolescents’ relationships with parents are more mature and affected in different ways since they can
communicate and understand parents’ motives for migration better than their little siblings. I also found it important to separate children and teenagers while exploring attachment theory since, according to the literature, losing an attachment object has a more profound effect on little children than their teenage siblings.

2.4.3. SEPARATION ISSUES. LEFT BEHIND CHILDREN. PARENT–CHILD RELATIONSHIP

"Family erosion. That is one of the most painful consequences of massive Lithuanian emigration!" states Uzkuraite (2005) in her article about Lithuanian migrant families in the Lithuanian national paper “Vakaru Ekspresas’- Consequences of emigration – demolished lives.

There is ever growing literature on the impact of separation on parent–children relationships and children’s psychological wellbeing: Lashley, 2000; Smith et al., 2004; Leliugiene et al., 2005; Strier and Roer-Strier, 2005; Segal and Mayadas, 2005; Malinauskas, 2006, 2007; VTAI, 2006; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007; SADM, 2008; Hadas et al., 2008; Grinkeviciute, 2010. There are a number of issues that affect child-parent relationships during the migration process. In this section, I only talk about children who were left behind while one or both of their parents emigrated. The following sections will address other migration challenges.

2.4.3.1. SEPARATION AND REUNIFICATION ISSUES

According to Mazzukato and Schans (2008), only “a few studies address the potential impact of family separations arising out of the immigrant experience on parent-child relationships and psychological well-being. An exception is the study by Suarez-Orozco et al (2002) among 385 immigrant adolescents in the United States in which they show that extended periods of separation of parents and children caused by migration can lead to conflicts and depressive symptoms.
The impact of separations related to immigration were measured for several sub-scales such as depression, anxiety, hostility and cognitive functioning. Family reunification, sometimes not possible until many years later – does not automatically solve these problems but can be an additional source of stress when parents and children have grown apart or when additional family members were added to the parental household during separation. Moreover, when children are left in the care of extended family members such as grandparents or aunts, they are confronted with two separations from loved ones; first the separation from the parents and later the separation with the caretaker to whom the child became attached” (Mazzukato and Shans, 2008, p. 8).

Vladicescu (2008) and Chambers (2012) agree that “long-term migration strains relationships between spouses, parents and children” (Vladicescu, 2008, p. ii). According to Chambers (2012), “While research is limited, studies are beginning to show how the migration process, as well as settlement, might be impacting on parent-child relationships. Although some children of migrant mothers may be cared for by affectionate and attentive kin, research indicates that these children are not performing well. Children of migrant workers suffer from the effect of absent mothers. They often become ill more frequently than classmates, their performance in school may suffer, and an increase in delinquency and child suicide has been documented” (Hochschild, 2003a, cited by Chambers, 2012, p. 120).

2.4.3.1.1. SEPARATION ISSUES

There is much research on separation and its impact on a child’s social development (Bowlby, 1969/1982, 1973, 1982, 1988; Lashley, 2000; Smith et al., 2004; Van Ecke, 2005; Segal and Mayadas, 2005; VTAKI, 2006; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007; Mazzukato and Shans, 2008; SADM, 2008). Separation is also a core theme in attachment theory, which will be elaborated later in this section.
Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) state, that “the transnational living might have an extremely negative effect on the partnership and become a motive for legal divorce”. They continue by saying, that “one tenth of the families are considering divorce and in most of them migration is named as the main motive” (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 190).

Results of Vladicescu’s (2008) study showed that “divorce was a consequence of working abroad that was frequently mentioned by the participants. This entails other issues such as child custody and property division” (Vladicescu, 2008, p. 9).

Uzkuraite (2005) compares children’s feelings of separation and confusion to their feelings regarding parental divorce. Separation may lead to emotional problems and, if they are prolonged, may result in depression, severe behavioural problems and drug or sex addictions.

Smith et al (2004) argues that serial migration can potentially disrupt parent-child bonding and unfavorably affect children’s self-esteem and behavior. Time did not appear to be wholly effective in repairing rifts within the parent-child relationship. Risk factors for less successful reunions included lengthy separations and the addition of new members to the family unit in the child’s absence.

Mazzukato and Shans (2008) while talking about the consequences of separation refer to Dreby (2007) who “using ethnographic fieldwork and interviews with a total of 141 members of Mexican transnational families describes that parents expected their children to be grateful for their sacrifices, but instead often found that children were ambivalent about joining their parents in the host country. This finding was related to the fact that children felt abandoned by their parents and in some cases responded by detaching from the parent that left. Such feelings might lead to unwanted behaviour as for example dropping out of school or
getting involved in gangs” (Smith, 2006, cited in Mazzukato and Shans, 2008, p. 6). They further explain that „For migrants who migrated to ensure better opportunities for their children this means that the unintended consequences of migration might include a strained relationship with their children and even a loss of educational opportunities” (Mazzukato and Shans, 2008, p. 6).

According to Chambers (2012), separation leads to emotional deprivation in children. She bases her statement on work of Hochschild (2003a) and Parrenas (2003). “The emotional deprivation of these children contrasts with the time, energy and affection given to the children of affluent families in the West by migrant nannies. Children left behind in the Philippines are a group that has grown significantly since the turn of the last century. Children have reported painful experiences of separation (Parrenas, 2005). There is no expectation that they will join their parents due to immigration laws, although some of their mothers eventually return to them. However, they are often able to communicate directly with their mothers by cell phone or Skype, or via video conferencing exchanges (Parrenas 2005). The parents and children in these circumstances learn to develop new globalized parent–child relationships” (Chambers, 2012, p. 120).

2.4.3.2. ATTACHMENT THEORY

Being an immigrant herself Van Ecke (2005) discusses the immigrant experience from an attachment theory perspective and highlights four stages of vulnerability:

- pre-migration
- transit
- the period of resettlement
- adjustment and adaptation
She refers her findings to Bowlby (1969/1982, 1973b, 1982) who states that attachment security, separation and loss are the core themes of attachment. “The desire for closeness is part of our evolution and extends to both people and environment” (Van Ecke, 2005, p. 468). Van Ecke (2005) continues: “Humans, like other mammals, have evolved and survived because we build and maintain close relationships. We live in groups. Separation does not devastate us as long as we are confident of the possibility of return to our secure base. Initially, this base is the actual presence of our caregiver, but later on this relationship, with its specific, unspoken rules and characteristics, becomes a mental representation” (Van Ecke, 2005, p. 468), which is known as attachment representation. According to Bowlby, there are three different attachment representations: secure attachment and two forms of insecure attachment. “Normally we develop secure attachment as the result of our interactions with early caregivers, and thus respond to our own emotions, to others and to our environment with confidence, sensitivity, and flexibility” (Van Ecke, 2005, p. 468). Attachment phenomenon has also been explored by Lithuanian scholars Malinauskas, 2006, 2011; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007. I look at their work in the following section.

2.4.3.3. LEFT BEHIND CHILDREN IN LITHUANIA

Malinauskas study (2006) Is a child undergoing crisis?, explored the impact of temporary labour migration on a child” raised the hypothesis that parents driven by the desire to create financial wealth overlook the effect of their migration on children’s well-being. His results showed many parents did not answer the question of: “do you know if your migration effected your child?” Other parents who did answer thought that it did not affect their children. This lead to the conclusion and affirmation of the hypothesis that people overlooked some of the negative consequences on their children’s wellbeing.

Another research question was on whether parent’s education made any difference to how they handled the situation and how they explained the reasons
to migrate to their children. There was a belief that more well-educated parents better understood migration consequences for their children when compared with lower-educated parents. However, the research findings did not support this hypothesis. The way children are prepared and talked about migration did not depend on their parents’ level of education.

His sample included preschool children (under seven) attending kindergartens. There were 236 respondents (one of the parents abroad or one of the parents have recently returned from temporary migration). In order to understand how left behind children felt, surveys were handed out to 15 nurseries (qualitative aspect of research). Nursery teachers were interviewed about their experience of looking after left behind children. The results of the survey showed that, after one or both parents’ migrated, many children became reserved, more tearful and clingy and attached to their nursery teachers. Malinauskas (2006) explained that when children lose their attachment object they look for another “object” to attach in order to feel safe and secure. If that object happens to be their grandmother, they try to spend as much time as possible together and even start calling her “mummy” (Malinauskas, 2006).

According to Malinauskas (2006), children manage to get attached to a new object so profoundly that they detach emotionally from the old attachment object, for example some children told their teachers that they were orphans.

In order to understand if pre-school children experience crisis, Malinauskas (2006) used another questionnaire designed for their parents (quantitative aspect of research). The parents were asked if they noticed whether migration had any effect on their children. The results did not support the hypothesis that all children experience crisis. Most parents said that their children experienced emotional effects at the beginning but, as time went on, everything returned to normal.
Malinauskas (2006) concluded that, as a consequence of separation, all children experience pain. For many children, it was a painful experience which was emotionally expressed by crying, becoming reserved or changes in their behaviour, seeking security by getting attached to another person and in some cases getting emotionally “detached” (3 out of 15 children). However some teachers in Malinauskas’ (2006) study noticed “positive” effects. Some children became very obedient, polite and caring. Malinauskas (2006) explained it by referring to Sichel (2004), who argues that, after experiencing a crisis, children feel insecure, therefore they create a security shield by taking care of others. This can sometimes look like a positive effect (Sichel, 2004, cited by Malinauskas, 2006, p. 50).

The results of both quantitative and qualitative inquiries contradict each other. For example, only one third of children experience separation crisis according to the parents and guardians. However, the results of the qualitative inquiry with nursery teachers showed a different picture. In their opinion, almost all children experience crisis when one or two parents leave them behind.

Malinauskas (2006) concluded by saying that the controversial results of his research showed a great need for qualitative research that would study migration and family experiences from a family perspective. Malinauskas (2006) also acknowledged a shortage of qualitative studies on migrant’s experience and its effect on families. He agreed with Kuzmickaite (2004) that migration studies predominantly look at the migration process through a macro perspective and not enough studies have been undertaken to analyse those process from participants’ view/micro level. My research could contribute to knowledge since my research looks at migrant’s experience and the effect on his/her family relationships through the participant’s view and the assessment of his/her own situation.
Although my research does not study temporary labour migration, but the findings of the transition stage, namely how families cope and how they support each other; the need for preparation and discussion involving other family members before taking the decision to migrate, could also be relevant to the challenges of temporary labour migration.

With their research “Family across the boarders”, Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) tried to find out how the behaviour of children changed when one or both of parents moved abroad.

Behavioural changes were assessed by one of the remaining parent’s observations. The results showed that most of the children experienced sadness, anger, tearfulness, phobias, became reserved, aggressive and lost interest in succeeding at school. However, almost the same number of children had the opposite reaction: they became very keen on studying and their behaviour softened: they became more polite, gentle and sweet. The authors explained these behavioural changes as attention-seeking attitude. Children were anxious not to lose someone they loved, therefore they would do anything not to be left again by another parent. A child’s response to the migration of his/her parent can be very personal, as if it was his/her mistake and s(he) was not good enough. The researchers state that young children do not understand the concept of time. They treat parents leaving as abandonment. Children do not understand the transient or short-term absence and as a result their reaction can be very dramatic. Some children experience a recession of intellectual development, for example, they stop talking (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007).

In order to find out how many children are left behind in Lithuania when one or both of their parents migrated, and also how parents’ migration affects children’s behaviour, two Lithuanian institutions (Ministry of Education and Child Protection Agency, referred as VTAKI, 2006), conducted a national survey in 651 educational institutions. The study investigated how children’s rights were
represented and protected, what their living conditions were, if school teachers
knew about a child’s situation, and if they noticed any kind of neglect while
parents were away. According to VTAKI (2006), 5,776 (61%) of 9,031 children
were left behind with a remaining parent, while 3,725 were left with either their
grandparents (28%), relatives (5%), older brothers or sisters (3%) or friends (1%).
According to VTAKI (2006), 78 (1%) pupils stated that they lived on their own.

After parental migration 19% of all children had to change their living place. The
same results are revealed in Vladicescu’s (2008) study about left behind children
in Moldova. “In some cases, the departure of parents abroad is accompanied by
a series of upheavals for children, one of which is moving out of the family home.
These children have to part with their friends, their school and familiar places
which implies another adjustment, often a new life style, and represents an
additional stress to that of their parents’ departure” (Vladicescu, 2008, p. 16).

VTAKI (2006) results also revealed that carers (people who were responsible for
children while their parents were abroad) did not always show an interest in the
children’s educational success and did not make an effort to contact the school.

There was also a noticeable change in children’s behavior and attitude towards
school in terms of poor attendance and lack of academic motivation. Analysis of
the teachers’ survey showed that 17% of “left behind” pupils became aggressive,
did not respect or conform to the rules, and were in relentless conflict with their
teachers and peers (VTAKI, 2006).

Leliugiene et al (2005) raise a question about child’s socialization as the “family
is the most important socialization institution” (Leliugiene et al., 2005, p. 44). For
their research on the impact of parents’ temporary emigration on their children’s
socialization, Leliugiene et al (2005) used a survey for 163 school children, for
whom at least one of their parents had migrated. Leliugiene et al (2005) state that,
although choosing migration to provide a better future for their children, parents
cannot fulfil important functions other than being material providers. “The question of how it influences the growing and maturing personality, if it disturbs his/her successful socialization and education, what further consequences such situations are going to have for the child remain unanswered” (Leliugiene et al., 2005, p. 44). Their results showed that a child’s successful socialization depended on the parental model that parents chose to perform through distance. The results also showed that the bond became closer between left behind siblings as well as with their peers. Analysis of children’s leisure also showed that they became more independent and responsible for the household and their younger siblings. There was a great risk for child’s socialization identified in cases when children were left on their own without any guardian, siblings were separated and parents rarely stayed in touch. This suggested that the left behind child’s socialization was directly related to the chosen “parental model”. Children experienced a sense of loss, emotional confusion and ambivalent feelings such as sadness, longings, fear, anxiety, anger and feeling of abandonment. The way children felt greatly depended on their age and the amount of communication and preparation the parents invested in discussing their decision to migrate with them (Leliugiene et al., 2005).

Another Lithuanian study exploring the separation theme was conducted by the Institute of Social Studies and Ministry of Social Security and Labour (SADM). It aimed to find out how parents’ migration affected children’s psychosocial development. During the psychological research, data was collected from 173 children. The researchers noticed that younger children were the most vulnerable and the most negative effects of separation were seen in those under nine (SADM, 2008).

According to Uzkuraite (2005) none of the carers (even those close to the family) can effectively replace parents. Most of the children experience feelings of shame for the situation, abandonment and betrayal by their parents. They may also feel
guilty or angry for being left behind, or may experience feelings of injustice, loneliness, or anxiety about their parents. However, some of them may mature faster, become independent and take responsibility for looking after younger siblings (Uzkuraite, 2005, *Vakaru Ekspresas*, 3rd Oct.).

According to Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007), “migration has an overall positive effect on families’ financial living conditions, expenditure structure and the subjective assessment of consumption opportunities. Nevertheless the long-term positive effect on the financial living conditions is reached only after two or three years of migration” (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 190). However, as the same study showed, children were not purely interested in consumer products. They preferred their parents closer than toys or gadgets.

Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) draw attention to the fact that children would face the migration situation and changes in the family much more easily if one of the remaining parents portrayed it positively. Negative attitudes toward migration may cause an emotional disturbance in children and rapid changes in their behaviour. The authors also suggest that there is a connection between children’s behaviour and the time parents spend abroad. The shorter the parents stay abroad, the less the behavioural changes are noticed in a child. The consequences are also milder if the migrant parent visits family frequently.

Looking at all the literature covered in this section I can see how my study bridges the gaps in the current knowledge. However, my research is focused on families in transition rather than transnational families. According to Mazukkato and Shans (2008), “none of the studies collected data simultaneously from family members in different locations” (Mazzukato and Shans, 2008, p. 7). My research should partly fill this deficit since I have interviewed the same family members in both countries, sending – Lithuania, and receiving – the UK.

In the next section I explore what effect migration has on adolescents.
In the previous section, I wrote about children’s vulnerability in the face of migration. In this section, I look at what happens to another susceptible migration group of people – adolescents (the age range of 12 – 18 year olds).

Most of the studies have been done outside Lithuania aside from Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) who introduce problems teenagers face when reunited with their parents abroad, such as acculturation and adaptation. The fact that there is very little information on Lithuanian adolescent migrants in the UK makes my research significant. I had the opportunity to interview Lithuanian migrant families with their teenage children in the UK and in Lithuania, adding richness to my data.

Parents often immigrate in order to increase their financial status and improve opportunities for themselves and their families. Frequently, they leave their children in their country of origin to be raised by family members. Reunification with their children often occurs at the time of adolescence and, for many reasons, is often troubled with conflict, which sometimes necessitates the involvement of social services and other agencies (Lashley, 2000; Arnold, 2006).

The paper by Arnold (2006) reports on 20 women born in the Caribbean whose birth mothers left them, as young children in the care of grandmothers or other members of their extended family. This was in order to migrate to the United Kingdom during the late 1950s through to the 1970s in search of economic prosperity and reunification with the father/husband already working in the UK. The reunions typically occurred more than a decade later, in the child’s adolescence, when mother and child were meeting as if for the first time. All children expressed difficulties in trusting others. They also expressed a longing to be loved by their own mothers and they felt less wanted than any children (siblings) born in Britain to their mothers (Arnold, 2006). This supports the
findings described in the previous section that the longer parents and children are apart, the greater the chance of tension and distance to occurring between them (Maslauskaite and Stankunienie, 2007).

Migration affects all age groups and especially teenagers when they are at a period of their identity search and have very strong feelings of attachment when having to leave familiar environments. Who are they going to be in a foreign country? What will happen to their already built relationships? Bulik (1987) writes about adolescents and argues that they do not have a secure sense of themselves, therefore they might be more susceptible to “the stressors of social change and to expectations of the new culture” (Bulik, 1987, p. 134).

There is also a shift in roles from a child, whose opinion might have not been taken into consideration when taking decision to migrate, towards being an “adult”, whose better language knowledge often enables them to be their parents’ interpreter in a foreign country. In this way, the teenager takes on some responsibility for the success of communication and enters into a “parent to parent” like relationship (Bulik, 1987, p. 138). Issues of role confusion are also eminent in studies by Zilber et al., 2001; Senberg, 2000; Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000, who discuss a role shift between older immigrants and their adult children.

Depression and isolation, feeling of emptiness and bareness, longing and mourning for what is lost in their own culture, missing friends and extended family, make teenagers, as well as adults, fill the emotional gap by turning to other “filling substitutes”, such as food or alcohol (Zilber et al., 2001; Senberg, 2000; Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000). In two case studies, Bulik (1987) analysed two Jewish teenagers who moved to the USA from the Soviet Union. Both of them suffered from eating disorders caused by “acculturation pressures of the new society” (Bulik, 1987, p. 133). Bulik (1987) quotes Grinberg and Grinberg (1984), who state that “the immigrant may engage in compulsive eating in order to fill the emptiness of immigration or to regain lost objects” (Grinberg and Grinberg,
In that case, the loss was not only their country, friends and family, but also their own self. Several scholars (Bulik, 1987; Zilber et al., 2001; Senberg, 2000; Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000) compare this feeling of emptiness to the mourning process, which all migrant age groups experience.

Figure 4: The Grief Cycle as presented in Ross (1969)

- Shock stage: Initial paralysis at hearing the bad news,
- Denial stage: Trying to avoid the inevitable.
- Anger stage: Frustrated outpouring of bottled-up emotion.
- Bargaining stage: Seeking in vain for a way out.
- Depression stage: Final realization of the inevitable.
- Testing stage: Seeking realistic solutions.
- Acceptance stage: Finally finding the way forward“ (Kubler-Ross, 1969, posted by changingmind.org online).

First, it is shock, then denial. Afterwards, a long process of grieving and longing (anger, depression), until one faces the fact that it is happening and accepting the situation, and only then may follow an active phase of adaptation and integration into a new culture. In most cases, this grieving period goes along with
depression, loneliness and isolation (Bulik, 1987; Senberg, 2000; Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000; Zilber et al., 2001). Some people never reach the active stage and remain in a grieving cycle forever.

Despite a great loss, challenges to identity formation and role confusion, it is suggested that adolescents adapt to a new culture more quickly than their parents (Bulik, 1987; Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2006). They learn the language faster, make new social contacts more easily, and therefore become integrated quicker into a new society and culture.

Although Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) argue that adolescents are quicker to adapt to a new culture, they also admit that they pay a price for it. Because of the different speed children and parents integrate into a new culture, intergenerational conflicts are inevitable. This they suggest, is mainly due to the language. Not knowing the language of a host country, parents become dependent on their teenage children, who become a bridge between them and a new world. As a result, “Parents lose their role as guardians, as well as authority and parental status that unavoidably mutilates parent – children relationships” (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 177). Two different social worlds start clashing: teenagers start representing the host country, while parents still are attached to their old culture. “Parents and grandparents remain more entrenched in the old world values and customs, which now seem obsolete to younger family members” (Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000, p. 309).

In the next section, I talk more about older migrants and their intergenerational and adaptation problems, after discussing the young people who are left behind in Lithuania.

2.4.4.1. LEFT BEHIND TEENAGERS

Grinkeviciute (2010) explains that adolescence is the period of uncertainty during which teenagers seek an understanding of themselves and of the world around
them. The author stated that, although this is the age of striving for independence, teenagers find it important to feel their parent’s support. The emotional bond, communication and mutual understanding is vital at this stage of their lives while they are seeking their identity (Grinkeviciute, 2010, p. 21). She states that adolescents especially need parental support, so when parents leave to go abroad, children lose trust, their relationship with their family weaken and, there is a fear of losing one or both parents. Therefore, in order to avoid such consequences, parents need to prepare their children far in advance.

According to Grinkeviciute (2010), separation is always painful, no matter at what age children are left behind. While being busy planning their move, parents have no time to talk and discuss issues with their children. This causes tension and uncertainty because children do not know what to expect, feel sad and not important. In order to avoid that effect, the author suggests that parents should discuss all aspects of their migration with the children. Grinkeviciute (2010) argues that if there is an open communication between parents and children regarding migration, the separation will be less painful during the migration process.

According to Grinkeviciute (2010), the pain of separation is more acute in younger children; 12 – 14 year old teenagers feel very lonely, after 15, as results show, it is easier to cope. The author explains that for younger children it is more difficult to understand their parents’ decision to migrate. Older children, however, usually have an in-depth discussion prior to their parents’ migration and understand the situation better and, as a result do, not treat it as a negative.

Grinkeviciute (2010) states that effect teenagers feel after parents’ migration is equal to the effect children experience after parent’s divorce. Children start blaming themselves for the consequences. They experience physical, emotional and psychological disorders, become sad, more irritable, closed, lose motivation to study, start skipping school and communicate less with their friends.
Therefore, they become excluded from their group and, as a result, teenagers may join anti-social groups. She explains it by saying that “it is happening because the closest people who could advice, support and discipline them are absent” (Grinkeviciute, 2010, p. 25). The author makes those conclusions based on a separation literature review (Navaitis, 2007; Matulioniene, 2008; Vaitekoniene, 2008). However, results of her own study on how migration effects teenagers’ behaviour contradicts the previous findings. Her results showed that after parents’ migration, teenagers’ behaviours hardly changed. They continued attending school and progressing in their studies and relationship with their classmates also did not change. However, to the question, “Do you sometimes think of committing suicide?” 84% of participants said “no”, while 10 % agreed that at least once they had had such thoughts.

Vladicescu (2008) studied the migration effect on left behind families in Moldova and her results showed that “The police in the seven study communities had not established any connection between young people committing various types of offences and parents’ departure, and the number of minors with police records whose parents were abroad was insignificant” (Vladicescu, 2008, p. ii).

Grinkeviciute (2010) states that due to migration, the family model has changed. Parents’ role shifted on to grandparents who are most often left to look after left behind children/teenagers. She states that people who are left to be in charge of teenagers are not always able to properly look after them and, as a result, left behind teenagers “feel abandoned, neglected, they start feeling lonely, misunderstood, their subjective world starts changing” (Grinkeviciute, 2010, p. 11).

Grinkeviciute (2010) defends parents’ decisions to leave their children with grandparents by arguing that “parents do care about their children, therefore they leave them with the family members (mostly grandparents) and they regularly stay in touch (internet is most frequently used for communication). But,
because they communicate over large distances, parents’ cannot see the changes in their children, therefore they assume that everything is going well” (Grinkeviciute, 2010, p. 29).

Grinkeviciute (2010) argues that regular communication is vital for teenagers’ well-being. It is very important for them to know that their parents care about them and will always support them.

Grinkeviciute (2010) provided me with extended Lithuanian literature on the family model, the importance of socialization and the phenomenon of adolescence. Her study also allowed me to have a glimpse of teenagers’ experience due to separation. However, because of her chosen methodological approach (descriptive, quantitative research with some qualitative research elements and not clearly stating the size of sample) it did not leave me confident that the issue of left-behind teenagers in Lithuania had been fully explored. It is certainly sets the field for further investigation though.

2.4.5. OLDER MIGRANTS

In the previous section, I discussed how migration affected adolescents in terms of the psychosocial and physical strains it puts on their development and overall adaptation and integration into a new culture. In this section, I look at the adult experience of migration, predominantly older people, their reasons to stay and how it affects their health and wellbeing. Just as in the previous subchapter on teenagers’ experiences of being left behind as well as their adaptation challenges in the receiving country, I decided to follow the same pattern. Firstly, I explore older migrant adaptation issues and then examine their experience of being left behind by their adult children. Due to the lack of literature exploring this phenomenon in Lithuania, I look at this issue through the lens of foreign studies. These studies will be the groundwork for this section. Younger adults are a
significant age group of people. I will cover adult adaptation issues in the fifth section of this chapter when I discuss adaptation and adjustment.

Immigration is a major event in the life of the family. Despite great aspirations and hope for a better future, it is still very stressful and affects all the family members. “New adaptation tasks require changes in roles and in relationship patterns in the family, and these changes often cause conflicts and distress” (Slonim-Nevo et al., 1999, p. 445).

Slonim–Nevo et al (1995) examined the difficulties of immigrants who have both young children and older relatives living under the same roof. Forty people from the Commonwealth of Independent States, who were caring for their older family members, were interviewed. The results showed that all family members experienced changes associated with immigration: the health and emotional status of the elderly persons deteriorated, the amount of care provided by the middle-generation caregivers increased, and the children experienced learning and social difficulties. The middle generation reported a high level of caregiver strain.

The elderly migrants go through a similar transition process as teenagers. They move because, in most cases, it is their adult children’s decision or they had to leave the country because of political reasons. In both cases, it is not a free choice. Furthermore, the familial roles shift significantly because, in a foreign country with unfamiliar health and social care systems, the elderly become fully dependent on their children’s help (Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000; Segal and Mayadas, 2005). Unlike teenagers, or their own children, the elderly often do not speak a foreign language. Moreover, they do not have their friends, neighbours, or extended family to support them (Segal and Mayadas, 2005). The new neighbours do not speak their language and, even though they are friendly, new immigrants cannot turn up whenever they feel like it, which may have been a
norm back home. Their friendship circle was a core of their existence, and losing it made them feel rootless and abandoned (Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000).

Stress increases with resettlement arrangements. In Russia (Lithuania and all post-Soviet Union countries) three generations used to share the same household, while in America, for example, the resettlement policy is to provide each family with a separate house. That causes additional stress and separation anxiety for the elderly (Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000).

Slonim-Nevo (1999) raises a very interesting point: “Immigration often intensifies these tensions since it acutely polarizes the positive and negative aspects of three-generation households and limits the options of family members to monitor the extent of their closeness. Financial difficulties and the cultural strangeness of the new society often render grandparents indispensable in helping with childcare, especially in single-parent families. However, in many cases, immigration has been motivated by an unconscious desire for independence and separation from the older generation” (Slonim–Nevo, 1999, p. 446).

“Adult children may confront separation and individual issues at a time when resettlement already adds stresses in their lives and the overdependence of their parents is a serious burden” (Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000, p. 308).

While living in the USA, I met many Lithuanians who struggled with settling in a new country, finding a job, then working very long hours, looking after their children and at the same time, helping their elderly parents with their adjustment and practical needs, such as doctor’s appointments or simple shopping. Because of the language barrier, any chore for the elderly became an inconvenience and a burden for their children, who had to find time in their busy schedules to solve their parents’ problems.

A feeling of guilt may occur in the ‘parent – adult child’ relationships. The elderly may feel guilty for not being able to provide financially for their family as they
used to, while their children may well feel guilty for having no choice but to put their parents into care (which would be unheard of in Russia or other post-Soviet countries). Losing their role in the family, where the elderly had an authority and used to be the financial providers, could cause great emotional disturbance, which leads to depression and mental health problems in many cases (Segal and Mayadas, 2005; Papadopoulos et al., 2004).

Zilber et al (2001) studied people (those below age 65 and those aged 65 and above) who moved from the Soviet Union to Israel five years after their immigration. The results have shown that elderly immigrants had a higher rate of depression and anxiety compared with the younger generation. It has been suggested that immigration contributed to an increase of “psychopathology, which is particularly pronounced among the elderly” (Zilber et al., 2001, p. 993).

Similar to other populations (Cochrane et al., 1977; Slonim-Nevo et al., 1995; Anson et al., 1996; Papadopoulos et al., 2004; Strier et al., 2005; Moin at al., 2006; Hadas et al., 2008), Russian immigrants experienced problems using health care services and this put at risk their ability to live independently in the community (Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000), as well as putting them under additional stress (Carmel, 2001; Zilber at al., 2001).

Similar to Russians, Lithuanians have to adapt to a new health care system and because of its complexity, a lack of knowledge in how the system works, as well as a language barrier, it may delay medical issues being addressed. Lithuanians, as well as Russians, used to get a specialist appointment without a referral and a community service where people would be visited at home by a health professional or would call in to their clinic without an appointment. In the USA and the UK there is a long waiting time from referral.

Fitzpatrick and Freed (2000) emphasize that the language barrier and difficulties in communication alone can impose a “tremendous roadblock” to medical care,
as few bilingual staff are available to address and interpret their medical needs (Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000, p. 314). They suggest that education for both immigrants and practitioners (social workers and health care professionals) is essential to better understand how the immigrant reacts, for example, to the US system and its philosophy towards the family and health care. It implies that adaptation to a new country might be easier if immigrants were educated on how systems work. Furthermore, emphasizing the need for better understanding between practitioners and immigrants in order to help them better adapt in a new culture, Segal and Mayadas (2005) suggest that practitioners not only need social skills and cultural sensitivity, but should also aim to understand the depth of migration experience. Slonim-Nevo et al (1999) echoes this by stating that “On the painful route toward adaptation, some immigrants may require professional help. Yet, in order for such help to be effective, their cultural background must be recognized, understood, and taken into consideration” (Slonim-Nevo, 1999, p. 445). They also suggest that “(…) in addition to viewing the individual immigrant as the object of intervention, it would be helpful to regard and examine the entire family” (Slonim-Nevo et al., 1999, p. 445).

In their conclusion, Fitzpatrick and Freed (2000) express a need for further research to explore the issues; “A proactive research approach should include studies that address the health, socialization and activity requirements of immigrant populations within a cultural and psychological context” (Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000, p. 321).

2.4.5.1. ELDERLY PARENTS LEFT BEHIND

Antman (2012) addresses the impact of migration on left behind families, particularly focusing on left behind parents. She argues that “there are still few studies on this important topic, and even fewer that look at international migration in particular” (Antman, 2012, p. 20).
In her earlier studies, Antman (2010b) looked at international migration from Mexico to the U.S. and finds that “parents with at least one child in the U.S. on average have worse self-reported physical and mental health and are more likely to suffer from a heart attack or stroke” (Antman, 2012, p. 22). Antman (2010c) offers some suggestive evidence that “the negative impact of children’s migration on mental health may be responsible for deteriorating physical health, raising the possibility that resulting social isolation of elderly parents when their children migrate may be an important mediating factor” (Antman, 2012, p. 22). This suggests that “having a child migrate to the U.S. raises the probability that the elderly non-migrant parent will be in poor health” (Antman, 2012, p. 22).

Antman (2012) also discusses the importance to the policymakers in understanding the impact of adult children’s migration on their left behind parents. “This is particularly true given the rapid aging of the population in most developing countries and the continued reliance on children for support in old-age. The context is important because international migration is often thought to boost earnings for migrants who may then remit more to parents at home. At the same time, the migrant may be restricted from traveling home and providing personal care for the elderly parent. (…) Do children remaining in the home country compensate for the absence of their migrant siblings?” (Antman, 2012, p. 14).

Antman (2012) concludes that “Data limitations may also be at the heart of the more limited research into the effects of migration on health outcomes for children as well as outcomes for aging parents. There is far too little evidence from too few countries to judge whether the studies reviewed here are typical of a more widespread pattern. Nevertheless, the results presented here on the detrimental impact of migration on time contributions and health outcomes for elderly parents pose real cause for concern. Further research should explore these
relationships in other countries and with a wider variety of health outcomes” (Antman, 2012, pp. 23-24).

2.4.6. MIGRATION AND ADAPTATION; NEW ROLES AND ADJUSTMENT

Migration and family literature show that migration puts a strain on family relationships. Stress is constant whether the family is together or left behind. Family members cope differently with various losses: culture, friends, family, climate, social system, language, and particular norms of behaviour.

Strier and Roer-Strier (2005) look at adaptation from a father’s perspective. They state that many fathers experience grief, loss, guilt, isolation, and marginalization on seeing their children assimilating easily and their wives quickly entering the work force.

Many migrants face problems with housing, health and social services and feel socially isolated. Many also have problems getting the right job (Papadopoulos et al., 2004; Segal and Mayadas, 2005).

A leading charity for migrants and refugees, “The Forum”, produced a report on the main issues migrants and refugees face in London. The findings show that loneliness and isolation are the major challenges that they face in the UK. Other challenges “commonly stated and related with loneliness and isolation were:

- Loss of Family and Friends
- Lack of social networks
- Language barriers
- Lack of access to services and resources
- Loss of status
- Loss of identity
• Loss of job or career
• Cultural differences
• Discrimination and stigma connected to being a foreigner

In the process of immigration, parents are often confronted with totally different child-rearing practices and ideologies than in their country of origin (Strier et al., 1996). There is also a problem of intergenerational relations in a family which is negatively affected by the varying speed with which children and parents attain the skills needed for integration into the host society (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007).

According to Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007), after reunification with their family in a host country, children face adaptation problems, such as new language, building a new social network and adaptation to a new cultural environment. They are thrown into a new social world that requires of them not only formal knowledge (e.g. language), but also totally new values and social norms (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 173.) The authors argue that along with a child’s social adaptation there is also his/her psychological adaptation taking place since s(he) misses his/her “safe world”, i.e. friends, family and familiar environment left behind. Children need to rebuild their identity in the new culture and environment (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 174).

Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) suggest that “parents rarely have an adequate understanding about the complexity of the integration and adaptation processes that confront their children in the host societies” (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 191). They add: “Moreover, the majority of parents have no social and intellectual resources needed to stimulate their children’s
successful integration into the multicultural environment they find themselves in” (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 191).

Van Ecke (2005) discusses separation traumas. Very often, people in migration miss the ones they left behind as well as important family events, such as birthdays, weddings, anniversaries and funerals. They suffer from not being able to support loved ones in their illness or any other problems they encounter. Constant sadness and worry puts them at risk of mental disorders. It also leaves them with a sense of isolation and grief.

The same separation traumas may also occur in the people that are left behind. Psychological disturbance, general family image and family relationships are discussed by a number of authors (Cochrane, 1977; Lashley, 2000; Arnold, 2006; Moin et al., 2006; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007). Migration could have a double effect on families: to strengthen or weaken them (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007).

With the soaring numbers of Lithuanians leaving their country, Lithuanian national papers are filled with stories and warnings about the consequences of migration and its impact. In the biggest Lithuanian national paper, Lietuvos Rytas - Tomkunas (referred as Tomkunas, 2007) discusses the reality for new migrants. Although most Lithuanian migrants praise the host country and the opportunities found there, many of them face the painful reality of longing for their children left behind or having a relationship breakdown.

Quite often migrants suffer not only from adaptation problems, but also from not knowing how to sustain their own families. Tomkunas (2007) describes what is happening to a family when a husband moves abroad to earn money for the family. For most of the time, he loses a close bond with the ones that he left behind. During the time of his absence, his family develops a new family dynamic without him as a husband and a father. When he returns, he does not
feel needed anymore. This is rebound the findings of Vladicescu (2008) regarding
migrant family dynamics in Moldova, where the periodic return of the migrant
became an inconvenience as it broke the remainder’s adjustments to his/her loss.
Thus “adaptations the family has made have to be altered upon migrant’s return”
(Vladicescu, 2008, p. 7).

In his article, Tomkunas (2007) quotes psychologist Bingeliene from the Family
Relationship Institute in Kaunas. She says: “If one of the family members moves
abroad, it is very hard to maintain healthy relationships. The common ground of
interests is lost and the chances for a happy reunification lessen with increasing
time that partners spend apart. She warns that if partners spend a year at a
distance, their relationship will never be the same. She adds that if people wish
to maintain their families and not let it all fall apart, they need to have a high
motivation to sustain it. Keeping in touch by telephone or e-mails is not enough.
It gives a false sense of security as if everything is going alright, while in reality
the anger is growing: a wife is angry for being left alone to cope with the childcare
and household issues, and a husband is unhappy because he feels unappreciated
for the hard work he does for his family” (Bingeliene as cited by Tomkunas, in
Lietuvos rytas, 2007, 22nd March).

2.4.6.1. ROLE SHIFT AND ADJUSTMENT FOR LEFT BEHIND FAMILIES

Vladicescu (2008) studied the impact of migration and remittances on families
and children and how families adjust to changes in Moldova. This study clearly
identified how families must adjust and then adapt to a migratory absence of a
family member. It also showed that this effect can vary depending on the
socioeconomic position of a family, particularly in the case of a large migratory
population such as Moldova. In any adjustment the first days, perhaps months,
constitute the adjustment phase. This was the phase that respondents in the study
found the most difficult. Once this period begins to pass, the next phase is
adjustment. “Then the period of transition from adjustment to adaptation starts
when the other members of the family or other people take over the roles and responsibilities of those who have left” (Vladicescu, 2008, p. 22). In Moldova, it can help for those adjusting to know that they are not alone in the experience, plus the fact that, through migration, other families achieving higher living standards can encourage them to overcome loss or trauma after the departure of their migrant family member.

As discussed above, adjustment causes changes in family role responsibilities. Thus the family becomes accustomed to the new roles. But depending on who leaves, this can have a greater or lesser impact upon children at different ages. The departure of a father, according to respondents, has fewer impacts on a child’s development than if a mother is the migrant. The mother’s departure can impact: psychological/emotional condition, healthy eating/health and school work. From a teachers’ perspective, they notice all children are impacted by a parents’ departure but that it is expressed in different ways at different ages. The younger the child, the more attached they are to those people that care for them.

Maslaukaite and Stankuniene (2007) echo Vladicecsku’s (2008) findings by noting that role shift becomes a new challenge to the family since they need time as well as physical and psychological resources to deal with changes. When it is finally adjusted and the social organization of the family is reshaped, the return of a migrant family member brings tension and confusion since he/she needs to reclaim his/hers old role and place within the family. The authors argue that on the return, families have to face the dilemma of whether to go back to the previous family roles or perform the new ones and treat a “visiting” family member as a “guest” (Maslaukaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 106).

Role shift and a social organization of the family are not the only challenges families have to face after the return of their migrant family member. New values, norms and customs adopted by a migrant in a receiving country most of the time clash with those their family is accustomed too. That brings additional tension to
the family’s reunion, making it less enjoyable for both sides (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007).

2.4.6.2. ROLE OF NETWORKS IN ADAPTATION PROCESS

Bucaite-Vilke and Rosinaite (2010) studied Formation of Interpersonal Networks and their Role in Migration. Data from in-depth interviews was used to form the basis of their theoretical insights from empirical data in a 2010 case study of Lithuanian immigrants in Copenhagen. This analysis looked at issues such as job searching strategies, how the ties used by migrants influence these strategies and where mutual assistance comes from. Much of the data came from these sources through in-depth interviews with 20 respondents. The respondents came from different socio-demographic groups, gender, age, education, family status and professional experience.

In conclusion, their empirical data could explain the adaptations of migrants on three levels, of varying degrees of influence: 1 and 2 = strong ties; 3 = weak ties.

1. Formal and informal migrant networks are mainly social, economic and cultural resources.

2. Interpersonal networks bring the migrant advantages through creating strong migrant communities. These are largely based on ethnicity and a collective identity.

3. The effectiveness of weak ties could be seen where economic integration was successful. This came about through exchanges and flow of information that encouraged professional mobility.

My research could contribute to the discussion of the role of networks in migration process by exploring how formal and informal networks in the UK help Lithuanian migrants cope and deal with the challenges of migration.
It would be particularly useful in unfolding how formal and informal networks serve as support systems, especially in helping Lithuanian families to sustain their relationships. Furthermore, what types of support systems such as church, Lithuanian community, friends and family play the biggest role in helping new Lithuanian migrants to endure the “transition” stage of migration (especially the ones who settled in East Anglia and the East Midlands).

2.4.7. CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

This part of literature review shows that no matter what migration stage people are at, migration affects family relationships and their personal growth.

If the family made the decision to migrate, they need to know all the obstacles and possible consequences that migration imposes on their relationships. Moreover, if they want to go through the migration process with less struggle and to increase their chances of adaptation and integration in a new culture, they have to stick and work on that together, because as Segal and Mayadas (2005) state “strong and healthy family relationships, and adequate support networks in the immigrant community may increase adaptation” (Segal and Mayadas, 2005, p. 577).

With my research I am not aiming to prove that migration causes families to split up, rather, to find and raise the complexity they may experience in the period that comes with the migration process. So far, the literature, has been predominantly about vulnerable people: children, adolescents and elderly and the negative effect migration has up on them. In my research, I investigate the family experience as a whole. I hope that from my study we will also see the positive aspects of migration on family relationships, alongside the individuals’ personal growth and development.

In the next section of my literature review, I briefly look at the main migration theories and their explanations of reasons on why people migrate.
2.5. MIGRATION THEORIES

Why do people migrate? There are many theories trying to explore and explain this phenomenon. However, according to Castles et al (2014), there is no a single theory that would give an answer to what causes migration. Rather, there are different approaches used to analyse the macro, meso and micro levels in order to understand migration. The phenomenon is too complex to explain, even when combining approaches together. Before I record my respondents’ reasons and motivation to migrate, I will briefly look at structural theories: Push-Pull, Neoclassical– and Human capital, as well as historical structural theories. My main focus in this chapter will be pro-agency theories: Network, Transnationalism and Migration systems, since those theories, according to Kukoneno (2012), may help me better understand Lithuanian migration strategies.

In the latest book The age of Migration, Castles et al (2014) divide migration theories into Functionalist theories (e.g. Push–Pull models, Neoclassical, Human capital theories) and Historical structural theories (e. g, World systems, Globalisation and Segmented Labour Market theories), where “Functionalist migration theory generally treats migration as a positive phenomenon serving the interests of most people and contributing to greater equality within and between societies” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 27). In contrast, historical–structural theories, rooted in neo-Marxist political economy, see migration “as providing a cheap, exploitable labour force, which mainly serves the interests of the wealthy in receiving areas, causes a ‘brain drain’ in origin areas, and therefore reinforces social and geographical inequalities” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 28).

Castles et al (2014) also look at the existing theories through the lens of structure and agency. For example, New Economics of Labour Migration (NELM) is a theory, clearly representing structure in explaining migration trends and patterns. It does not leave any space for the migrant’s/agent’s action, whereas
theories such as Network, Transnationalism, and Migration systems are the opposite – they do explain people’s reasons to migrate through the agency perspective. While discussing migration, Giddens and Sutton (2013) ask: “What are the forces behind global migration and how are they changing as a result of globalization?” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 706). According to them, earlier theories were based on push factors (the dynamics in a country of origin such as famine, political situation and war - all the factors that “forced” people to leave their country) and pull factors (“prosperous labour markets, better overall, living conditions and lower population density”) that would make countries of destination very attractive for migrants (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 706-707).

According to Giddens and Sutton (2013), those theories were recently criticized for being too simplistic. They report that “scholars of migration are increasingly looking at global migration patterns as ‘systems’ which are produced through interactions between macro-and micro-level processes” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 707). With regard to macro, Giddens and Sutton (2013) refer to political situation, laws and regulations regarding migration, or changes in the international economy, whereas micro is associated with knowledge, resources and the agents themselves. However, Kukonenko (2012) proposes that there is no universal theory to explain the reason people migrate and the process of the phenomenon. She emphasizes that different theories explain the reasons for migration through different levels of analysis, starting with the global reasons and ending with the personal ones (Kukonenko, 2012, p. 13).


According to Castles et al (2014), “The concept of the migratory process sums up the complex sets of factors and interactions which lead to migration and influence
its course. Migration is a process which affects every dimension of social existence, and which develops its own complex ‘internal’ dynamics” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 27). Ramifications of the success or failure of the migratory process is even more relevant today and more essential in our global society to invest in getting it right. I hope that my research reveals some challenges as well as positive responses of Lithuanian migration processes.

2.5.1. FUNCTIONALIST THEORIES: PUSH AND PULL MODELS AND NEOCLASSICAL AND HUMAN CAPITAL THEORY

According to Castles et al (2014), the push and pull model identifies economic, environmental and demographic reasons for people to migrate. Where push factors include the density of the population, the lack of work opportunities or political oppression, pull factors attract people to the destination country by offering better opportunities and life style. Although the push-pull model seems to incorporate all factors affecting peoples’ decision to migrate, it does not explain the role of the agent in this process. Castles et al (2014) also criticize the push-pull models since they have “difficulties explaining return migration and the simultaneous occurrences of emigration and immigration” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 29). They describe the push-pull model as being deterministic due to the assumption that demographic, environmental and economic factors ‘cause’ migration. This, according to Castles et al (2014), fails to acknowledge other factors such as how living standards impact a variety of social, political, and institutional aspects. Castles et al (2014) draw attention to the fact that if only based on population density and fertility, Eastern European countries (as opposed to Gulf countries) should not have a reason to migrate. However, they experience large scale emigration whereas Gulf countries, with high fertility rates, experience very low migration and high immigration.

Additionally, Castles et al (2014) suggest that: “Improved education and media exposure may increase feelings of relative deprivation” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 29).
According to Castles et al (2014), if this gives rise to an individual gaining higher aspirations, then increased migration could occur without any change in available opportunities at home. Castles et al (2014) also oppose the push–pull model’s prediction that the majority of migrants would move from the poorest to the wealthiest countries. They point out that people in the poorest countries may be so poor or oppressed that they would not have the chance and/or the means to migrate.

### 2.5.1.1. NEOClassical AND HUMAN CAPITAL THEORIES

According to Castles et al (2014), the neoclassical migration theory is based on cost–benefit calculation. “Neoclassical theory sees migration as a function of geographical differences in the supply and demand of labour. The resulting wage differentials encourage workers to move from low-wage, labour surplus regions to high-wage, labour–scarce regions” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 29). They further explain how neoclassical migration theory views migrants from the micro and macro perspectives. At the micro-level they are viewed as active agents “who decide to move on the basis of a cost–benefit calculation” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 29). At a macro-level, migration is viewed as a process “which optimizes the allocation of production factors. Migration will make labour less scarce at the destination and scarcer at the sending end. Capital is expected to move in the opposite direction” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 30). According to the neoclassical migration theory, in the long run, the wages in sending and receiving countries should equalise, therefore lowering reasons and motivations to migrate.

Alternatively, Castles et al (2014) discuss the theory of human capital which was proposed by Sjaastad (1962), “who viewed migration as an investment that increases the productivity of ‘human capital’ – such as knowledge and skills” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 30). According to Castles et al (2014), the human capital theory “helps to explain the ‘selectivity’ of migration (...), by pointing to the importance of the structure of labour markets, skills and income distributions in
sending and receiving societies” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 30). The authors point out that humans are varied in their gender, age, physical and intellectual abilities. Therefore, there is also a difference in what they can expect to benefit or gain from migration. To illustrate their point, Castles et al (2014) quote Chiswick (2000): “People decide to invest in migration, in the same way as they might invest in education, and they are expected to migrate if the additional lifetime benefits (primarily derived from higher wages) in the destination are greater than the costs incurred through migrating” (Chiswick, 2000, as cited by Castles et al., 2014, p. 30). They also explain why young and skilled people migrate more often: “Differences in such expected ‘returns and investments’ can partly explain why the young and higher skilled tend to migrate more” (Bauer and Zimmermann, 1998, cited by Castles et al., 2014, p. 30).

Despite acknowledging the importance of the neoclassical theory in helping to understand the selective nature of migration, Castles et al (2014) criticize functionalist theories such as the push-pull, neoclassical and human capital approaches for not accrediting human agency. They believe agency grants the real ability of human beings to make independent choices and to change structural conditions. Functionalist theories use a back-stage perspective and “do not consider how migrants perceive their world and relate to their kin, friends and community members” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 31). However, according to Kukonenko (2012), push-pull and neoclassical approaches are the most utilised in Lithuanian studies in order to explain trends and patterns of Lithuanian migration and are considered, along with structure/agency debate, in my data analysis.

2.5.2. HISTORICAL - STRUCTURAL THEORIES: WORLD SYSTEMS, GLOBALISATION, SEGMENTED LABOUR MARKET THEORIES

According to Castles et al (2014), neoclassical theories focus on “voluntary” migration whereas “historical-structural accounts tend to focus on large-scale
recruitment of labour” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 31). Examples of this include recruitment of indentured Indian workers by the British for East Africa, Turks and Moroccans for the factories and mines in Germany, France, Belgium and the Netherlands, and Mexicans for the agribusiness of California (Castles et al., 2014, p. 31). Historical-structural theories argue that individuals lack free choice because of constraints of structural forces. Simply put, people are forced to move because their traditional economic structures have been undermined. Scholars see this as a negative result of some countries’ incorporation into our global political-economic system. It is more often coupled with the mechanization of agriculture and/or the concentration of landownership, as well as increasing indebtedness (Castles et al., 2014, p. 32).

Castles et al (2014) criticize the historical-structural theory. They point out the theory’s over-riding assumption that “economic and political power is unequally distributed among wealthy and poor countries” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 32). They question the belief that access to resources is biased in these societies and that “capitalist expansion has the tendency to reinforce these inequalities” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 32). According to Castles et al (2014), the roots of such analysis lay in Marxist dependency theory in the 60s and world systems theory in 70-80s. The dependency theory describes underdevelopment of the Third World as a result of colonialism by exploitation of local resources and labour. The world systems theory focuses on incorporation of less peripheral regions into a capitalist economy. Taken together as a validation of historical-structural theory, Castles et al (2014) state: “historical-structural theory sees migration as a way of mobilizing cheap labour for capital, which primarily serves to boost profits and deprives origin areas of valuable labour and skills” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 32).
2.5.2.1. GLOBALISATION THEORY

While critical, Castles et al (2014) do agree that both dependency and world systems theories could be seen as a foundation for Globalisation theory. “A key indicator of globalisation is rapid increase in cross-border flows of all sorts, starting with finance and trade, but also including democratic values, cultural and media products, and most important in our context – people” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 33). According to Castles et al (2014), globalisation is often portrayed as an economic process, but they argue that it is also a process “conceived in normative or ideological terms” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 33).

While discussing globalization theory, Castles et al (2014) use a concept of social transformation, “a fundamental change in the way society is organized that goes beyond the continual incremental processes of social change that are always at work” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 34). They conclude that globalization has an uneven impact, including some regions and social groups and excluding others. “Penetration of poor, weak economies by ‘northern’ investments and
multinational corporations leads to economic restructuring, through which some groups of workers and producers are included in the new economy, while other groups find their livelihoods and workplaces destroyed and their qualifications devalued” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 34). According to Castles et al (2014), such conditions are a powerful motivation to migrate and seek a better livelihood abroad. However, authors point out that only those with financial and social capital can manage to migrate.

2.5.2.2. SEGMENTED LABOUR/DUAL MARKET THEORY

According to Castles et al (2014), “Historical-structural theories view the control and exploitation of labour by states and corporations as vital to the survival of the capitalist system” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 35). According to Castles et al (2014) it also makes them ”as key causes and drivers of migration processes” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 35). The authors explain the importance of a segmented labour market, namely that a “Dual (or segmented) labour market theory helps to understand how the demand for high- and low-skilled migrant labour is structurally embedded in modern capitalist economies” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 35). According to Castles et al (2014), this theory also “shows the importance of institutional factors as well as race and gender in bringing about labour market segmentation. A division into primary and secondary labour markets emerges” (Piore, 1979, cited by Castles et al., 2014, p. 36). Castles et al (2014) refer to Sassen (2001) who explains, that “the most dynamic ‘global cities’ are marked by economic polarization – a growing gulf between the highly paid core workers in finance, management and research, and the poorly paid workers who service their needs (Sassen, 2001). The workers in the primary labour market are positively selected on the basis of human capital, but also often through membership of the majority ethnic group, male gender and, in the case of migrants, regular legal status. Conversely, those in the secondary labour market are disadvantaged by a lack of education and vocational training, as well as by
gender, race, minority status and irregular legal status. The growth of the secondary sector has been reinforced through neoliberal reforms and the concomitant deregularization of labour markets” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 36).

According to Castles et al (2014), the “segmented labour market theory is also useful to understand how migration can continue even under circumstances of high unemployment, and how the irregular status of migrants may actually serve employers’ interests, as it creates a vulnerable and usually docile workforce” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 36).

2.5.2.3. CRITIQUE OF HISTORICAL–STRUCTURAL APPROACHES

Are migrants the victims of global capitalism? Scholars criticizing the historical-structural theory approaches think otherwise. They focus on human agency as proof that the diversity of migration reflects active choices by a wide range of people. Castles et al (2014) point out that “many people do make active choices and succeed in significantly improving their livelihoods through migrating” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 36). Similarly, Kukonenko (2012) argues that the dual labour market theory does not completely explain migration flows. In her words, many people migrate for personal reasons and not because of an attractive labour market (Kukonenko, 2012, p. 14). Additionally, Castles et al (2014) use the example of the Italian ‘peasants’ migration to the USA. “Vecoli (1964) argued that the notion that southern Italian peasants (contadini) living in the US were ‘uprooted’ from the Italian countryside was based on the myth of the Italian village as a harmonious social entity based on solidarity, communality, and neighbourliness. In reality, typical Italian peasants lived in dismal and highly exploitative conditions. For them, migration to the US did provide unprecedented opportunities. In such cases, migration was an active choice and an opportunity to escape from the constraints put on them by ‘traditional’ societies. This makes it difficult to portray migrants unilaterally as victims of global capitalism” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 37).
2.5.3. NEW ECONOMICS AND HOUSEHOLD APPROACHES

Castles et al. (2014) state “The new economics of labour migration (NELM) emerged as a critical response to neoclassical migration theory” (Massey et al., 1993, cited by Castles et al., 2014, p. 38). Castles et al. (2014) refer to Stark (1978), who argues that decisions to migrate were not taken by the individual but by their families or households. As well as the factor of income maximization, NELM highlights the following important factors for making the decision to migrate:

1. Risk sharing behaviour for the family.

2. Family or household strategy to provide recourses for investment in economic activities.

3. “Migration is a response to a relative deprivation, rather than absolute poverty” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 38).

According to Castles et al. (2014), NELM has close parallels with livelihood approaches. Briefly, the livelihood approach evolved from geographers, anthropologists and sociologists conducting micro-research in developing countries in the late 70s. The poor were seen to exert their human agency by actively improving their livelihoods in spite of the conditions they live in (Lieten and Nieuwenhuys, 1989, cited by Castles et al., 2014, p. 38).

The NELM is supported by Fleischer (2006), who describes migration “as a strategy of both parties involved (decision makers and migrants), leading to mutual interdependence. The unwritten contract includes obligations and responsibilities, but also promises benefits and gains” (Fleischer, 2006, p. 27). Fleischer (2006) investigated the influence of the family and kin networks on the individual’s decision to migrate. This study was based on qualitative ethnographic data collected during field research in Cameroon and showed the considerable impact of the extended family on the migrant’s decision to migrate.
to Germany. The decision to migrate usually belongs to the older members of the family (parents, older siblings, aunts and uncles) who not only sponsor the trip, pay for the visas through various networks, find a place to live (in a destination country), but also invest their time in bringing up the children “and putting energy into the development of prospective contacts and relations necessary for a successful future” (Fleischer, 2006, p. 11). According to Fleischer (2006), many Cameroonians belong to local informal saving and loan associations called “tontines. “They have social as well as financial functions and the people participating are usually connected in some way as relatives, neighbours or members of the local community. These family and community “banks” are also sources of financial support if a family member is in need of money for special purposes. Sometimes, the expenses for travel, visa, first accommodation, or university etc are paid through ‘tontines’“ (Fleischer, 2006, p. 23).

According to Fleischer (2006), family members, with the help of tontines in many cases, contribute to and/or invest in the “chosen one’s” trip to Germany (up to 5,000 Euros) in the hope of improving their own socio-economic situation when that person succeeds (Fleischer, 2006, p. 11). “This informal system of exchange is based on trust and has social consequences. If a person disappoints the sponsor(s), there will not only be consequences for the individual itself, but also for the entire family” (Fleischer, 2006, p. 23). This means the migrants are put under enormous pressure once in Germany. They have to excel in their studies, find a good job, send regular remittances, and are also expected to help younger siblings to migrate and settle in Europe (Fleischer, 2006, p. 12). “The migration of family members as well as investments into one single migrant often is a decision of the extended family and sometimes the community even rather than of the individual migrant. It is an attempt to augment the chances of successful and sustainable livelihood of all parties involved” (Fleischer, 2006, p. 26).
According to Castles et al (2014), “Household approaches show that factors such as social security, income risk and inequality, the chances of secure employment, access of the poor to the credit, insurance and product markets, can also be important migration determinants” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 39). However, the authors admit that the household approach is not quite relevant in explaining the migration of high–skilled and relatively well–off. “It is also important not to lose sight of intra–household powers struggles. For instance, instead of a move to help the family, migration can also be an individual strategy to escape from asphyxiating social control, abuse and oppression within families” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 39).

Kukonenko (2012) points out that the main criticism of these approaches is that the migration process is only analysed from the perspective of a sending country (Kukonenko, 2012, p. 13).

2.5.4. PRO AGENCY THEORIES: NETWORK; TRANSNATIONAL AND DIAZPORA; MIGRATION SYSTEMS APPROACHES

The pro agency theories: network, transnationalism, diaspora and migration systems are said to be focussed “on the ties, networks and distinct identities that are forged between sending and receiving countries through constant flows of information, ideas, money, and goods” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 39). How migrants’ agency creates social, economic and cultural structures and how this provides feedback mechanisms perpetuating migration processes are common analytical themes of the pro-agency theories (Castles et al., 2014). It is by individual and collective agency that migrants challenge structural constraint. Poverty, social exclusion and government restrictions present obstacles that only agency can challenge/overcome (Castles et al., 2014, p. 39).

Network systems play a crucial role in people’s decisions to migrate as well as defining the destination. Established infrastructures of migrant communities with shops, cafes, schools, churches, and service centres minimise risk and the
uncertainties of migration. “Pioneer” migrants – family members, friends and acquaintances who settled down in the UK earlier, provide accommodation, assist with job search and introduce them to the UK social and health services (Bartram et al., 2014; Castles et al., 2014). According to Bartram et al (2014), many migrants have well-established contacts within institutions and organizations that help them to migrate and find jobs.

“The accumulation of migration–related capital thus considerably reduces the uncertainties as well as the financial, social and psychological costs of migration. It also becomes a crucial element of household economic strategies” (Massey, 1990, cited by Bartram et al., 2014, pp. 38–39). Other scholars suggest migration networks are meso-level social structures, which tend to facilitate further migration. “The formation of a migrant community at one destination therefore increases the likelihood of more migration to the same place” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 41). After migrants arrive and settle in a destination country, they encourage other family members, friends, and other members of their network to join them. This creates a chain of migration. Bartram et al (2014) define ‘chain migration’, “the process by which migrants encourage and facilitate the subsequent migration of family members and friends – sometimes resulting in the migration of all (or almost all) individuals from one locality to a single destination” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 26). According to Bartram et al (2014), “the idea of a chain takes shape when the migrants who follow the ‘pioneers’ themselves encourage and facilitate migration by yet more people in their networks” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 27). However, Bartram et al (2014) also point to the research by Jasso and Rozenzweig (1986), who highlighted the limits in the length of migration chains. They found that earlier arrivals often sponsored family members but the more recent arrivals seemed reticent to follow suit (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 29).

Social networks facilitate the migration process and make it easier for a migrant to adapt in a new country. However, just being a part of social network is not
enough for migration to take place. Social capital - “the actual or potential resources linked to a migrant’s social ties”- is crucial for successful migration (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 96). It echoes Castles et al (2014), who argue that “besides financial and human capital, social capital is a third recourse affecting people’s capability and aspiration to migrate” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 40).

2.5.4.1. TRANSMISSIONAL AND DIASPORA THEORIES

Recently, new theories of transnationalism and transnational communities have emerged. These argue that “globalization has increased the ability of migrants to maintain network ties over long distances” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 41).

According to Bartram et al (2014), “A transnational mode of migration facilitates the transfer of remittances and development in immigrant’s countries of origin. Transnational social networks are composed of people who live ‘dual lives’ e.g. speaking more than one language, having homes in two or more countries, and making a living through regular contact across borders” (Porters et al., 1999, cited by Bartram et al., 2014, p. 98).

Despite an ever-growing communication means, as well as accessibility to transport, this does not increase migration. However, it does allow migrants ease of communication with their home country and even to remain as part of the sending community. “This has increased the ability of migrants to foster multiple identities, to travel back and forth, to relate to people, to work and to do business and politics simultaneously in distant places” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 41).

Scholars study transnational and diaspora theories for different reasons. Wahlbeck (2002) emphasizes the importance of transnationalism and diaspora theories for refugee studies: “it gives a profound understanding of the social reality in which refugees live” (Wahlbeck, 2003, p. 221). Giddens and Sutton (2013) argue that studying diasporas helps better understand global migration.
patterns. However, scholars disagree about the terminology of concepts transnationalism and diasporas.

According to Bartram et al (2014), “Transnationalism refers to the increasing tendency among migrants to maintain ties with their country of origin – and thus to develop identities of social relations in multiple national contexts rather than being rooted in only one country at any given time. Some migrants now travel back and forth as a matter of routine, send remittances on a regular basis, communicate routinely with family and friends (via telephone, email, Skype, etc.) and even engage in political actions such as voting in two (or more) different countries” (Bartram et al., 2014, pp. 140–141). Bartram et al (2014) quote Portes et al (1999) in saying that transnationalism has at least three distinctive aspects: economic, political and cultural. Economic transnationalism refers to increased flow of remittances or entrepreneurship between origin and destination countries. The political aspects means the individual is politically active and voting in both countries. “The cultural dimension of transnationalism follows from and reinforces the other two components: in maintaining economic and political ties with their country of origin, migrants are less likely to discard cultural endowments such as language, music and arts, and more pervasive sense of identity. Instead of becoming a ‘Dominican – American’, then, a migrant might consider herself both a Dominican and an American, with neither element dominating the other” (Portes et al., 1999, cited by Bartram et al., 2014, pp. 141–142).

Bartram et al (2014) defines diasporas as “a dispersed population across more than one territory having a durable and salient relationship (consisting of a set of claims, practices and/or loyalties) to a common origin, identity or homeland” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 48).

Castles et al (2014) do not draw a line between transnational communities and diasporas. They argue that “A much older term for transnational communities is
This concept goes back to ancient Greece: it meant ‘scattering’ and referred to city – state colonization practices. Diaspora is often used for people displaced or dispersed by force (e.g. the Jews; African slaves in the New World), but it has also been applied to certain trading groups such as Greeks in Western Asia and Africa, the Lebanese, or the Arab traders who brought Islam to South-East Asia, as well as to labour migrants (Indians in the British Empire; Italians in the USA; Magrebis and Turks in Europe) (Cohen, 1997; Safran, 1991; Van Hear, 1998)” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 42).

Nowadays, the term diaspora is used to “denote almost any migrant community” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 42). However, it has particular features that distinguish diaspora communities from other migrant communities.

In his book Global Diasporas, Cohen (1997) adopts a historical approach to the dispersal of people and identifies five different categories of diaspora: Victim, Labour, Trading, Imperial and Cultural. According to Giddens and Sutton (2013), “Despite diversity of forms (...) all diasporas share certain key features. Cohen suggests that they all meet the following criteria:

- a forced or voluntary movement from an original homeland to a new region or regions
- a shared memory about the original homeland, a commitment to its preservation and belief in the possibility of eventual return
- a strong ethnic identity sustained over time and distance
- a sense of solidarity with members of the same ethnic group also living in areas of the diaspora
- a degree of tension in relation to the host societies
• the potential for valuable and creative contributions to pluralistic host societies” (Cohen, 1997, cited by Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 710).

Although Cohen’s (1997) typology could be criticized by other scholars for its simplification, Giddens and Sutton (2013) defend it as being “valuable because it shows how the meaning of diaspora is not static, but relates to the ongoing processes of maintaining collective identities and preserving ethnic cultures in the context of a rapid period of globalization” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 710).

2.5.4.2. MIGRATION SYSTEMS THEORY AND CUMULATIVE CAUSATION

Castles et al (2014) explain differences among pro-agency theories. Migration network theories are focused on the role of social capital, whereas transnational and diaspora theory focus on the role of identity formation. Accordingly, migration systems theory, “looks at how migration is intrinsically linked to other forms of exchange, notably flows of goods, ideas, and money; and how this changes the initial conditions under which migration takes place, both in origin and destination societies. Migration systems theory, therefore, allows us to deepen our understanding of how migration is embedded in broader processes of social transformation and development” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 43).

Migration systems theory was founded by the geographer Mabogunje in 1970s who “focused on the role of flows of information and new ideas (such as on the ‘good life’ and consumption patterns) in shaping migration systems. He stressed the importance of feedback mechanisms, through which information about the migrants’ reception and progress at the destination is transmitted back to the place of origin. Favourable information would then encourage further migration and lead to situation of ‘almost organized migratory flows from particular villagers to particular cities. (...) Migration systems link people, families and communities over space” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 43). The key implication of the migration systems theory according to Castles et al (2014) is that “one form of
exchange between countries or places, such as trade, is likely to engender other forms of exchange such as people, *in both directions*. Migratory movements generally arise from the existence of prior links between countries based on colonization, political influence, trade, investment or cultural ties*“*(Castles et al., 2014, p. 44).

Kukonenko (2012) explains migration systems theory as a result of an interaction between macro- and micro-level processes in two countries (origin and destination). According to Giddens and Sutton (2013), macro-levels are overarching issues beyond the control of the migrant. These include “the political situation in an area, the laws and regulations controlling immigration and emigration, or changes in the international economy” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 707). On the other hand, micro-level factors are more migrant accountable. These include “the resources, knowledge and understandings that the migrant populations themselves possess” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 707). According to Giddens and Sutton (2013), push and pull theories were recently criticized for being too simplistic. Because of this, they were not able to explain the complexity or full spectrum of migration processes. Therefore “scholars of migration are increasingly looking at global migration patterns as ‘systems’ which are produces through interactions between macro- and micro-level processes” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 707).

Bartram et al (2014) define *cumulative causation* as “the process by which existing migration flows result in future flows, leading to the self-perpetuation and continuous growth of immigration from particular origins to particular destinations” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 38). The concept of cumulative causation was pioneered by the Swedish Nobel Prize winner, Gunnar Myrdal, in 1957. It aimed to explain increasing economic inequalities between industrialized and developing countries. Later in 1990s, it was adapted by Massey in migration studies to explain “more specifically the density and geography of migration
flows. Cumulative causation has been used mainly to analyse migration flows from Mexican rural areas to the United States” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 38).

Bartram et al (2014) lists several dimensions of cumulative causation, namely:

1. **Diffusion and accumulation of social capital among the community of origin.** This is the core mechanism. It describes how “migration flow leads to the construction of social networks linking the migrant groups with their community (family members and friends) in the country of origin. This network facilitates the diffusion and accumulation of migration-related capital among those who remain in the origin, thus increasing the probability of their migration. This migration-related capital includes elements such as information on travel, employment or housing opportunities, and financial support after arrival; it also includes the psychological support of having social ties in the destination country” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 38).

2. **Structural dimensions that affect household strategies,** particularly in rural areas. According to Bartram et al (2014), significant changes in the origin community’s socioeconomic structures “have ‘feedback mechanisms’ that reinforce the factors leading to migration” (Massey, 1990, cited by Bartram et al., 2014, p. 39). Similarly “remittances and savings can transform the organization of agrarian production and work in the region of origin” (Reichert, 1982, cited by Bartram et al., 2014, p. 39). Some migrants return to work the agricultural land they own. Because now they have more resources, they tend to use advanced farming methods. This, in turn “decreases the need for agricultural labour in the origin country” (Massey et al., 1987, cited by Bartram et al., 2014, p. 39). This feeds further by reducing “job opportunities in the region of origin and creates [creating] more pressure for migration” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 39).
3. **Cultural and psycho-sociological dimensions.** Since people hear successful stories and see material investment of their community members abroad, they start building a romantic picture of migration as well as feeling “pressure to migrate in order to improve (or simply maintain) their own socio-economic status” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 40). Bartram et al (2014) draw attention to the fact that the more people migrate from the region, the more feelings of relative deprivation arise among those who remain in the country of origin. This encourages more and more people to migrate and create their own success story.

4. **Macroeconomic factors that attract immigration to the area that previously experienced emigration.** “Economic growth and the subsequent labour demand in a migrant-sending region leads to the development of an immigration inflow coming from poorer regions (often through active recruitment). This inflow tends to reinforce economic growth and thus increases labour demand, while at the same time decreasing growth and demand in the secondary origin. This is due to the fact that the individuals who migrate are generally highly productive: they are young, well endowed in social capital, and often ready to accept relatively bad working conditions“ (Greenwood et al., 1997, cited by Bartram et al., 2014, p. 40). They continue, “The (new) destination region thus gains a highly productive workforce, while the (new) sending region loses it. These increasing inequalities or imbalances can lead to further migration and, ultimately, to the development of a self-perpetuating and continually growing flow’” (Massey, 1990, cited by Bartram et al., 2014, p. 40).

According to Bartram et al (2014), many governments try to fight against cumulative causation of migration “through policies that aim to limit changes in the socio-economic structures of immigrants’ communities of origin. Thus,
governments try to establish a linkage between aid/development policies and immigration controls. They often argue that immigration flows can be limited through policies catalysing the development of Southern countries, especially in rural areas. Empirical studies show however that, in fact, immigration is itself part of the development process (de Haas, 2010, cited by Bartram et al., 2014, p. 40).

According to Castles et al. (2014), “Theories on migrant networks, transnationalism, diasporas and migration systems are useful to understand the crucial role of migrants’ agency in creating meso-level social, cultural and economic structures which tend to make migration processes self-sustaining” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 45). However, they warn that those theories also have some weaknesses. These theories cannot, for example,

- “explain why most initial migration by pioneers does not lead to the formation of migration networks and migration systems” (de Haas, 2010b, cited by Castles et al., 2014, p. 45);
- They also have difficulty explaining the stagnation and weakening of migration systems over time (due to exclusive focus on migration – facilitating mechanisms);
- And finally, these theories “do not specify under what general conditions migrant networks and migration systems weaken, or (...) migration to new destinations occurs” (de Haas, 2010b, cited by Castles et al., 2014, p. 45).

Castles et al (2014) emphasize the importance of developing more critical understanding of the role of social capital in migration processes in order to explain those weaknesses.
2.5.5. MIGRATION TRANSITION THEORIES–AGENCY/STRUCTURE

While discussing migration theories, Castles et al (2014) warn of the danger by focusing only on meso-level theories and losing sight of macro-level political and economic factors (structure of labour markets, interstate relationships, inequality, migration policies, etc.) that impact migration processes. They emphasize the need to “connect theories focusing on agency and identities of migrant and the continuation of migration with macro-level theories on the structural causes of migration” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 46). The authors’ main concern is the general assumption by functionalist and historical-structural theories that migration is due to geographical inequalities that can ultimately be solved and that “this can be achieved by reducing inequality and stimulating development in origin societies” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 46). They point out that empirical observations prove that development often increases emigration (as of de Haas 2010c; Skeldon, 1997; Tapinos, 1990), partly because people need resources to migrate, which development provides. Emigration countries such as Mexico, Morocco and the Philippines are not the poorest and it has been shown that emigrants from the poorest countries often come from relatively well-off families. Migration of the poorest usually only happens as a result of conflict or disasters and over shorter distances. The extremely impoverished are often unable to move. A key example given by Castles et al (2014) was Hurricane Katrina. When this category 5 tropical storm hit New Orleans in 2005, many of the poor were trapped in the city without transport (Castles et al., 2014, pp. 46–47). Migration transition theories can provide an explanation as to why development leads to increased migration since it focuses on long-term associations between development and migration as opposed to migration hump which focuses only on short- to medium-term associations between migration and development (Castles et al., 2014).

According to Castles et al (2014), transition theories “see migration as an intrinsic part of broader processes of development, social transformation and
globalization. Transition theories conceptualize how the migration patterns tend to change over the course of development process. In opposition to most other migration theories, they argue that development processes are generally associated with increasing levels of migration, but they also stress that this relation is complex and fundamentally non-linear” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 47).

2.5.6. CONCLUSION

Why do people migrate? What did I learn from migration theories? I have learned that that there is no a single migration theory what could adequately explain migration flows (Kukonenko, 2012; Bartram et al., 2014; Castles et al., 2014). Migration theories can be divided into clusters such as voluntary/involuntary and structural/agency as well as macro - meso – micro. Some look at migration flows from macro perspectives (political and economic structures; push and pull factors) while other theories look from meso/micro perspectives (human agency, social capital, migration networks and migration systems). In the concluding chapter of their book “Age of Migration”, Castles et al (2014) refer to Massey et al (1993) who argue that each of the theories has different levels of analysis, and each focuses on migration from a different perspective. Nevertheless, these theories give us important insights into migration. Due to their differences, they cannot be simply combined to fully explain or analyse the process. Castles et al (2014) highlight this discordance. “For instance, neoclassical and historical-structural and neo-Marxist theories are based on different assumptions on what causes migration. However, insight from both theories can be useful to understand particular manifestations of migration occurring in particular contexts or at different levels of analysis” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 52).

The problem of migration has been the global media’s spotlight as thousands of Iraqis, Syrians and West Africans leave their countries ‘en masse’, escaping poverty, war, the threat of ISIS, etc., in search of a better life abroad. They risk their lives crossing oceans in order to get to Turkey, Italy and Greece – their
transit route/entry into Europe. Thousands of migrants come ashore daily in countries like Italy, which is struggling economically and Greece in particular, which cannot accommodate such a deluge. The current migration situation in Europe is now more acute than ever before. EU officials call the situation “catastrophic”. To cope, countries such as France set up temporary detention camps at their borders. These continue to house illegal immigrants for months, if not years, after processing their details.

Recent events in Calais show that reasons for migration cannot be explained by using one theory. Many would argue that migration from West Africa and the Middle East could be explained by the ever-worsening political and economic situation in their countries – it could possibly be looked at and explained through globalization, push – pull approaches. But which theory can explain what drives people to migrate even further? One might argue that once people have reached the “land of safety”, such as Turkey, Greece or Italy, there is no need to migrate further. However, people do, as seen in the “Calais jungle”, which held over 10,000 migrants. This is due to the strong pull factor of the UK, network systems, or diasporas that make people break the law of the country that embraced them, sometimes using violence in their attempt to reach the “promised land UK”. The media is full of stories covering recent migration trends in Europe, e.g. “Thousands laying siege to the tunnel risk death every night, but refuse to be deterred from reaching El Dorado across the channel” (The Daily Telegraph, 2015, 31st Aug. p. 4). The then Home secretary, Mrs May, stated in a joint article with her French counterpart, Bernard Cazeneuve, that they “urged other EU nations to help address the root causes of the ‘global migration crisis’” (The Daily Mail, 2015, 3rd Aug. p. 2). The Daily Mail also quoted a spokesman for the Eurotunnel who said: “It is now a criminal crisis as well as a migration crisis. The governments need to act not only to protect the Channel Tunnel but break up criminals” (The Daily Mail, 2015, 3rd Aug. p. 12). Is it agency or structure that drives this type of desperate migration? Perhaps the concepts of agency’s
aspirations and capabilities, that Castles et al (2014) suggest using in explaining migration flows, would help us understand the latest migration phenomenon to Europe from West Africa and Middle East.

My goal is to add to the body of academic work that helps explain the phenomenon of migration. Whilst my research studies migration that is neither illegal nor involuntary (while both UK and Lithuania still a part of the EU) it offers to answer another piece of this complex puzzle, the final picture of which is a diverse yet stable British society. My focus is on Lithuanian migration to the UK, with greater attention paid to the consequences of migration on family relationships. In the following chapter, I will describe in detail “the way I went about it” – METHODOLOGY.

2.5.7. SUMMARY OF LITERATURE REVIEW

The Literature review provided me with a great statistical background showing the vast numbers of Lithuanians coming to the UK as well as providing the scope of issues migrants face during their settlement abroad. These included emotional, separation, adaptation issues, challenges, etc. The literature review also provided me with the major migration theories that will help explain trends and patterns of Lithuanian migration. However, there is scant evidence about what exactly is happening to the family relationships when they migrate to the UK, which indicates the need for this study. Are the scaremongering titles in Lithuanian press based on any credible ground? I hope this empirical research contributes to the literature and possibly breaks new ground on this matter.
3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, I explore the practical aspects of my research, namely how I selected the research strategy, including the methods adopted for my research, data collection and its analysis.

In part one of this chapter, I outline the process of methodological orientation and present the most suitable methodology and data collection tools for my research. I argue that a qualitative research strategy, based on the grounded theory approach, is necessary to investigate migration. In part two, I explain the initial research design and its execution, starting from the aims of my research; languages used (Lithuanian and English); development of data collection tools, including: sampling, recruitment of participants and selection of sites. The two stages of the data collection are presented, the transcribing process, and the coding and analysis of my data. In the third part of this chapter, I present a summary of ethical issues considered during the whole research process. In the fourth chapter, I discuss validity, reliability and rigour in my research. Besides exploring those concepts from the qualitative research literature, I explore the meaning of credibility, rigour, and authenticity within the Grounded Theory approach. In part five, I finish this chapter with the evaluation and my personal reflection on the research process.

3.2. METHODOLOGICAL ORIENTATION

3.2.1. IN SEARCH OF METHODOLOGY

I began my search for a methodological orientation by first defining the key concepts for my research – methodology and methods. Corbin and Strauss (2008) define methodology as “a way of thinking about and studying social phenomena” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 1). In contrast, Sarantakos (2005)
describes methodology as a “model entailing the theoretical principles and frameworks that provide the guidelines about how research is to be done” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 51). Corbin and Strauss (2008) define methods as “techniques and procedures for gathering and analysing data” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 1). So, in this chapter I take you through the journey of my decision making process regarding methodology and defend why the qualitative approach was adopted. I also explain why I chose grounded theory for my data collection and analysis.

Choosing a method of inquiry for my research was not an easy task. As a new researcher, I was spoilt (as well as lost) by a vast choice of different research methods which, first, had to be informed by my chosen research methodology: quantitative or qualitative.

3.2.2. ONTOLOGICAL POSITIONS: REALISM VS RELATIVISM

King and Horrocks (2010) explain the difference between two methodological approaches: qualitative and qualitative from an ontological position, drawing deep into their respective theoretical roots - realism and relativism. Ontology can be defined as “assumptions about the world“ (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 5) or “a branch of philosophy traditionally concerned with the nature of reality as we experience it” (Layder, 2006, p. 306). King and Horrocks (2010) explain that “without a perspective on the nature of social reality – how people might exist in the world – it would be impossible to consider what might count as relevant knowledge in the research process” (King and Horrocks, 2010, p. 8). Authors argue that “ontological positions are often described primarily as ‘realist’ or ‘relativist’. Put somewhat simply, a realist ontology subscribes to the view that the real world is out there and exists independently from us. The world is made up of objects and structures that have identifiable cause and effect relationships. (...) Relativist ontology rejects such direct explanations, maintaining that the world is far more unstructured and diverse. (...) Within relativism, society is not
viewed as a pre-existent ‘real’ entity with objects and structures but rather is the product of people engaging with one another. Therefore relativism is more consistent with the social practices and interactive explanations of how people exist and live in their world. Existence is therefore explained differently within these two approaches and, as such, the data that would need to be collected to investigate these different versions of reality are not the same” (King and Horrocks, 2010, p. 9). They further explain that quantitative research endorses realist ontology, whereas qualitative research adopts realist and relativist approaches.

3.2.2.1. QUANTITATIVE VS QUALITATIVE

Describing the difference between quantitative and qualitative methodologies, Bell (2005) explains that “quantitative researchers collect facts and study the relationship of one set of facts to another. They use techniques that are likely to produce quantified and, if possible, generalizable conclusions” (Bell, 2005, p. 7). The quantitative research approach is useful to reveal patterns of the phenomena. It tries to measure social phenomenon and, according to Giddens and Sutton (2013), uses “statistical analysis to explain them” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 48). Conversely, qualitative research gathers in-depth information of social phenomenon and tries to understand individual perceptions of the world. “They seek insights rather than statistical perceptions of the world. They doubt whether social “facts” exist and question whether scientific approach can be used when dealing with human beings” (Bell, 2005, p. 8).

I chose qualitative research for several reasons. Firstly, I was not preoccupied with the numbers and patterns of Lithuanian migration. Instead, I wanted to find out why and what is happening with Lithuanian families in migration. Thus, rather than counting how many Lithuanian migrants sustain their families in the UK, I wanted to find out the scope of this immigration phenomenon and what the implications of migrating were to family relationships. Statistical facts would
have shown me the patterns of the phenomenon, whereas an in-depth explanation could only be achieved through applying a qualitative methodology. Fleisher (2006) maintains that “applying qualitative research methods helps to explore attitudes, motivations, and intentions, but also opens new perspectives and enables the exploration of the micro-level causes of international migration” (Fleisher, 2006, p. 10).

Through this research, I wanted to build upon the knowledge on individual stories/interviews. I wanted to learn about what is happening through the participant’s own narratives through open ended/unstructured and semi-structured in depth interviews. Corbin and Strauss (2008) explain that “qualitative research allows researchers to get at the inner experience of participants, to determine how meanings are formed through and in culture, and to discover rather than test variables” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 12). That was exactly what I was aiming to do and achieve through my research.

Qualitative research techniques offer a wide range of methods of data collection and analysis, including narrative inquiry, ethnography and grounded theory. I began my selection by making a list and evaluating both the strengths and weaknesses of the respective methods in order to make an informed decision about their suitability for my research.

3.2.3. ETHNOGRAPHY

Giddens and Sutton (2013) describe ethnography as a type of fieldwork where people are studied through participant observation and interviews as the primary data collection methods (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 48). According to Sarantakos (2005), ethnography was a previously preferred method for anthropologists to study primitive cultures. However, he notes that “with recent developments in social sciences, and especially with the advent of feminism and women’s studies, ethnographic research, particularly critical ethnography, has
become rather popular” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 207). Flick (2009) points to another appealing feature of ethnography - exploration of the social phenomenon rather than testing the hypothesis about it. I did not have any hypothesis in my research. Instead, I had a number of questions I wanted to explore about Lithuanian migration to the UK and its effect on the family relationships. As the main strengths of the method Giddens and Sutton (2013) note that ethnographic research generates more in-depth information and provides a broader understanding of social phenomena.

Another reason I thought that ethnography research would be most suited for me was because of the significance it attaches to the role of the researcher’s ‘self’ in the research (Denscombe, 2007). Being a Lithuanian migrant myself and also a mother were valuable factors in using this method.

Thus, in-line with the above features, ethnography seemed like a suitable method to answer my research question. However, the nature of my research – asking people of their migration experiences rather than observing them in their natural environment - was also informed by the following limitations. First of all, it would have been impossible to observe people in their environment given that not all Lithuanians live in close communities. Secondly, observation would not inform me on how people cope with separation and migration challenges. Thirdly, according to Sarantakos (2005), validity and reliability would be an issue too. Last but not least, time consumption as well as representativeness would be other limitations that Bell (2005) also pointed out: “if the researcher is studying a group in depth over a period of time, who is to say that group is typical of other groups that may have the same title?” (Bell, 2005, p. 17). For example, would the experiences of a Lithuanian group in East Anglia be representative of a Lithuanian community living in Scotland?
3.2.4. NARRATIVE INQUIRY AND STORIES

I wanted to conduct research based on respondents’ perception and understanding of their experiences and making their own meaning on to them. I found that the narrative approach, letting respondents tell their stories and making sense of the narrative, would be one of the possible methods that would help to answer my research question. Namely, what is happening to the Lithuanian families when they move to the UK and have to live apart before their reunification? Flick (2009) states that narrative allows the researcher “to approach the interviewee’s experiential yet structured world in a comprehensive way” (Flick, 2009, p. 177).

From the first look at the description, the narrative approach would certainly help me to explore the topic because it would enable an insight into the meaning of life experience through those who lived it: the respondents. I have learned from Malinauskas (2011), that by conducting narrative inquiry I would firstly find out about the reasons people decided to migrate and what their situation was before migration. Secondly, I would learn what has happened to them during their time of separation. Finally, I would be informed of the outcome, what happened to the families “after migration” – the time of their reunification. According to Malinauskas (2011), narrative becomes plausible when people introduce their story, tell and finally sum up the most significant parts of it (Malinauskas, 2011, p. 43). Since the structure of the method seemed very clear (introduction, development and summing up) I was almost confident that the narrative inquiry and stories would help me to answer my research question as to whether the migration process had any impact on family relationships. However, Bell (2005) and Flick (2009) warn that narratives can present their own set of problems as they are time consuming and produce a high mass of unstructured text, which can be problematic to interpret (Flick, 2009, p. 185).
Furthermore, Flick (2009) draws attention to the fact that not all participants are capable of giving narrative presentations of their lives (Flick, 2009, p. 183). Moreover, he argues that other authors are critical about applying this method to foreign cultures because “the validity of the narrative schema dominant in Western culture cannot simply be presumed for other, non-Western cultures” (Flick, 2009, p. 183). That is where my decision of applying this method started to crumble. I realised that I did not consider cultural differences and the use of language in expressing one’s story. I realised that through conducting narrative research in Lithuanian and then translating it into English, the narratives may get lost in translation. I started doubting my ability to make a full account of that intimate and personal story experience of my prospective respondents therefore not being able to explore and make an adequate interpretation of the full picture of the Lithuanian family migration phenomena. As a new researcher, I felt that I did not have enough experience to conduct and analyse narrative research.

I felt that I needed something more structured, yet creative and flexible, that would guide me through the research process. That is how I discovered grounded theory. It had the story aspect that I admired in the narrative approach, as well as great depth and detail that was so endearing in the ethnography. Yet, grounded theory had a clearer structure on how to conduct qualitative research – sampling, data collection, analysis and theory building tools.

### 3.2.5. THE GROUNDED THEORY APPROACH: ITS HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT

According to Bell (2005), “the grounded theory approach to qualitative data analysis was developed by Glaser and Strauss in the 1960s during the course of a field observational study of the way hospital staff dealt with dying patients” (Bell, 2005, p. 18). According to Kelle (2005), Glaser and Strauss developed a constant comparative method through this research, later known as grounded theory. According to Denscombe (2007), the grounded theory approach was
created as a reaction against the grand deductive theories. “Glaser and Strauss were dissatisfied with this approach and argued that a theory developed through the Grounded Theory approach would have distinct advantages over those derived from the more traditional ‘scientific’ methods” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 100). Charmaz (2009), explains the historical context in which grounded theory was founded: In the early 1960s in the United States, hospital staff seldom talked about or even acknowledged dying and death with seriously ill patients. Glaser and Strauss’ research team observed how dying occurred in a variety of hospital settings; they looked at how and when professionals and their terminal patients knew they were dying and how they handled the news. Glaser and Strauss gave their data explicit analytic treatment and produced theoretical analyses of the social organization and temporal order of dying. They explored analytic ideas in long conversations and exchanged preliminary notes analysing observations in the field. As they constructed their analyses of dying, they developed systematic methodological strategies that social scientists could adopt for studying many other topics” (Charmaz, 2009, p. 4).

Based on early works of Glaser and Strauss, Charmaz (2009) defines the main components of grounded theory practice:

- “Simultaneous involvement in data collection and analysis

- Constructing analytic codes and categories from data, not from preconceived logically deduced hypotheses

- Using the constant comparative method, which involves making comparisons during each stage of the analysis

- Advancing theory development during each stem of data collection and analysis
• Memo writing to elaborate categories, specify their properties, define relationships between categories, and identify gaps

• Sampling aimed toward theory construction, not for population representativeness

• Conducting the literature review after developing an independent analysis” (Charmaz, 2009, pp. 5-6).

Charmaz (2009) argues that “Engaging in these practices helps researchers to control their research process and to increases the analytic power of their work” (Charmaz, 2009, p. 6). According to Layder (2005) “(...) Glaser and Strauss operate with an interpretivist or humanist tradition of thought which suggests that sociology (and social analysis in general) cannot model itself on the natural sciences. Social theory must reflect the experiences, meanings and understandings of people in face-to-face interaction rather than identify the empirical ‘variables’ that ‘externally’ influence behaviour (...). (...) Grounded theory insists that theoretical concepts and hypotheses must emerge from the data as it is uncovered or gathered in the research process itself” (Layder, 2005, p. 17). According to Layder (2005), the founders of the grounded theory approach emphasised that the development of theories always begins with a grounding in data concerning a particular of sociological inquiry. For example, in the context of this research, the inquiry is the migration phenomenon, immigrants’ lives; their family relationships, and so forth. According to Layder (2005), “After substantive theory about this area has been developed as a result of the researcher immersing her or himself in empirical data culled from interviews, observations (and documentary resources), it is then possible to elaborate and extend this theory so that it may cover more general and formal areas of inquiry, such as authority and power, organisations (...), and so forth” (Layder, 2005, p. 20).
3.2.5.1. DEVELOPMENT OF GROUNDED THEORY

According to Charmaz (2009), since their classic statement in 1967 and 1978, Glaser and Strauss have taken grounded theory in deviating directions. “For years, Glaser remained consistent with his earlier exegesis of the method and thus defined grounded theory as a method of discovery, treated categories as emergent from the data, relied on direct and, often, narrow empiricism, and analysed a basic social process. Strauss (1987) moved to the method toward verification and his co-authored works with Juliet M. Corbin (Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Strauss & Corbin, 1990, 1998) furthered this direction” (Charmaz, 2009, p. 8). Charmaz (2009) further explains the main differences between Glaser’s and Strauss & Corbin’s versions of grounded theory. “Strauss and Corbin’s version of grounded theory also favours their new technical procedures rather than emphasizing the comparative methods that distinguished earlier grounded theory strategies. Glaser (1992) contends that Strauss and Corbin’s procedures force data and analysis into preconceived categories and, thus, contradict fundamental tenets of grounded theory” (Charmaz, 2009, p. 8).

According to Denscombe (2007), since the publication of The Discovery of Grounded Theory in 1967, the notion of grounded theory has come to mean slightly different things to different people. There has been a tendency for researchers to ‘adopt and adapt’ grounded theory and tailor it for their own purposes (Denscombe, 2007, p. 89). Dey (1999) supports this view by stating that “there are ‘probably as many versions of grounded theory as there were grounded theorists” (Dey, 1999, p. 2). However, Melia (1996) (cited in Colman, 2009), maintains that it is unclear whether these two schools of thought are actually different, or whether they are just expressing a similar idea in different ways. Despite the divergence from the original Glaser and Strauss’s work in 1967 and further development or adaptation of the theory, Denscombe (2007) observes that there are constant features that never change in the grounded theory approach.
These include: that the theory has to be grounded into empirical work; it should be generated by a systematic analysis of the data; the selection of instances to be included in the research reflects the developing nature of the theory and cannot be predicted at the start; theories should be useful at a practical level and meaningful to those ‘on the ground’, and finally - researchers should start out with an ‘open mind’ (Denscombe, 2007, pp. 89–90).

Denscombe (2007) supports this statement with the original Glaser and Strauss (1967) quote:

“This should not be seen to imply that a good social research starts out with a ‘blank’ mind. To be sure, one goes out and studies an area with a particular...perspective, and with a focus, a general question or a problem in mind. But the researcher can (and we believe should) also study an area without any preconceived theory that dictates, prior to the research, ‘relevancies’ in concepts and hypotheses” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 33, cited by Denscombe, 2007, pp. 89–90).

According to Denscombe (2007), “the Grounded Theory approach has its roots in pragmatism, whose guiding philosophy is clearly acknowledged by Glaser and Strauss. Pragmatism places great emphasis on the ‘practical’ rather than the ‘abstract’ when it comes to issues of knowledge and truth and it operates on the premise that the value of any theory can only be gauged by how well it addresses real practical needs and how well it works in practice” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 91). He then suggests “What this implies is that explanations of events and situations need to be meaningful and relevant to those whose actions and behaviour are involved. If the research involves interaction between teachers and pupils in the school classroom it is vital not only that grounded theory is based on fieldwork in the classroom setting but also that its explanation makes sense to the teachers and pupils involved and ‘rings true’ for them” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 91).
3.2.5.2. CONSTRUCTING GROUNDED THEORY

According to Charmaz (2009), “In their original statement of the method, Glaser and Strauss (1967) invited their readers to use grounded theory strategies flexibly in their own way” (Charmaz, 2009, p. 9). Charmaz (2009) herself viewed grounded theory methods “as a set of principles and practices, not as prescriptions on packages” (Charmaz, 2009, p. 9). Creativity, flexibility and openness of the method were the factors that appealed to me the most. According to Denscombe (2007) the grounded theory approach “expects the researcher to start research without any fixed ideas about the nature of the thing that is about to be investigated or how it operates. Taken to the extremes, this calls for the researcher to approach the topic without being influenced by previous theories or other research relating to the area. A literature review of the subject, by this vision, is prohibited” (Denscombe, 2007, pp. 93-94). Birks and Mills (2011) agree that “use of the literature in grounded theory is perhaps one of the most contentious and misunderstood aspects of this approach to research” (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 22). However, they point out that it is not the use of literature in general during the research process, but “it is the use of the literature in the initial stages of a grounded theory study that has stimulated the most debate” (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 22). They refer to Glaser and Strauss (1967), who acknowledge, however, “that no researcher enters the field as a blank slate. (...). None deny that a researcher will enter into a study with a broad range of knowledge about their proposed area of study (with much of this having no doubt been drawn from the literature) and neither promotes a thorough review of the literature before undertaking a grounded theory study. We suggest, however, that there are many ways in which a limited and purposive preliminary review can assist a researcher in the early stages, not the least of which is the early enhancement of theoretical sensitivity” (Birks and Mills, 2001, p. 22).
According to Birks and Mills (2011), “Reviewing the literature on the topic of a proposed study provides an indication of the extent of current knowledge and work undertaken in the field. Urquhart (2007) argues that this is an effective means of orientating the grounded theorist to the field of study, without necessarily prejudicing them towards existing theoretical concepts” (Urquhart, 2007, cited by Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 22).

I should admit, I have adapted grounded theory. I have not started my research as a “tabula rasa”¹.

I had to read some literature on the topic to find out where I would fit it with my research. I had to do it twice at the early stages of my research – firstly, for my research application to be accepted by the university and prove that it would contribute to the knowledge and secondly, a more extensive review had to be done at the very beginning of the study – for the transfer report - to check whether I had enough knowledge and skills to proceed with my research. A review of the literature was fundamental to this research as it gave me an idea of current contributions to Lithuanian migration and confirmed my choice of inquiry as an original contribution to this field of study. I identified a gap in the literature as, at the time, there were no studies regarding Lithuanian migration experiences in the East Midlands and East Anglia. Moreover, it gave me clear guidance on how to proceed with grounded theory. I may not have followed the pure “Glaserian” approach. Nevertheless, after “indulging” in the work of Corbin and Strauss (1997, 2008), Dick (2005), Layder (2005, 2006) and Charmaz (2009), I felt that I was

¹ “Tabula rasa, (Latin:"scraped tablet" – i.e., “clean state”) in epistemology (theory of knowledge) and psychology, a supposed supposed condition that empiricists attribute to the human mind before ideas have been imprinted on it by the reaction of the senses to the external world of objects” (http://www.britannica.com/topic/tabula-rasa).
provided and equipped with all the tools needed to apply this approach to my research. Literature review at the early stages of my research informed my analysis rather than directed it (what was Glaser’s (1997) main concern in regards of the use of literature at the early stages of research).

### 3.2.5.3. THE AIM AND FOCUS OF GROUNDED THEORY

According to Glaser and Strauss (1967), the aim of grounded theory is to generate or discover a theory. According to Denscombe (2007), the grounded theory approach is most useful for qualitative research, exploratory research, studies of human interaction and small-scale research due to the emphasis on discovery and the stress upon not being fixated by the concepts and theories of previous research. Therefore, the grounded theory is ideal for researchers who are setting out to explore new territory in terms of the subject matter of their investigation (Denscombe, 2007, p. 92).

I felt that all four of the uses for grounded theory highlighted by Denscombe (2007) would apply to my research. First of all, I established that my research should be qualitative-based, and viewed from the eyes of the participants’. I was eagerly looking for exploration and discovery of Lithuanian family experience of migration to the UK and its effect on their family relationships, their interaction with each other and their coping mechanisms. My research was also aiming to be a small-scale research, studying a small Lithuanian community in East Anglia and the East Midlands and I was not seeking for the generalisation of results upon the whole Lithuanian community in the UK.

### 3.2.5.4. “DOING” GROUNDED THEORY

Strauss (1987) explains that grounded theory is not a method but rather a research strategy or style of conducting research which works toward the development of theory without any specific commitment to specific kinds of data, lines of research, or theoretical interests. However, it includes a number of
distinct features, such as theoretical sampling and certain methodological guidelines, including constant comparisons and the use of a coding paradigm, to ensure conceptual development and density (Strauss, 1987, cited by Bell, 2005, p. 18). Strauss (1987) further defines theoretical sampling as a sampling of incidents, events, activities and populations to enable comparisons between and among those chosen samples (Strauss, 1987, cited in Bell, 2005, p. 18).

In explaining the simplified process of grounded theory, Bell (2005) quotes Punch (1998) who states that grounded theory researchers begin with research questions, not hypothesis, nor do they begin their investigation with a thorough review of the literature relating to their topic. Rather, theory is devised from their data and they do not wait until all data are collected to begin an analysis. In other words, the research examines the findings of collected data and then proceeds to the analysis of those findings before collecting further data. This process continues until “theoretical saturation” is reached, which is the stage at which ‘new data are not showing any new theoretical elements, but rather confirming what has already been found’ (Punch, 1998, cited by Bell, 2005, p. 20).

3.2.5.5. MY UNDERSTANDING AND APPROACH TO GROUNDED THEORY

The basic idea of the grounded theory approach according to Dick (2005) is to read a textual database and identify or label variables (called categories, concepts and properties) and their interrelationships. The process begins with a research situation which, in the context of my research, would be Lithuanians migrating to the UK. Within that situation, according to Dick (2005), my task would be to understand what is happening, and how the ‘players’ manage their roles, and I should do it through observation, conversation or interview. What I have learned about grounded theory is that constant comparison is at the heart of the process. Dick (2005) explains that “at first comparing interview (or other data) to interview (or other data), theory should emerge quickly” (Dick, 2005, online
When it will emerge, according to Dick (2005) I should compare data to theory. He also assures that as coding proceeds, certain theoretical propositions will occur. “These may be about links between categories, or about a core category: a category, which appears central to the study” [it could be family relationships, for example]” (Dick, 2005, online article). He continues, “as the categories and properties emerge, they and their links to the core category will provide the theory” (Dick, 2005, online article). Dick (2005) explains that at that particular time, I should write myself notes/memos about it. As it happens, Dick (2005) suggests that I would add to my sample through theoretical sampling, which increases the diversity of my sample, searching for different properties. If my core category and its linked categories saturate, I would no longer add to them or their properties. This would be a sign that it is time to move to sorting. I should group my memos, and sequence them in order to make a clear sense of emerging theory (Dick, 2005). According to him, “the literature is accessed as it becomes relevant“(Dick, 2005, online article). Dick (2005) summarizes the overlapping phases of grounded theory in Figure 6 below.

![Figure 6: Overlapping phases of Grounded Theory (Dick, 2005, online)](image)

Dick (2005) explains that as the research proceeds, the explanations gradually start to emerge. According to Dick (2005), “all interviews begin open-ended. In the later interviews there are more probe questions. And more of those probes are specific. The theory emerges from the data, from the informants. In the early
stages it consists primarily of themes. These become more elaborated as the study develops” (Dick, 2005, online article). This is depicted in Figure 7 below.

Figure 7: Process of Grounded Theory (Dick, 2005)

Was the grounded theory approach the most suitable for my thesis? The more I read about grounded theory, the more contented and confident I became. But before making my decision, I revisited the advantages and disadvantages of using the grounded theory approach for qualitative research as defined by Denscombe (2007).

3.2.5.6. ADVANTAGES AND DISADVANTAGES OF GROUNDED THEORY

One of the main advantages of grounded theory is that it is widely used for qualitative research and is fairly adaptable. Denscombe (2007) also highlights the systematic way of analysing qualitative data that can be computer-generated; the means of developing theory from the data; explanations are grounded in reality/data; and, it also permits a degree of flexibility in terms of both the selection of instances for inclusion in the sample and the analysis of the data. All of the features Denscombe (2007) highlighted above seemed like the right
approach for my research. The most appealing aspect was that it was not a new approach. On the contrary, it has been widely used in qualitative research, meaning that I would have guidance and examples to follow. I also found the focus on a systematic way of analysing data as well as its flexibility very appealing. As for generating data with computer programmes, the use of NVivo enabled me to store and sort my data, and considering the amount of interviews I conducted and the subsequent data accumulated, this was a great tool to acquire.

As for the main disadvantages, Denscombe (2007) notes that: grounded theory does not lend to precise planning. He also argues that “by focusing research on specific instances or behaviour in particular settings, there is a tendency to divorce the explanation of the situation being studied from broader contextual factors” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 105). Denscombe (2007), also claims that the systematic way of analysing data developed by Strauss and Corbin (1990, 1998) can be daunting in terms of the complexity of the process, but most importantly, he draws attention to the fact that grounded theory relies too much on empirical data rather than previous theories and “can be criticized as being ‘empiricist’” (Denscombe, 2007, pp. 104–105). While taking into consideration the disadvantages of grounded theory, I felt that the advantages of applying this approach far outweighed its drawbacks. I also felt that the extensive literature of applying grounded theory by the “giants” of this approach - Glaser (1978, 1992, 2009), Glaser and Strauss (1967), Dick (2005), Corbin and Strauss (2008), Charmaz (2009) and Birks and Mills (2011) - would guide me through the process while adopting grounded theory for my research.

3.2.5.7. FINAL THOUGHTS OF CHOOSING GROUNDED THEORY FOR MY RESEARCH

emphasised that grounded theory was written for beginners, by the beginners. He explains that “in generating a GT methodology using this method, it was clear that the question of not sufficient competence or the beginning skill of the novice was not an issue. Using GT methodology carefully brought its own skill development, and brought it faster and better without previous training in qualitative research. The novice need only have an ability to conceptualize, to organize, to tolerate confusion with some incident depression, to make abstract connections, to remain open, to be a bit visual, to thinking multivariately and most of all to trust to preconscious processing and to emergence” (Glaser 2009, online article). Glaser (2009) admits that for the novice researchers, these abilities “come naturally” (Glaser, 2009, online article).

He further provides that it is acceptable for a novice researcher not to have any prior knowledge of the issue they are studying and that is absolutely suitable if they do not have any skills of data analysis, because it opens the doors to the discovery. “What the novice has to offer GT is openness: being open to the emergent. They are not yet formed in a method or a substantive area to any extent. They are still free to forsake the preconceived” (Glaser, 2009, online article). For me, it was more than enough encouragement to embrace the challenges and rewards of grounded theory. Since, at the time of selecting my study (2007), nobody had investigated the phenomenon of Lithuanian migration to the UK, I felt the thrill of embracing the scope of challenges they face being immigrants in this country. More so, by using this theory, not only would I have to step back from any preconceived notion of what the Lithuanian immigrants were going through, I would also have to ‘sharpen’ my senses (listening and watching) - researchers’ sensitivity – in order to identify the real problems of their unique situation. I felt that it may well happen that I would discover that family relationships did not suffer as much as their personal health or self-esteem, or that it would not be significantly important as people try to find their way through the migration process. What really encouraged me was to read that Bell
(2005) identified grounded theory as a trustworthy approach. She quoted Hayes (2000) to emphasize her point: “the theory which is produced using a grounded theory analysis may sometimes be very context-specific, applying only in a relatively small number of situations; but because it is always grounded in data collected from the real world, it can serve as a very strong basis for further investigations, as well as being a research finding in its own right” (Hayes, 2000, cited by Bell, 2005, p. 19).

3.3. INITIAL RESEARCH DESIGN AND ITS EXECUTION

3.3.1. RESEARCH DESIGN: AIMS AND LANGUAGES IN MY RESEARCH

After choosing the methodology (qualitative research) and method of data collection and analysis (grounded theory), I started designing the outline and strategy of conducting my research. The initial aims of my research were the following:

1. To find out how Lithuanian migration affects family relationships

2. To identify issues that face families when one of their members emigrates on his/her own.

3. To help the Lithuanian immigrants sustain their families by informing them about the research results.

I utilised research materials in both Lithuanian and English for my research. A web poster, information leaflets, and consent forms were designed in English and translated into Lithuanian. Interviews were conducted in Lithuanian and transcribed into English. I found it very important to conduct interviews in Lithuanian that would enable my respondents to express themselves fully, as conducting the interviews in English might have constrained their stories and

3.3.2. DESIGN OF INFORMATION COLLECTION TOOLS

I undertook some background reading in order to frame the topic and therefore I developed an initial ‘entry’ into exploring the experiences of the research participants. I chose a qualitative research methodology, data collection and analysis methods, sampling and interview fields. These were going to be drawn up into guided conversation schedules (aide memoirs). I developed interview topics as well as information leaflets and consent forms.

I submitted the following documents to the university’s Health and Life Sciences (HLS) Ethics Committee:

1. Information leaflet for children aged 8-12 years’ old
2. Information leaflet for teenagers aged 13 – 15 years’ old
3. Information leaflet for young adults aged 16+
4. Information leaflet for adults
5. Consent forms for children
6. Parental Permission forms for Parents/Caregivers
7. Consent Forms for 16+ adults
8. Web poster
9. Contact list of extended support for participants

Once these were approved, they were translated into Lithuanian (see Appendices 1 - 14).
3.3.2.1. PARTICIPANTS: SAMPLING STRATEGY

Following the process of grounded theory, the method I was planning to use was in-depth interviews. I was also planning to return to the same people for the continuing search for evidence. For the first stage of the data collection, I was planning to interview two to four people. I anticipated that these would be a person whose family was left behind in Lithuania, a person whose family was left behind and later reunited with them as well as a teenager whose parents emigrated first and after a while brought him/her to the UK.

The further stages would have depended on emerging data. I was planning to come back to the same people to gather more information, or by using the snowball technique, namely to recruit other participants via their own network or contacts (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 52), interview someone else who might have given me more insight on the issue. It went according to plan, except for the sampling techniques. The snowball sampling was replaced by theoretical sampling, which was one of the main principles of grounded theory (seeking approval or disapproval of emerging theory by collecting data from people who could give a greater depth of acquired knowledge so far). Initial interview numbers were also overestimated. However, grounded theory does not seek representation by volume, but rather the depth of inquiry by applying theoretical sampling and qualitative data collection methods, such as focus groups, observations and unstructured or semi-structured interviewing.

3.3.2.2. SAMPLING: THEORETICAL SAMPLING

According to International Migration of Lithuanian Population (2007) by Statistics Lithuania, the majority of people who move to the UK are lower middle-class (or they consider themselves as belonging to this group after moving to the UK). Therefore, I initially decided to look for potential participants in the service industries: hotels catering, shops, childcare, agriculture and construction - the
places where they were most likely to be working. In order to be included in the sample, they should have had children and either have moved to the UK initially on their own, leaving their family behind, or moved with their partner leaving children behind and later become reunited in the UK with their respective family (or not yet).

Initially, I also planned to include children aged 8-17 years old in my investigation. They should have stayed with one of their parents, or other family members in Lithuania and joined the family later in the UK. In both cases, I asked for the parents’ permission to speak with their children about whether they would like to take part in the research. Children and young people would then have to give their own consent to take part – there were three children interviewed eventually; two in Lithuania and one in the UK. However, initial snowball sampling had to be replaced by theoretical sampling – one of the main principles of grounded theory (seeking approval or disapproval of emerging theory by collecting data from people who could give a greater depth of acquired knowledge so far).

Sarantakos (2005) explains the difference between theoretical sampling and other sampling techniques. According to him, “Theoretocal sampling is the “process of data collection for generating theory” (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, cited by Sarantakos, 2005, p. 166). According to Sarantakos (2005), “The focus here is on data collection rather than on the choice of respondents. (...) The researcher chooses the first respondent, collects relevant information and knowledge about the research topic, and on the basis of this decides which person to study next. The direction of ‘theory’ that develops during the research process determines who the next respondent will be, a decision that could have not been made at the start of the study. (...). In theoretical sampling, the study does not continue until all respondents have been contacted“ (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, cited by Sarantakos, 2005, p. 166). Instead it continues until the process indicates that
saturation has been reached – namely, when data collection no longer generates new data, when the categories are “well developed in their properties and dimensions”, and when the relationships among these categories are “established and validated” (Strauss and Corbin, 1998, cited in Sarantakos, 2005, p. 166). Corbin and Strauss (2008), further emphasise that “theoretical sampling is cumulative. Each event sampled builds upon previous data collection and analysis, and in turn contributes to the next data collection and analysis. Moreover, sampling becomes more specific with time because the questions become more specific as the researcher seeks to saturate categories. In the initial data collection, the researcher collects data of a wide range of areas. It is kind of like fishing, for the researcher is hoping for something but does not know what will come out of that sea of data. Once the initial analysis takes place, the analyst has a greater sense of where he or she is going with the research because now the researcher has some concepts to sample for” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 146). But they also warn that “not every concept that comes out of the research is sampled for. The researcher has to be practical and stick to developing those categories or themes that are most important” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 146).

3.3.2.3. SELECTION OF SITES

Since the majority of Lithuanians living in the Midlands were concentrated in the East Midlands and East Anglia, I was looking for participants in those areas.

Since there was a Lithuanian church and community centre in a town in the East Midlands, I contacted Lithuanian people working there. I also established a network of possible “helpers” for the research in East Anglia, either through helping to distribute leaflets or getting in touch with the prospective participants. Help in East Anglia included the leaders of two Lithuanians centres, a priest of a Catholic Church, a Community Development worker at the Home Office organisation, a teacher at a Lithuanian Saturday School and the owners of
Lithuanian shops. I also chose those places because I knew the leaders of the community centres both in East Anglia and the East Midlands.

3.3.2.4. CONTACTING RESPONDENTS

After lengthy discussions with leaders of local Lithuanian communities, I devised ways of letting Lithuanian people know about my research and asked them to come forward and express an interest to find out more. I wrote an introductory web poster and information leaflets about the project and introduced myself in Lithuanian (Appendices 7, 8, 13 and 14 contain English and Lithuanian versions), and distributed them via a Lithuanian community website and newspaper in the UK, Lithuanian shops, a Saturday school, a Catholic Church, a sports’ club in East Anglia and a Lithuanian Community Centre in the East Midlands.

After visiting the Lithuanian community in East Anglia, I learned that the most effective way to recruit people was to be present at their gathering places and to introduce the research personally. Therefore, I identified sport and cultural events in both East Anglia and the East Midlands, and tried to spend as much time at them as I could. During Lithuanian community events, I was introducing my project and if people were interested, I gave them an information leaflet and asked for their telephone number. A follow-up call was made within 3-5 days and I asked if they were still willing to participate. In the case of a positive response, I agreed to meet them shortly afterwards to discuss the procedures and sign the consent form.

It went almost according to the initial plan. Some people contacted me after reading a research advert on a Lithuanian website in the UK while others were recruited by me personally after attending Lithuanian events in East Anglia and the East Midlands. Once pilot interviewees were recruited, I proceeded with data
collection. In the next section, I explore the rationale of the following data collection methods adopted - interviews, Skype and focus groups.

### 3.3.3. DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

#### 3.3.3.1. INTERVIEWS

I chose the interview method for data collection since it enabled me to access the qualitative dimensions of people's lives. I used face-to-face, focus groups and remote (Skype) interview techniques for my data collection. In this section, I introduce the rationale of interview as the most frequent data collection method, its challenges and its benefits.

#### 3.3.3.1.1. WHY INTERVIEWS

Interview is the most popular data collection tool in qualitative research (Flick, 2006; Kvale, 2007). Kvale (2007) explains that “a qualitative research interview attempts to understand the world from the subject’ point of view, to unfold the meaning of people’s experiences, to uncover their lived world prior to scientific explanations” (Kvale, 2007, p. xvi). Therefore, interviews were fundamental to my research as, through applying the grounded theory approach, I was seeking to see “through the eyes of the people being studied” (Bryman, 2001, p. 277). I wanted to learn from people’s experiences and develop an understanding of how migration affects their family relationships, primarily through letting respondents talk and make sense of their own stories and experiences.

#### 3.3.3.1.2. TYPES OF RESEARCH INTERVIEWS

Prior to proceeding with the interviews, I had to learn about the different types of interviews and their respective suitability for my research inquiry. Most research interviews in regard to their methodological approach (quantitative or qualitative) could be structured, semi-structured or unstructured. I decided not to use structured interviews for my research with predefined answers, since the
aim of my investigation was in-line with Denscombe (2007), namely to generate theory rather than test it.

**Semi-structured interviews and interview guides.** According to Kvale (2007) “a semi-structured life-world interview attempts to understand themes of the lived daily world from the subjects’ own perspectives. This interview seeks descriptions of the interviewee’s lived world with respect to interpretation of the meaning of the described phenomena” (Kvale, 2007, pp. 10–11). Bryman (2001) explains what it involves: “The researcher has a list of questions or fairly specific topics to be covered, often referred to as an interview guide, but the interviewee has a great deal of leeway in how to reply. Questions may not follow on exactly in the way outlined on the schedule. Questions that are not included in the guide may be asked as the interviewer picks up on things said by interviewees” (Bryman, 2001, p. 314).

It was exactly how I proceeded with my interviews and what guided theoretical sampling for the following interviews in order to gain more information of the matter. For example, the concept of support network - if the first respondent from East Anglia mentioned that there was not enough social support during their settlement, I would try to see if the situation was the same in the East Midlands by interviewing people there. With the following interviews, I would also try to deepen the information by adding more properties and dimensions through which to explore their responses. So for example, if people said that they needed some help after arriving to the UK, I would try to find out what particular help they were looking for: formal – informal? In the UK? In Lithuania? Work? Accommodation? Moral support? Support for the family left behind? However, Corbin and Strauss (2008) argue that in grounded theory “the most data dense interviews are those that are unstructured; that is, they are not dictated by any predetermined set of questions” (Corbin & Morse, 2003, cited by Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 27).
**Unstructured interviews.** Bryman (2001) explains that unstructured interviewing is the closest to conversation. “Here the researcher uses at most an *aide memoir* as a brief set of prompts to him- or herself to deal with a certain range of topics” (Bryman, 2001, p. 314). In my interviews, I used both probes to explore respondents’ answers as well as prompts to clarify my questions. According to Denscombe (2007), “Unstructured interviews go further in the extent to which emphasis is placed on the interviewees thoughts. The researcher’s role is to be as un-intrusive as possible – to start the ball rolling by introducing a theme or topic and then letting the interviewee develop their ideas and pursue their train of thought” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 176).

Initially during the interviewing process, I felt that I should use only one type of interviewing – semi-structured or unstructured. But during the process, I learned that initial unstructured interviews were useful to “start the ball rolling” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 176) and enable the themes and categories to emerge as a result of the conversation and later, to find order to explore those themes, thereafter designing an interview guide and conduct semi-structured interviews. Denscombe (2007) assured that both types of qualitative interviewing “are really on a continuum and, in practice, it is likely that any interview will slide back and forth along the scale“ (Denscombe, 2007, p. 176). He also explains that both types of interviewing have a common feature that separates them from the structured interviews in that “their willingness to allow interviewees to use their own words and develop their own thoughts“ (Denscombe, 2007, p. 176). He then continues, “Semi-structured and unstructured interviews have as their aim ‘discovery’ rather than ‘checking’” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 176). I certainly have experienced a feeling of ‘discovery’ with my interviews, particularly the first ones.
3.3.3.1.3. PREPARATION FOR THE INTERVIEWS

Before my interviews, I conducted a few pilot interviews with my supervisors, colleagues and two prospective respondents. It was an invaluable tool to check whether the questions were well understood as well as to develop my interviewing techniques. I also went back to some of my respondents for further face-to-face, remote (Skype), or focus group interviews.

3.3.3.1.4. CHALLENGES OF INTERVIEWING

Despite being a flexible tool for data collection, interviews also pose challenges, such as how to manage with difficult situations, or the best way to approach sensitive topics. Notably, all of my interviews were about a sensitive topic – migration and its effect on the family. How did they feel and what did they do in order to manage the situation? There were times during interviews that people became very emotional and I strongly felt that I should probably terminate the interview. King and Horrocks (2010) warn about such situations: “This may simply give the message that you cannot cope with their feelings. In any case, the fact that a participant becomes distressed does not necessarily mean that they are finding the interview experience a negative one. Especially, where they have consented to take part in research on a sensitive topic (…), participants often report that they appreciate the chance to discuss a difficult subject with a sympathetic listener” (King and Horrocks, 2010, pp. 58-59). When people seemed to be upset or distressed during my interviews, I followed the ethical guidance and advice from the literature (Kvale, 2007; Keats, 2010; King and Horrocks, 2010), and would give them a choice to have a break, change the topic, or terminate the interview. I should admit that in those rare cases, all respondents wished to continue with the interview.

As a novice researcher, I also had to learn what to do when silence suddenly struck. Corbin and Strauss (2008) explain that silence is a normal occurrence in
the interview process, as a respondent may not have thought about the issue for a while. “Or, it may be that a topic generates a lot of emotion and the participant has to retreat into silence for a while to regain composure” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 28). However, authors point out that “a sensitive interviewer knows when step aside and let the interviewee guide when to resume the interview” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 28).

3.3.3.1.5. INTERVIEW AS A POSITIVE EXPERIENCE TO PARTICIPANTS

There were moments during interviews where I was taken aback by the overflow of information and I felt that the respondents saw me as a therapist, rather than a researcher. However, Kvale (2007) regards this as a positive experience in terms of benefits for the participant who may obtain new insights into his or her life situation (Kvale, 2007, p. 14).

After several interviews, I soon realised that people would reveal the most interesting information once they were not being recorded. Corbin and Strauss (2008) explain the reasons for this phenomenon: “One reason for “revelations” coming at the end of the interview might be because the interview process provides participants an opportunity to talk in depth about issues that they hadn’t talked much about before, giving them additional insights into their own behaviour” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 28). In a few cases, I asked if I could continue recording. However, the result was the same, namely that the interviews would stop very soon after recording resumed.

3.3.3.1.6. THE INTERVIEW SETTING

According to King and Horrocks (2010), the physical space in which an interview is located can have a strong influence on how it proceeds. They draw attention to three main aspects of the physical environment: privacy, comfort and quiet. King
and Horrocks (2010) emphasise the importance of comfort both in terms of physical and psychological.

Before starting my interviews, I asked the participants where they would like to be interviewed. Some of them wanted to be interviewed in their own homes, while others wanted to meet in a public place. For instance, two couples were interviewed in a Lithuanian community centre. While interviewing three members of the same family in their own home, we agreed that privacy should be respected and only one person would be present in the room. This provided a safe space to allow for disclosure as well as confidentiality of the information. The same agreement was reached while interviewing two families at the Lithuanian community centre in the East Midlands.

According to King and Horrocks (2010), public spaces can have the advantage of neutrality. All interviews in public places, both in the East Midlands and East Anglia, took place in local cafes (preferred by respondents), and although it provided a more relaxed environment for the participant, background noise and music were too much of a distraction at times. King and Horrocks (2010) also warn that with indoor spaces, the possibility of being overheard needs to be considered (King and Horrocks, 2010, p. 44). Confidentially, however, was reached since interviews were conducted in Lithuanian and after careful observation of surroundings and determining that no other Lithuanians were present, it was assumed that “it was safe to proceed”.

3.3.3.1.7. RAPPORT BUILDING

King and Horrocks (2010) emphasise the importance of rapport building as a key ingredient in successful qualitative interviewing, as “rapport is essentially about trust” (King and Horrocks, 2010, p. 48). In my case, rapport was achieved in stages through constant communication, firstly by meeting participants and introducing myself and the research, then by communicating with them over the
phone or e-mail about their participation and, when finally meeting them, by demonstrating appreciation of their valuable time and contribution to explore the research question and ensuring again that confidentiality would be respected.

In the next section, I discuss another form of interview I used for my data collection - Skype.

3.3.3.2. USING SKYPE FOR DATA COLLECTION

During the data collection stage, I used remote data collection methods as well as electronic communication techniques, including: e-mails, telephone, instant messaging (IM), audio and video recordings, face-to-face and focus group data collection. In this part of my chapter, I focus on the use of Skype for a qualitative interview. I start with its background and some pros and cons of using Skype. Then I explain how I used it for my research, its challenges and the obstacles I faced and I finish this section with a reflection on this process.

3.3.3.2.1. BACKGROUND AND INITIAL PLANNING

When I started my first stage of data collection, there was very little literature written on the subject of how to use Skype for a qualitative interview. The ones I found mainly analysed the use of Skype in a library setting (Azmer and Xie, 2008; Booth, 2008; Saumure and Given, 2010). All authors agreed that Skype offers researchers the opportunity to conduct inexpensive, synchronous online interviews. Concluding their experience of using Skype for their study, Saumure and Given (2010) drew attention to the opportunities and challenges of using Skype for qualitative interviewing. As for the benefits and opportunities, they discussed its geographical flexibility, inexpensiveness, user-friendliness (easy to use and install), instant messaging feature, which enables the sharing of information among all participants, and easy audio recording. However, Skype also had its drawbacks such as time lags in the conversation, which could break
the flow of the interview. Despite a loss of intimacy present with face-to-face interviews, Skype offered an opportunity to interview people who would otherwise not be able to participate in the research due to logistical considerations (e.g. distance). Authors concluded that the results of their research pointed to great potential for the use of Skype interviews in library and information studies. The research illustrated that Skype is a valuable tool for qualitative interviewing, particularly as it provided me with the opportunity to remotely interview family members that were still in Lithuania, provided they had Skype installed. Such participants enrich the understanding of the migration phenomenon and its effect on Lithuanian family relationships, from both perspectives – those who left Lithuania and those who were left behind.

3.3.3.2.2. OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES IN USING SKYPE

Literature on remote interviewing suggests using online platforms such as Yahoo and MSN messaging, E-mail and, more recently, Skype for their geographical flexibility.

While talking about the specific benefits of using instant messaging (IM) during a remote interviewing process, King and Horrocks (2010, pp. 96-97) point out that it enables the following features:

- Scrolling back, checking questions and answers and instantly allowing clarifications to be made;

- “Typing indicator” – namely, how long one takes to type (self-censoring while struggling with a sensitive topic);

- The highlighting of text and copy in a word-processing or rich text file (rtf) format.
All of the abovementioned features, especially highlighting and copying text to word format, were very useful during the transcribing and coding/analysis processes. Sarantakos (2005) also acknowledges the benefits of Skype for qualitative interviewing since it is less labour intensive than other methods and allows the study of relatively large samples. Denscombe (2007) points to additional benefits such as reduction of interviewee effect, overcoming embarrassment while discussing sensitive topics and its ability to reduce the culture of gender, ethnicity, religion, class and age effects of interaction. Although during my Skype interviewing, culture, gender, ethnicity and religion were fairly irrelevant concepts, the discussion about respondents’ family relationships during migration process was a sensitive topic and this interview type was advantageous in approaching it. I do not think my respondents would have opened up as much as they did if I had conducted face-to-face interviews. I regard it as the biggest advantage of using Skype for qualitative interviewing. However, according to the literature, Skype interviews also have their drawbacks such as ‘time lags’ in the conversation which can break the flow of the interview. I have experienced that while interviewing via Skype, due to having no real image or live cues, while waiting and staring at the screen, I started thinking about the next question, or even typing and sending it, before actually getting the answer to the previous one.

Authors also suggest that, while using video, researchers should ensure that both parties can easily see non-verbal cues. However, in an audio interview, those cues are lost, which makes it harder for a researcher to “read the message”. According to Denscombe (2007), “these two features of Internet interviews can be regarded as an impediment to the collection of data. The absence of visual clues prevents the interviewer from picking up on important facial expressions and other non-verbal communication that could be valuable for understanding the interviewee’s thoughts. The time lapse can stultify the flow of interaction, depriving the interview of its natural qualities” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 187).
However, my experience showed that, while visual cues were very important, it was very hard, if not impossible, to code the true feelings and emotions of the respondents. Respondents’ words were taken for granted and no assumptions or interpretations were made on how long it took them to answer a question or indeed the way in which they answered a question. The method of grounded theory guided me through this process by not allowing me to question a respondent’s intention and emotional state. A final challenge was the potential for a loss in connection, which authors warn can cause the loss of data. Fortunately, a loss of connectivity only happened once in my case. According to Sarantakos (2005), “Despite these problems, the advantages outweigh the weaknesses of this method” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 283) making it a useful and popular tool for data collection.

3.3.3.2.3. FINAL THOUGHTS ON THE USE OF SKYPE

I see a great benefit in using Skype for a qualitative research interview for several reasons, namely - no transcribing, although translation had to be done in the case of my research. If it goes through instant messaging, the entire conversation can be saved and copied to Microsoft Word. It also appears with the exact timing on the screen, which might be helpful for data analysis (for example, to see why other questions took more time to be answered). I found it also extremely useful for long distance interviews, when participants would not be able to take part otherwise, and also for discussing sensitive topics that would be hard for the interviewees to talk about in a face to face interview. I found the whole experience of using Skype beneficial, provided that sufficient planning in regards to scheduling and ethical issues was undertaken.

In the next section, I discuss another data collection method I used for my research – focus groups. I explain the rational of the method, its challenges and benefits.
3.3.3.3. USE OF FOCUS GROUPS (FG)

After the first stage of data collection and analysis, I decided to conduct focus groups for further investigation. The first stage of data collection was about in-depth individual’s experience regarding the migration process and how it affected respondents’ family relationships. During the second stage, I wanted to reflect on respondents’ general experiences to enable insight into what was happening to people in similar circumstances and what help is needed to assist Lithuanians to sustain their families during the transitional stage. I also wanted to use focus group discussion for group’s feedback (member check/member validation) on my interim findings. In this section, I explore the rationale for using focus groups and their purpose in the context of this research. I also discuss the logistics of preparation, delivery and outcomes of my focus groups.

3.3.3.3.1. RATIONALE AND USE OF FOCUS GROUP

Conducting focus groups after my initial face-to-face and online interviews seemed like a natural progression of the data collection and analysis process. Birks and Mills (2011) define focus groups as “an extension of the standard interview in which two or more participants engage in a specified area of discussion led by the researcher” (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 76). As a main advantage of focus groups, Flick (2009), notes their low cost, richness in data and that “they stimulate the respondents and support them in remembering events, and that they can lead beyond the answers of the single interviewee” (Flick, 2009, p. 196).

3.3.3.3.2. THEORETICAL SAMPLING

In order to provide insight into the migration phenomenon and its effect on Lithuanian family relationships, I intended to conduct two focus groups with respondents, one in the East Midlands and the other in East Anglia. The East Midlands focus group was intended to represent “better off” families and their
more positive migration experience. All of the respondents had studied to a high level, had well-paid jobs and also spoke English prior to arriving to the UK. More importantly, and coincidentally, those families were very close in Lithuania and either migrated to the UK together, or soon after one of the spouses’ settled down in the UK.

The participants in East Anglia, however, worked in factories or other unskilled jobs, and most of them came to the UK “to escape” difficult relationships in Lithuania. In that respect, they represented two different social classes and two different family situations.

Some participants in both groups were the same respondents that I interviewed during the first stage of the data collection.

Initially, I was planning to invite between 4 to 6 participants to each focus group. Morgan (1998a) recommends smaller groups when participants are likely to have a lot to say on the research topic “[t]his is likely to occur when participants are very involved in emotionally preoccupied with the topic” (Morgan, 1998 a, cited by Bryman, 2001, p. 341). Therefore, I felt that that smaller group of 4-6 participants would be most appropriate for my focus group. I thought that it would be easier for my participants to open up and talk about their (painful at times) migration experiences in a small rather than large group.

3.3.3.3.3. PREPARATION FOR THE FOCUS GROUPS

Before proceeding with the focus groups, I translated interim findings into Lithuanian and prepared two versions of my findings – an extended one, which I sent to the respondents prior to meeting, and a condensed version of the interim findings. In addition, I prepared a PowerPoint presentation, which I presented as the first part of my focus group discussion (see Appendix 25). I also designed and translated a Lithuanian “participants’ pack” which included an invitation,
consent form, confidentiality agreement, discussion plan, questions and “tasks”. I also had a discussion plan and tasks prepared on a flipchart (see Appendix 20).

**Structure of the focus groups.** I was planning to use the first part of my FG for a member check (receive participants comments on these result), and I was planning to use the second part for discussion about the Transition stage (see an outline and the detailed structure of both focus groups in Appendices 15-16).

**Hopes and anticipations.** Before conducting the focus groups, I was hoping that they would not only confirm my interim findings on respondents’ coping mechanisms and intensive feelings during that period but also provide new insights. In addition, they were intended to provide me with more focused information on how the transition stage affects family relationships and thus, help to identify what kind of social support is needed in order to help Lithuanian migrant families sustain their families and support them in their ‘journey’. But before undertaking my first FG interview, I had to familiarise myself with the role of facilitator.

3.3.3.3.4. MY SKILLS AND KNOWLEDGE FOR FACILITATING

Before I chose the focus group method for the second stage of data collection, I had to self-assess myself in order to determine whether I had all the required skills and knowledge to proceed. I felt that through having more than 20 years’ of experience in education (teaching in various schools and universities in Lithuania and the UK) and coordinating and facilitating international projects, I had a good foundation to facilitate focus groups.

After assessing my skills and knowledge and getting approval from my supervisors, I decided to do a last check before proceeding with my focus group. I used Krueger (2002) online source to check whether I was fully prepared in terms of recruitment, providing the right environment for the
participants and developing my facilitation skills. Krueger (2002) states that participants should be ‘carefully recruited’:

- Initially, I planned to invite the same participants who were recruited for the individual interviews for my first stage of data collection. There were 7 participants from the first stage, some of whom brought family members to the focus group discussions.

- I was planning to have two groups of about 6 people each (6-8 people was my preferred target). However, I had last minute cancellations and therefore decided to conduct additional remote discussions.

- Similar backgrounds - all participants in my focus groups were Lithuanian migrants in the UK who had gone through the same migration experience – migrating from Lithuania to the UK and leaving their families (or being left) behind.

Krueger (2002) emphasises the importance of the ‘environment’ in conducting focus groups. Initially, I planned to use a Lithuanian community centre in the East Midlands and a Catholic Church premises in East Anglia. However, the Lithuanian community centre in the East Midlands was not available during the time which was most suitable for the participants to take part in a focus group. Therefore, it took place in one of the participant’s homes in the East Midlands. The same scenario happened with East Anglia. After contacting prospective participants, they decided that the best place for them to meet would be at one of the respondent’s homes in East Anglia. In that way, I think the participants were provided with the most convenient, familiar and secure environment.
3.3.4. DATA COLLECTION

3.3.4.1. FIRST STAGE OF DATA COLLECTION: FACE-TO-FACE AND ONLINE INTERVIEWS

For the first stage of the data collection, I used theoretical sampling. I interviewed 17 people from East Anglia, the East Midlands and Lithuania - eight women, three men, four teenagers and two children. Remote Skype interviews were also used in five of the seventeen interviews undertaken, of which four were conducted using instant messaging and one using an audio recording function. The remaining twelve were conducted using face-to-face interviews. All of the participants were located in the UK, except for three in Lithuania (see Table 13). The participants in the UK included a person whose family are still in Lithuania, a person whose family was left behind and later got reunited, a teenager whose parents emigrated first and after a while brought her over and a young girl who migrated with her mother after a family split. In Lithuania, a teenage girl and her younger brother who were both left behind by their parents and were waiting to be reunited with them in the UK were interviewed. I also interviewed their mother who was visiting her children. The interviews were conducted in Lithuanian, transcribed into English, and coded using NVivo 8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of interview</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>12 face-to-face</td>
<td>14 UK</td>
<td>13 female</td>
<td>11 adults</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Skype (4 IM, 1 audio)</td>
<td>3 Lithuania</td>
<td>4 male</td>
<td>2 children 4 teenagers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 13: First stage data collection

For the first (unstructured, in depth) interview, participants were asked to tell their story, namely their reasons for migrating, their family situation and their
overall migration experience (see Appendix 17 for an initial interview aide memoir).

3.3.4.2. SECOND STAGE OF DATA COLLECTION: FOCUS GROUPS, REMOTE DISCUSSIONS AND FOLLOW UP FACE-TO-FACE INTERVIEWS

For the second stage of data collection I conducted:

- **Two focus groups** - The East Midlands (TEM) and East Anglia (EA)
- Initially - five **remote discussions** (on interim findings and reflections on the FG discussion) - 1 non responsive (EA)
- **One e-mail communication** followed by a further **face-to-face interview** (EA)
- **One e-mail communication** on interim findings and reflection on (EM) FG discussion
- **One e-mail communication** with the couple on interim findings and (EM) FG discussion, followed by **further 2 Skype instant messaging** (IM) interviews (see Table 14).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of data collection</th>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Gender</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 Focus groups</td>
<td>5 East Anglia</td>
<td>7 female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 The East Midlands</td>
<td>2 male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 remote discussions</td>
<td>1 East Anglia</td>
<td>4 female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4 The East Midlands</td>
<td>1 male</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Table 14: Second stage of data collection*

I chose respondents from East Anglia and the East Midlands for my focus groups. Half of them took part in my first data collection. Initially, there were seven
participants for the East Midlands and six for East Anglia focus groups. Only four respondents showed up on the day in the East Midlands. The remaining three respondents sent their apologies and agreed to take part in a remote discussion. However, five respondents took part in the East Anglia focus group and one sent her apologies, agreeing to take part in a face-to-face discussion. The respective FG discussions were transcribed into Lithuanian. I would have transcribed them directly into English to save time but because I had remote participants, I felt it was important to present the material in the language that the discussion was in.

3.3.4.2.1. FOCUS GROUP (FG) – EAST ANGLIA

I originally planned two remote discussions with previous participants for a member check of interim findings and to reflect and follow-up the FG group discussion. In the first instance, I sent an e-mail with interim findings and the FG discussions to both respondents. After reading all of the material, the first respondent suggested meeting for a face-to-face interview. However, the second respondent did not reply even after two reminders.

3.3.4.2.2. FOCUS GROUP – THE EAST MIDLANDS

A transcribed discussion of the East Midlands FG was sent to two previous, and one new participant who could not make it to the FG on the day. I received one e-mail back with the feedback and comments on the discussion from a new participant in addition to an e-mail from a couple who took part in the first stage of the data collection via Skype. They commented on the discussion and agreed to take part in further evaluation via a Skype interview.

All remote discussion participants, either through Skype, e-mail or meeting face-to-face, were sent group consent forms, confidentiality agreements, a transcript of the FG discussions and asked to provide their input regarding the issues discussed at the FG meeting, extended versions of interim findings, a copy of the
PowerPoint presentation and worksheets to explore transition stage issues and support systems.

After receiving all of the comments from remote participants, I translated, transcribed and coded my new data, which provided more in-depth information about issues people faced during the Transition stage and the support they require to cope better and sustain their family relationships. Both groups were very successful and exceeded all my expectations in terms of adding more depth to my data and enriching understanding of their situation.

3.3.4.3. CONCLUSION

According to Holden (2015) “researchers who use a variety of research methods to build up a more complete picture of the social world are engaging in what sociologist call methodological pluralism” (Holden, 2015, p. 18). Primarily, I did not plan to use a variety of methods in my research. However, as the research process is fluid, it required me to be flexible, as well as creative. Therefore, for example, for data collection I also had to include online interviews rather than the initially planned face-to-face interviews, or remote discussions rather than focus group discussions only. This greatly benefited my research. For example, the focus group method enabled me to explore some of the issues that emerged from the previous interviews and to probe further into key emergent themes, such as coping mechanisms and support systems during the Transition stage. In-turn, that helped me “to form the basis of the final report” (Holden, 2015, p. 19). Focus group participants were asked to share their views on the interim findings and the core emergent theme – the Transition stage – and to comment upon its impact on family relationships, whereas in the previous interviews, the participants were provided with the opportunity “to engage in dialogue, with each other and with the researchers [researcher – me] and to provide richer information generated by these interactions” (Holden, 2015, p. 19).
In my research, a combination of open ended, semi-structured, unstructured, face-to-face, Skype interviews as well as online and focus group discussions provided a rich insight into a) the Lithuanian family migration experience and b) the role of support systems in maintaining family relationships – particularly during the most crucial migration stage – the transition (when families live apart before their reunification).

In the next section of this chapter, I discuss data analysis process using the grounded theory approach (initial, axial and theoretical coding and analysis). I reflect on my experiences of conducting online and focus group interviews at the end of this chapter when I reflect upon my experience during the whole research process.

3.3.5. DATA CODING AND ANALYSIS

According to Corbin and Strauss (2008), “Qualitative analysis is many things, but it is not a process that can be rigidly codified. What it requires, above all, is an intuitive sense of what is going on in the data; trust in the self and the research process; and the ability to remain creative, flexible, and true to data at the same time” (Corbin and Strauss, 2008, p. 16). In this section, I discuss data analysis in my research and how I applied the grounded theory approach. In the first part of this section, I discourse the challenges that I had to overcome during the transcribing process.

Later I explain how I used coding (initial, intermediate and advanced) by using the model of grounded theory analysis provided by McFadzean (2007).

3.3.5.1. TRANSCRIBING

I thought that, after choosing grounded theory as a method of data collection and analysis for my research, I had a clear direction and guidelines on how to proceed
and was eagerly looking forward to the promised “discovery”. But after conducting my first interviews, I started doubting my ability to transcribe them.

According to Kvale (2007), “an interview of one hour results in 20 to 25 single-spaced pages, depending on the amount of speech and how it is set up in typing” (Kvale, 2007, p. 95). However, time considerations were not my primary concern. During the transcribing process, I kept asking myself whether I should include everything. How can I transcribe the way people talk (what if they affirm that they are feeling alright, but you can see tears in their eyes)? I kept asking myself if I had to transcribe any repeated words, sounds, laughter, sighting, etc. Cameron (2001) was an invaluable resource and emphasises the importance of allowing participants to make sense of their own story. Her approach echoes the main principles of grounded theory. She explains that reducing repetition and turning spoken language into a written language is the most common error. However, Cameron (2001) argues that it plays a crucial role in spoken language because respondents “converse” in a real time and have no time for preparation - it is inevitable that they will have “false starts” and “repeats”. According to Cameron (2001), “repetition can be a way of “buying time” to plan the next chunk. It is also useful for the hearer. Since s/he has to process utterances in real time a certain amount of pausing and repetition increases the chance that s/he will be able to take in the information before it disappears” (Cameron, 2001, p. 34).

Cameron (2001) draws attention to another error in transcribing “trying to organize what they hear into the normal structure for a passage of written prose, normally a series of sentences” (Cameron, 2001, p. 34).

Silverman (2006) introduces some other transcription tools that I found very useful. For example, (0.5) between words would mean a period of silence, underscoring – would indicate some sort of stress or amplitude. I found it extremely useful to use the brackets to transcribe and later code my focus group
interviews. Based on the advice of Cameron (2011), I embraced my very lengthy transcribing process. Using signs to measure pitch and stress was especially useful for the coding process because it helped to make sense of people’s stories, incorporating not only what they said but also how they were saying and expressing it. I transcribed verbatim and would also measure pauses (0.10s).

After transcribing my interviews, I was ready to code them, although the process of coding data subconsciously started during the process of transcribing. Kvale (2007) explains that “researchers, who transcribe their own interviews will learn much about their own interviewing style; to some extent they will have the social and emotional aspects of the interview situation present or reawakened during transcription, and will already have started the analysis of the meaning of what was said” (Kvale, 2007, p. 95). Hearing the interview once again and transcribing it led me to reflect upon the message that has been conveyed and make sense of my respondent’s stories, perceptions and experiences. Transcription tools used in combination with my memos and research diary, in which I recorded all the emotional nuances I experienced during data collection process, later became a valuable research resource.

3.3.5.2. CODING AND ANALYSIS PROCESS

In this section, I explore concepts of open, axial and theoretical coding, and by using McFadzean (2007) designed model of Strauss and Corbin’s coding methodology (Figure 8), I visually explain how I applied grounded theory principles to my research.
3.3.5.2.1. CODING TERMINOLOGY

According to Birks and Mills (2009), different grounded theorists use different terminology in describing the different stages of analysis. They present the following table with different coding phases in grounded theory.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Initial coding</th>
<th>Intermediate coding</th>
<th>Advanced coding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Glaser and Strauss</td>
<td>Coding and comparing</td>
<td>Integrating categories and</td>
<td>Delimiting the theory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1967)</td>
<td>incidents</td>
<td>properties</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glaser (1978)</td>
<td>Open coding</td>
<td>Selective coding</td>
<td>Theoretical coding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strauss and Corbin</td>
<td>Open coding</td>
<td>Axial coding</td>
<td>Selective coding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(1990; 1998)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Charmaz (2006)</td>
<td>Initial coding</td>
<td>Focused coding</td>
<td>Theoretical coding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15: Phases of coding (Birks and Mills, 2009, p. 116).

They also explain that the coding process in grounded theory is iterative since the researcher “alternate between phases of coding throughout the study as they concurrently generate or collect data and analyse these” (Birks and Mills, 2009, p. 95). I will be using concepts of initial, intermediate and advanced coding in order to describe my coding and analysis process. However, while quoting, the terms open, axial, selective, thematic and theoretical will be used as quoted in original sources.

3.3.5.2.2. INITIAL CODING (OPEN)

As illustrated by McFadzaen’s (2007) model (Figure 8), initial coding is used to fragment and fracture the data. I started my interviews as an open book, letting the data write its own story. First, I conducted initial line-by-line or paragraph-by-paragraph coding. “Such a concentrated approach is recommended in the
first instance, as it requires the researcher to examine the data in a minute detail while at the same time asking question of the data” (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 96).

They provide four questions to be ascertained from a data set, the first three of which are originally proffered by Glaser (1978) and the fourth added later by Charmaz (2006):

1. What is this data a study of?
2. What category does this incident indicate?
3. What is actually happening in the data?
4. From whose point of view? (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 96).

I found it very important to ask those questions during the coding process. Eventually, I had to divide my data into Child’s and Adult’s views, since combined results (or the view of a respondent) would not have given me a full picture of the migration situation. The stories had to be divided into the ones told by those leaving family behind (usually parents), and those whom were left behind (usually children). After my initial pilot interview, I ended up with about 100 codes/new nodes that indicated prospective themes and concepts they may refer to/fit in to.

The follow-up interviews provided further explanation, and almost all of them revealed a pattern–emerging themes and categories that all interviews could fit into. Coding the follow-up interviews confirmed initial codes (see Appendix 18 for the list of initial codes).

Saldana (2009) argues that “the task [of initial coding] can also alert the researcher that more data are needed to support and build an emerging theory” (Saldana, 2009, p. 82). For example, in my initial interviews, I asked participants to tell me their story, and as the interviews proceeded it was clear that they focused their
narrative on the challenges they had to endure rather than the effect on family relationships, which was the core question of my research. Thus, with consequent interviews, I tried to prompt people to define their relationships before and after migration. Many stories fell into time dualism (I explain this concept in the Findings and Discussion chapters) when people fed the information with their definition of good/bad/changed/complicated family relationships before, during and after their migration process was over. The following categories were identified, categorised, analysed and conceptualised during intermediate and conceptual/theoretical/thematic coding process, which I explore a bit later in this chapter.

Birks and Mills (2011) refer to Corbin and Strauss (2008) who suggest using a coding paradigm which has three broad components for researchers to think about when they are analysing data:

1. Conditions – why, where, how and what happens?

2. Inter/actions and emotions.


Although I did not follow the paradigm approach, I found that it was happening naturally as I went along with my initial coding. I was constantly asking myself the following questions: What was it about? Why or under what condition was it happening? What emotions did it cause? What were the consequences? Open coding helped me to identify, name and categorize the migration phenomena the way people described it in their interviews.

3.3.5.2.3. INTERMEDIATE CODING (AXIAL/SELECTIVE/FOCUSED)

According to Saldana (2009), the purpose of intermediate coding is to reassemble data that was fractured during the initial coding in a strategic way. McFadzean
(2007) explains the process of intermediate coding by referring to Corbin and Strauss (1998), who state that intermediate coding involves two processes: 1) categorising the open codes (grouping similar codes into categories) and 2) exploring the axial codes’ properties and dimensions. For example, work experiences can be positive or negative. The same applies to feelings and emotions. “It is the grouping of codes that leads to the formation of categories as the researcher begins to identify explanatory, conceptual patterns in their analysis” (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 98). They also emphasize the importance of identifying properties of sub-categories in the data and explaining it fully in order “to develop conceptual depth and breadth” (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 98).

During the process of intermediate coding, I constantly kept asking myself how it was related to my research question. Could this answer or explain my research question? That led to the selection of categories that were most related to my research question. It also revealed “gaps” of information that I had to “fill” through theoretical sampling followed by further interviews, until theoretical saturation had been achieved. I also kept referring to my initial coding: comparing codes and identifying their relationships, which in most cases, indicated a higher-level category. For example, while closely looking at the ‘Feelings and Emotions’ category, it appeared that the properties of the lower-level categories formed a more abstract, yet in-depth category, which I named ‘Mental and Physical State’. At the end of my data analysis, this theme gained a greater depth and width. Therefore, it was renamed ‘Psychosocial Effects’. This overarching theme included positive and negative feelings, positive and negative emotions, self-esteem (low and increasing) as well as emotional pain.

According to Saldana (2009), producing a “diagram of the phenomena at work are also encouraged during Axial Coding process” (Saldana, 2009, p. 162). In my case, it involved producing models in NVivo. It helped me to visualise the interconnections and relations between categories, subcategories, their
properties and dimensions. At the end of my axial coding process, the main categories emerged:

![Diagram of emerging categories (at work)](image)

**Figure 9: Diagram of emerging categories (at work)**

According to Saldana (2009), intermediate coding process and its constant comparison also plays a big role in assuring quality and rigour in qualitative research (I discuss this in Rigour and Quality sections of this chapter). The process of intermediate coding helped me to identify the highest and the lowest value concepts and their properties. It also provided me with a clearer picture of what was significant in exploring my research question and what could
possibly be eliminated and readdressed in future research. Not only did axial coding adhere to the prime principal of grounded theory (constant comparison), but it also helped me to “clear out” the enormous amount of concepts that obstructed a clear view of the phenomena I tried to explore. (See Appendix 19 for the examples of intermediate coding).

It also helped me to start developing a narrative that would explain the phenomena (or occurrences) of each concept since I had to go back and forth and compare all of the interviews for each emerging concept. However, it needed another advanced level of coding (theoretical/selective/thematic) to finally see that narrative in all force that later would explain the phenomena of Lithuanian migration to the UK and would lead to theory generation of its cause and consequences, particularly relating to the family relationships.

3.3.5.2.4. ADVANCED CODING AND THEORY GENERATION

The whole process of data analysis in grounded theory is iterative, where the stages of coding are blurred or overlapped because of continuous comparison between initial and intermediate coding. Birks and Mills (2011) emphasise that “Even during the advanced stages of theory development, you will need to return to fundamental theoretical sampling and coding activities at various points to ensure that your theory remains grounded” (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 117). Furthermore, “Advanced coding is at the heart of theoretical integration. It is through these processes that data ultimately become theory” (Birks and Mills, 2001, p. 116). They define theory as “an explanatory scheme comprising a set of concepts related to each other through logical patterns of connectivity” (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 113).

Mcfadzean’s (2007) model (Figure 8 on page 170) presents theory generation as the last, and the final stage of data analysis in grounded theory.
Flick (2009) explains that “The third step, selective coding, continues the axial coding at a higher level of abstraction. This step elaborates the development and integration of it in comparison to other groups and focuses on potential core concepts and core variables. In this step you will look for further examples and evidence for relevant categories. This then leads to an elaboration or formulation of the story of the case. At this point, Strauss and Corbin conceive the issue or the central phenomenon of the study as a case and not a person or a single interview. (...) Finally, the theory is formulated in greater detail and again checked against the data. The procedure of interpreting data, like the integration of additional material, ends at the point where theoretical saturation has been reached (i.e., further coding, enrichment of categories, and so on no longer provide or promise new knowledge)” (Flick, 2009, p. 312).

According to Saldana (2009), a core category is like an umbrella “that covers and accounts for all other codes and categories formulated thus far in grounded theory analysis” (Saldana, 2009, p. 163). The core category explains what research is all about; it is relevant and applicable to all research “objects“. It is also thoroughly supported by integrated categories and their dimensions through constant comparison that is at the heart of grounded theory analysis.

Saldana (2009) adopts Charmaz’s (2009) and Strauss’s (1987) biological metaphors to explain the essence of the core category and the interrelated categories. “If Kathy Charmaz calls codes the “bones” that form the “skeleton” of our analysis, then think of the central or core category as the spine of that skeleton, which supports the corpus, aligns it, and connects to everything else. Strauss (1987) expands the metaphor by noting that continuous and detailed coding cycles eventually put “analytic meat on the analytic bones” (Saldana, 2009, pp. 163–164).

Model example of my core category and interrelated categories (Figure 10).
According to Birks and Mills (2011), “once a core category is selected, theoretical sampling becomes delimited to the generation or collection of data that will theoretically saturate the core and related categories and sub-categories. In this way the researcher is able to shape their grounded theory, refine and fully integrate each theoretical component, while developing the overall level of conceptual abstraction. At this stage, the researcher is naturally progressing to the advanced analysis stage” (Mills and Birks, 2011, p. 101).

That was a precise sequence of analysis in my research – after initial and intermediate coding stages, constant comparison of emerging themes – a core
category was identified and related themes became apparent. However, it became clear that additional information was needed to explain emerging phenomenon. Therefore, I developed a theoretical sampling strategy by means of two focus groups in the East Midlands and East Anglia to enable further theory generation. After the analysis of the focus-group data, theoretical saturation was reached and I was finally able to develop relational statements, or agreements as I called them in my research diary and memos, that directed me towards theory generation concerning Lithuanian migration to the UK and its effect on family relationships. I was ready to elaborate and formulate “a story of the case” (Flick, 2009, p. 319). Birks and Mills (2011) call it a storyline. However, by story, they mean a much wider concept and it is not attached to merely one individual or one interview. Rather, it is the story that is attached to the main concept – the core category – and explains the phenomenon at a higher level of abstraction.

“For the grounded theorist, therefore storyline is both a means and an end in itself. (…) Through the use of storyline you are writing your theory; you are explicating the relationships between the concepts that make up your theory. Storyline is the explanation of your theory, which in turn provides an explanation of the phenomenon under study” (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 118).

They also explain that after using a storyline to explain emerging theory, external theory should be applied in order to check one’s contribution to the field of study. Birks and Mills (2011) state: “Through applying the work of others to your storyline, you are able to augment, support and validate existing theories and in so doing explain and reinforce the value of your own contribution. As Glaser (2005) points out, using theoretical codes in this way ensures that the process is a reciprocal one, with the shared aim of expanding a knowledge base” (Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 125). I discuss my core category, “the skeleton” and all related themes/categories in the Findings chapter. Further, in the Discussion chapter, I discuss my findings in the light of the theory of Social Domains.
3.3.5.3. CONCLUSION

During the initial coding process, I was comparing codes with one another and renaming them if I felt they were indicating the same incident or category. After the initial coding, I ended up with a number of categories and emerging themes. I then undertook intermediate coding to synthesise and explain large segments of data, and grouped codes into meaningful categories. After that, I used advanced coding to generate theory. I also identified a core category – family relationships, “a central phenomenon around which all the other categories are integrated” (Strauss and Corbin, 1990, cited by Birks and Mills, 2011, p. 100).

The grounded theory structured approach to data collection and analysis was exceptionally fruitful for me as a new researcher. Initial, intermediate, advanced coding and, analysis; theoretical sampling, and constant comparison of data enabled me to thoroughly analyse my data. In-turn, this led to theory generation on Lithuanian migration to the UK and its effect on family relationships. It provided me with rich/in depth knowledge of the Lithuanian migrant situation in the UK, including their struggles, challenges and coping mechanisms. But most importantly, it helped me to answer the research questions, namely whether the migration to the UK affected Lithuanian family relationships and identified issues that families face when one of their family members emigrate on their own.
3.4. SUMMARY OF POTENTIAL ETHICAL ISSUES AND HOW THEY WERE ADDRESSED

3.4.1. INTRODUCTION

I felt the importance of ethical consideration from the moment I started designing my research project, sampling, collecting data and reporting my findings. It was an integral part of my research. Denscombe (2007) also emphasises that social researchers should be ethical throughout the whole research process. The rights and dignity of the participants should be respected, they should be spared any emotional physical or psychological harm and the whole process should be operated with “honesty and integrity” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 141). During my research, I followed the regulations of the The Human Research Ethics Committee (FHREC) at De Montfort University. These regulations follow the guidelines of the Helsinki Declaration of Human Rights. They identify the main research ethical principles that include no harm to the participants, informed consent, no deception, avoiding undue intrusion, assurance of confidentiality and anonymity and finally, the security of data.

In their guidelines, FHREC states that “[t]he adoption of an ethical position, in respect of student projects, requires that the student observes and protects the rights of would-be participants and systematically acts to permit the participants to exercise those rights. Ethical practice in such cases requires that participants, at a minimum, be fully informed, volunteer freely without inducement, are free to opt out without prejudice, and be fully protected in regard to safety (…). Ethical scrutiny is primarily undertaken by the Faculty Human Research Ethics Committee” (FHREC, 2015, online source).

During my research, I closely followed all the above-mentioned ethical guidelines. I will now discuss the processes where I applied them.
3.4.2. CONFIDENTIALITY AND INFORMED CONSENT

In order to fully inform the respondents about the nature and purpose of the research and about what their involvement entailed, I created a series of information leaflets and consent forms for the potential participants to ensure they were age appropriate (see Appendices 1-12). I translated all of the information material into Lithuanian and sent it to my prospective participants to read in advance. Before signing the consent form, I asked the participants to read the information leaflet and consent form once again, making sure that they understood all the concepts and were fully-informed to give their consent.

At all stages of my research, respondent participation was entirely voluntary. Prospective research participants were given as much information as they needed to provide informed consent based on what the research was about, its purpose, how it would be promoted and any possible implications for them. All of the information was explained in meaningful terms to participants. They had the opportunity to ask questions about the research and I made sure that all participants were aware of their entitlement to refuse participation at any stage and for whatever reason.

The confidentiality of information supplied by respondents was respected at all stages. Pseudonyms were used and all personal details were well-secured. I made sure that individuals were not identified or identifiable. Initially, I planned to code my transcripts, for example F2chL1 (the first father with 2 children in Lithuania). However, during the process I chose to use pseudonyms instead (Egle, Migle, Rokas, etc.). I found it easier to remember and it also made the data more personal. All of the codes were kept separately from transcription and under protected security on my computer.
3.4.2.1. CONFIDENTIALITY IN WRITING ABOUT A RESEARCH

Flick (2009) talks about the confidentiality in reporting research results as well as ethical implications that may arise conducting research in a “specific” setting. In the context of this research, the settings were two small Lithuanian communities in East Anglia and the East Midlands, whereby participants could be identified if I did not follow confidentiality principles.

3.4.3. SUPPORT FOR PARTICIPANTS

According to Denscombe (2007), “those who contribute to research as informants or as research subjects should be no worse off at the end of their participation than they were when they started” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 143). I tried to avoid any psychological harm to all of the research participants. However, I was fully aware that taking part in the research could cause participants psychological stress or anxiety while talking about sensitive issues, such as separation. I identified local sources of support should people become distressed by the interviews. I produced an information sheet that included people and organisations that my participants would trust and feel safe with, for example a church or a Lithuanian priest, leader of the community, women’s groups, self-support groups, and social community services, Lithuanian Saturday school or other family members.

Before signing the consent form, I made sure that the respondents understood the possibility of belated psychological reactions and also asked them to help me to identify possible support sources that could assist them in case of such instances. At the start of the interview, I always reminded the research participants that they could stop the interview at any point or withdraw from the research for any reason. During all of the data collection processes, I was not requested to suspend an interview. However, there were two instances when I suggested that the participants should have a break when I saw the reflection of their past memories making them upset. Both respondents wished to continue regardless.
3.4.4. DATA STORAGE

Denscombe (2007) emphasises the importance of data protection. During the research process, no names were recorded on any tapes, recordings, or notes. Code numbers and pseudonyms were used instead. I kept the list of names and codes on a password-protected computer. All notes and recordings were stored in a locked filing cabinet at my home.

3.4.5. RISK TO RESEARCHER

According to Denscombe (2007), “Safety is something that can no longer be taken for granted and it is something to which researchers should give serious consideration in the design of their investigation. To illustrate the point, a good researcher will consider the issue of personal safety when arranging the time and location to meet someone for an interview” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 143). I worked out a process to ensure that someone knew where I was, when I was finished interviewing, particularly when I was conducting them in participants own homes, and that I was safe.

3.4.6. ETHICS IN USING SKYPE FOR DATA COLLECTION


3.4.6.1. INFORMED CONSENT

Before proceeding with Skype interviews, I sent the prospective participants information leaflets and consent forms. They were signed and returned in the post or signed, scanned and returned via e-mail. However, before proceeding with the interviews, I made sure that the respective respondent had read the information leaflet about the research and understood the process and the outcomes of the research. More so, they had an opportunity to ask questions.
3.4.6.2. CONFIDENTIALITY AND ANONYMITY

I created a separate Skype account for online interviews. I also followed King and Horrocks (2010) advice to remove potentially identifying headers and tags, and changed respondents’ user IDs to their respective research pseudonyms in the reporting files. In addition, in order to ensure confidentiality and avoid interruptions, I encouraged and reminded my respondents to participate in the interview “in as private location as possible” (King and Horrocks, 2010, p. 82).

3.4.6.3. PROTECTION FROM HARM

The main principle of ethical consideration is making sure that either side, including the researcher, does not experience any harm. Since there are no visual cues during remote interviewing (Skype instant messaging (IM) in my case), I found it important to be sensitive and carefully listen to the answers. In the case of long pauses or when I felt that a respondent was struggling with the answer, I would always tell them that they had the right to stop at any time.

3.4.7. CONCLUSION

Ethics played a fundamental role in my research process. Every step I took in my journey, I had to check whether my actions met the defined ethical guidelines. Eventually, it became second-nature and an essential part of my research. During the reporting stage, it made me acutely aware of the importance of confidentiality and the anonymity of my respondents. Although some of the data was very rich in its content, and interesting (see Findings chapter), I decided not to use it because some stories could have easily been identified by fellow participants.
3.5. QUALITY AND RIGOUR

3.5.1. VALIDITY/ CREDIBILITY IN A QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Milles and Huberman (1994) state that the meanings emerging from the data “have to be tested for their plausibility, their sturdiness, their “confirmability” that is their validity. Otherwise we are left with interesting stories about what happened, of unknown truth and utility” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 11). However, Corbin (2008) discusses that she is uncomfortable with using terms reliability and validity when discussing qualitative research: “These terms carry with them too many quantitative implications (...). I would rather use the term “credibility” when talking about qualitative research” (Corbin, 2008, p. 301). In her view, “credibility” indicates that findings are trustworthy and believable in that they reflect participants, researchers and readers’ experiences of a phenomenon. Nevertheless, explanation is only one of many possible “plausible” interpretations possible from data (Corbin, 2008, p. 302). I agree with Corbin (2008) and prefer not to use the concept of validity. I find concepts such as rigour, quality and credibility more appropriate for my research. I discuss rigour further in this section.

3.5.1.1. INTERVIEW TECHNIQUE AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

In my research, I was seeking credibility through using qualitative data collection tools. For the first stage of data collection, I conducted initial, unstructured and follow up, semi-structured interviews. Roberts et al (2015) argue that “unstructured interviews allow researchers access to the “lived experience” of a particular social group and to get inside their heads” (Roberts et al., 2015, p. 211). Meanwhile, Chapman (2016) observes that the benefit of semi-structured interviewing is allowing “the interviewer to ask respondents for clarification of vague answers and to follow up and develop their responses” (Chapman, 2016, p. 28). The main strength and reliability of unstructured interviews is that they
allow a researcher to establish a close relationship/rapport with the respondent, and according to Roberts et al (2015), it may mean that “interview subjects are more likely to open up and say what they really feel and mean” (Roberts et al., 2015, p. 211). Therefore, according to Roberts et al (2015), data is in-depth, more colourful, rich and vivid, reflecting real life and real experiences of the participants, thus making it “highly valid”, or credible and trustworthy (Roberts et al., 2015, p. 212).

3.5.1.2. CREDIBILITY/ AUTHENTICITY: RESPONDENT VALIDATION

Another tool I used to ensure credibility and authenticity was member/respondent validation. During the entire data analysis process, I kept asking myself whether findings of the study made any sense. Were they credible to the people I was studying? Did it have an authentic portrait of what I was looking for? (Miles and Huberman, 1994). The answer on how authentic the findings were could be found by asking participants themselves through a technique called “respondent validation or member validation” (Bryman, 2001, p. 272). Bryman further explains that the goal of respondent validation is “to seek confirmation that the researcher’s findings and impressions are congruent with the views of those on whom the research was conducted and to seek out areas in which there is a lack of correspondence and the reasons for it” (Bryman, 2001, p. 273).

I incorporated member validation into the second-stage of the data collection, focus groups. But before proceeding with the focus groups, I conducted a pilot interview in order to check if emerging themes, categories and their order were comprehensive to the pilot interview respondent. The respondent gave positive feedback. However, while the respondent was impressed by the accuracy of the themes, s(he) provided some constructive feedback regarding the subthemes, which I found very helpful in preparation for my focus groups. In order to validate my “scheme”, I also sent a list of interim findings to six respondents. Later, I invited them to a focus group where I repeated the same procedure as in
the pilot interview: testing interim findings, seeking confirmation or exploring disagreements, which eventually led to data saturation, refinement and the expansion of emerging theory.

Discussion after my presentation to the respondents led to a more general discussion about how migration to the UK affected Lithuanian family relationships and what could be done to help Lithuanian migrant families to sustain and support their families. I was confident that in conducting research/focus groups in this way, I would make my research methodology stronger, results more credible and that the whole research, in the words of Corbin (2008), should “hold up to that scrutiny” (Corbin, 2008, p. 273).

3.5.1.3. UTILISATION/APPLICATION/ACTION ORIENTATION

According to Milles and Huberman (1994), “[e]ven if the study’s findings are valid and transferable, we still need to know what the study owes for its participants, both researchers and researched – and for its consumers” (Miles and Huberman, 1994, p. 280). In my research, while there may be no direct benefit to the participants, their participation in this research study would definitely contribute to the knowledge in understanding Lithuanian immigrant family’s situation in the UK, in terms of the following areas:

- How individuals cope and manage the situation when one of their members emigrates abroad;
- About the changes (if any) of family dynamic during migration process;
- If there are any social services available to meet the Lithuanian immigrant family’s needs and help sustain their families during transition period.

I hope, that after writing my thesis, it will be easier for Lithuanian families to understand how emigrating from Lithuania to another country can affect their
lives and their family relationships. I am quite confident that due to the participants’ invaluable information, the research will be a significant contribution towards understanding the impact of immigration on Lithuanian families in East Anglia and the East Midlands. I also hope that after publishing my thesis, its analysis and conclusions may raise awareness among decision-makers and anyone who wants to understand immigration, especially about the strains that migration has on family relationships.

3.5.2. RELIABILITY/CREDIBILITY/APPLICABILITY IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Bryman (2001) defines reliability as being “concerned with the question of whether the results of a study are repeatable” (Bryman, 2001, p. 29). Sarantakos (2005) explains that qualitative researchers try to “avoid the use of the concept ‘reliability’; instead they use concepts such as credibility and applicability, or auditability” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 89). From the very start of my research, I knew that “applicability” is the term that I would prefer to use. The reason for this is that reliability would be an issue since, by applying qualitative data collection and analysis methods, one cannot assume the same results. For example, a sample concerning people’s experiences in the East Midlands could be different from Lithuanian migrants residing in London. The individual interviews or focus groups simply cannot be repeated. The dynamics and the relationship built with the respondents cannot be replicated. However, interviews, with the clear interview schedule and prompts, and focus groups, with a clear and transparent structure and discussion schedule, can be replicated. To achieve this, I produced consistent and transparent methodological steps throughout the data collection and analysis. Sarantakos (2005) refers to it as “a measure of objectivity, stability, consistency, and precision” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 88).

According to Sarantakos (2005), no matter which concept scholars use both aspects of reliability, namely, internal and external are considered in qualitative
research. “How these dimensions of reliability are addressed in practice varies from case to case” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 90). He then cites Flick (1998) and Drew (1996) who propose the following paths in ensuring internal reliability/applicability in a qualitative research:

* **Prolonged engagement and persistent observation.** I conducted research in two stages and in some cases returned back to the same respondents for further investigation in the form of follow-up interviews and focus group discussions.

* **Peer review or debriefing.** During the research process, I had undergone countless supervisions, presented my work in six conferences and a number of postgraduate seminars and published abstracts and online articles.

* **Checking ‘the appropriateness of the terms of reference of interpretations and their assessment’**. All terms and concepts were checked during pilot interviews and focus group discussions.

* **Member checks** - conducted pilot interviews as well as presented interim findings in focus groups and checked the accuracy of perceptions.

**External auditing.** Up until now, seven of my research papers for national and international conferences have been accepted.

**Use mechanical recording devices where possible.** I used a digital recorder for all my face-to-face and focus group interviews.

To ensure external reliability, I followed the proposed steps by Sarantakos (2005):

1) I clearly specified my status and position in the introduction of my thesis “so that readers know exactly what point of view drove the data collection” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 91).
2) I also clearly identified my sample – how, where, why they were selected and clearly defined the context and characteristics so that the reader could make clear: “judgements about similar circumstances or settings” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 91).

3) Moreover, I defined the analytic constructs that guide this study. I explained the grounded theory approach in the methodology chapter in both the methodological orientation and Initial research design and execution sections.

4) I specified data collection and analysis procedures “meticulously” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 91). I hope that after applying those measures for my research, it can be viewed as credible, authentic and applicable.

3.5.3. RIGOUR IN QUALITATIVE RESEARCH

Throughout the process of my research, I constantly kept asking myself whether it was authentic. Was it reliable? Was it credible? It has all led to a concept of rigour, which I tried to implement by using different methods of data collection and analysis. I also mixed different methods for cross checking my findings, e.g. Word Frequency Query (WFQ) in order to find out if my findings matched (see Appendices 21, 23 and 24).

3.5.3.1. CONSISTANT APPLICATION OF CHOSEN METHOD - GROUNDED THEORY

Charmaz (2009) states that researchers should ensure that the rigour of the research is consistent with the principle of a chosen method. In my research, rigour has been ensured by applying principles of grounded theory. First, it was about initial interviews with Lithuanian migrants and trying to find out about their migration experience through their stories. In the first interviews, the respondents were simply asked to tell their stories about their migration experience to the UK. So, according to Charmaz (2009), “We begin by being open to what is happening in the studied scenes and interview statements so that we
might learn about our research participants lives” (Charmaz, 2009, p. 3). Then I sorted and synthesized my data through qualitative coding. “Coding means that we attach labels to segments of data that depict what each segment is about. Coding distils data, sorts them, and gives us a handle for making comparisons with other segments of data” (Charmaz, 2009, p. 3).

I discussed the way I applied initial, intermediate and advanced coding earlier in this chapter. But coming back to the rigour – it is about following the principle of one’s chosen method. With grounded theory, after the first bout of data collection and analysis (sorting, organising, comparing), some initial codes started to “stand out”, indicating the need of further investigation through more interviews. After the subsequent interviews, the data was compared to previous interviews. Thus, in terms of ensuring rigour, the constant comparison of data between data indicates a consistent application of the grounded theory principle. After 17 interviews, there were some definite themes emerging – I needed more information or affirmation through further participants - theoretical sampling in order to “to strengthen our analytic categories” (Charmaz, 2009, p. 3). In grounded theory, you can apply any data collection method as long as it fits the purpose. I decided to collect further data through the focus group method. It served me for two reasons: 1. member check/respondent validation and 2. deepening knowledge on the transition stage and support systems during that period.

3.5.3.2. CROSS CHECKING FINDINGS - WORD FREQUENCY QUERY

Seal and Silverman (1997) suggest that rigour in qualitative research can be ensured by using the counting technique. While using the grounded theory approach for data collection and analysis, I also used NVivo Word frequency query (WFQ). This was to check if my interim findings (of each theme and subtheme, individual cases and interviews) matched the frequency of significant words in those findings (themes, subthemes, cases, and individual interviews). I
also checked whether final findings correlate with the most frequent words my respondents used to describe their migration experiences. It was a lengthy process to run queries for all of the categories and subcategories. After this coding process, when all of the related codes were grouped into categories and themes, it felt as if I was back to step one, untangling categories into individual nodes/words. However, it served as a great tool of verification of my interim and final findings (see Appendices 21, 23 and 24 for some examples of WFQ).

The WFQ not only presented me with the most significant words, their frequency and their relation to my interim findings, but most importantly it affirmed that using mixed qualitative and quantitative methods, research obtains a greater quality and rigour.

Seal and Silverman (1997) argue that “rigour and validity are properly important in qualitative health research” (Seal and Silverman, 1997, p. 380). They further explain that “presenting simple counts of events can help readers gain a sense of how representative and widespread particular instances are. (…). A variety of methods have been developed to achieve in qualitative research (Seal and Silverman, 1997, p. 380). The authors present a list of possible quantitative methods to ensure rigorous qualitative research. It includes the ones I used in my research. Seal and Silverman (1997) suggest “using computer programmes to assist qualitative data analysis, thus ensuring systematic analysis of representative instances of data” (Seal and Silverman, 1997, p. 380). I used NVivo 8 and NVivo 10 to help with my data analysis (storing and categorising, visual tolls – graphs, diagrams, coding strips, queries, etc.) It certainly enriched the whole research process.

They also advise recording data “objectively and comprehensibly, including the use of audiotapes, videotapes and different levels of detail in the transcription of data” (Seal and Silverman, 1997, p. 380). Throughout the data collection and analysis processes, I recorded data objectively and paid a great attention to the
transcription of the data. However, the authors warn that “none of these techniques can be said to solve all the problems of reliability and validity finally but used with due regard to their limitations can advance these causes in research reports” (Seal and Silverman, 1997, p. 380).

3.5.4. CONCLUSION

In this section, I looked at the concepts of validity and reliability and their use in qualitative research. The authors agree that scientific research, despite its methodological approach – quantitative or qualitative - should be well-measured and prove that the research findings represent a fair picture of the studied phenomenon and make sense to the people involved. While there are a number of ways to ensure research quality and rigour, I achieved it through consistently applying and recording the grounded theory approach. I then verified my findings through a member check/respondent validation and the use of Word Frequency Query (WFQ) to check if my qualitative findings matched the quantitative method of counting. By using WFQ, not only did I receive assurance that my interim findings were trustworthy, but more importantly, for myself, I dispelled the myth that qualitative research does not use “numbers”. I found that the combination of both methods, quantitative and qualitative, gave my research a greater depth of quality, rigour and credibility, and by using numbers along with the words, I understood the gravity of the phenomenon.
4. FINDINGS

In this chapter I present my findings in the sequence they appeared after Initial, Interim, Advanced coding and analysis. For that purpose, I use Mcfadzean’s (Strauss and Corbin’s coding methodology) model once again, since all components of the grounded theory approach (results, analysis, theoretical sampling, further data collection, analysis, and results) are iterative. I present my results as they appeared during the process of analysis (phases I and II).

4.1. INTERIM FINDINGS OF PHASE I

As mentioned in the Methodology chapter during Phase one, I conducted three pilot and 17 face-to-face and online interviews. Initial pilot interviews indicated the following themes seen below (Table 16).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adaptation</th>
<th>Challenges of migration</th>
<th>Children</th>
<th>Choices</th>
<th>Communication</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Coping mechanisms</td>
<td>Critical experience</td>
<td>Decisions</td>
<td>Divorce</td>
<td>Dreams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Emotions</td>
<td>Faith</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>Feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friends</td>
<td>Future plans</td>
<td>Help</td>
<td>Here (UK)</td>
<td>Lithuanian Community in the UK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing the situation</td>
<td>Marriage</td>
<td>Mental, emotional</td>
<td>Migration</td>
<td>Motherhood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obstacles to migrate</td>
<td>Pain</td>
<td>Reasons to migrate</td>
<td>Relationships</td>
<td>Self -esteem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Support network</td>
<td>There (Lithuania)</td>
<td>Ties with Lithuania</td>
<td>UK job market</td>
<td>Work</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16: Themes that emerged after initial interviews
4.1.1. MAIN THEMES

To check whether themes were relevant, and if there was anything else significant in the Lithuanian migrant experience in the UK, I conducted further interviews. During my analysis process, after the Interim coding had been applied, the main themes emerged as shown depicted in Figure 11.

![Figure 11: The main emergent themes after initial analysis](image)

Literature suggests (Corbin and Strauss, 2008; Birks and Mills, 2011) that intermediate coding is used to identify relational (or definitive) statements, which apply to most respondents. My definite statements turned into interim findings, which I present in this section.

4.1.1.1. MIGRATION

The Migration category appeared to be the largest category among this group. It applied to all research participants and, after thorough sorting, it contained seven substantial and interrelated subcategories. These were: the Reasons to migrate, the Benefits of migration, the Challenges of migration, the Consequences of migration, Wishes and the Transition stage. Initially it also
had *Obstacles to migrate together*. After further analysis, I decided to incorporate this into the **Challenges of migration**, since it explained such reasons as, for example, why families did not take their children at the beginning of their settlement in the UK.

![Diagram showing main emergent themes after initial analysis](image)

**Figure 12: The main emergent themes after initial analysis**

### 4.1.1.1. REASONS TO MIGRATE

Findings showed that people had many reasons as to why they wanted to move to the UK. All of them wanted to have a better quality of life in the UK as opposed to what they had in Lithuania. Most of them migrated because they wanted to **build a new life**, e.g. "I wanted to change the environment, to change the situation" [Milda].

Some of them wanted to escape from the **family situation** in Lithuania.

"The family situation was the main reason to emigrate. With every single day and every single year my husband was getting deeper and deeper into alcohol nightmare. I had two children and had to maintain our 3 room flat and I had to do it all from my very wee salary. (...). For me, the most important was to leave X [partner] and to start a new life somewhere, where I could live as a normal human being" [Sandra].
Others wanted to improve their financial situation - to find a job, earn money and secure their families financial future.

A.B. What were the reasons to migrate to the UK?

“Money and only money. The main reasons are financial ones” [Ona].

Findings also showed that left behind children understood their parent’s motivation to migrate:

“They [parents] decided to leave because there’s a crisis here and there are no jobs. They couldn’t earn money here” [Tadas].

Some people wanted both, to change their environment and improve their financial situations: “I had two main reasons, I wanted to change the environment and gain some new experience. And also to earn some money for the family, because we lived in a private house, which needed major reconstructions” [Rokas].

Sandra summarised her thoughts on why Lithuanians migrated to the UK. “All Lithuanians come here because things are not going well at home. If they had a good job with a good salary and a normal life in Lithuania - I really doubt if any of them would come over here” [Sandra, female]. Another respondent echoes those thoughts: “If people have a job and a good partner in Lithuania – there is no need to migrate at all” [Milda].

People took different approaches regarding the decision to migrate. Some of them discussed it with their family and decided together: “It was not just my ambition - we all decided together. We all felt that it was the time to change something” [Rokas].

Others just informed their families about the decision to leave: “Somehow she [mother] never got into discussions about it. It became natural that she lives abroad, that’s it. Later there were discussions about me re-joining her” [Goda, child].
“I had no choice, mum decided for me. I didn’t resist too much because I knew that the living conditions would improve in migration” [Goda, child].

For most of the adults, it took a great deal of courage to migrate. Some of them faced confrontation with their own parents. Others had to choose to leave their children behind for uncertain future abroad in the hope this would provide a secure and brighter future for the whole family.

“When we left, X [daughter] was 6 years old and she wasn’t really upset. I left her with my mum. My mum loved her very much and really looked after her well, and she helped us a lot. (...) I don’t really remember know, but I think, it was a year on, since we left for the first time – then she reacted vary painfully...because ...she was holding me all in tears and then it was a very hard moment of departure. Then I started thinking...maybe we shouldn’t, maybe we don’t have to...but then I thought, that I’ve done so much: changed my studies into part-time, found a job here, started something new building here – it was a moment, when I didn’t know what to do whether to come back or to go to the UK” [Barbora].

For most of the adults, it was easier to make the decision to migrate because there were already established networks in the UK: they already knew someone living in the UK and s/he either offered, or promised to help in settlement and the finding of a job.

“The daughter of my acquaintances lived here [UK]” [Sandra].

“My brother lives here with his family, so at the beginning I stayed with them”[Ona].

“My sister was already in London (...)” [Milda].

4.1.1.2. BENEFITS OF MIGRATION

The Benefits of migration to the UK category could be divided into two subcategories, such as financial (financial security, financial freedom, part-time
jobs and welfare) and psychological benefits (improved relationships and life styles, personal freedom and achievements, and an increase of self-esteem).

4.1.1.2.1. FINANCIAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL BENEFITS IN THE UK

All participants agreed that after migrating to the UK, their lives improved financially. This lead to an improvement in their psychological wellbeing, contentment, happiness and stability in family relationships. The two notions of financial and psychological benefits were closely inter-related. The following case of a female respondent illustrates this. Rasa is a divorced woman who lives with her daughter and her gay partner. Living on benefits allowed Rasa to study and improve her language in order to get a more qualified job. A part-time job and benefits allowed her to enjoy a good quality of life, rent a house and have holidays abroad, but more importantly Rasa was having a life she had never had before:

“In Lithuania I didn’t have a hold of money. I’d spend them on the bills – absolutely everything! Here, I’m working part-time, and also getting money for my daughter – so, I can allow myself everything! Totally! We buy any food we like. We don’t restrict ourselves on anything. (...) We can also afford to go travelling with my partner” [Rasa].

Another example is Sandra’s case. Sandra’s life in Lithuania was in such despair that she was thinking of taking her own life: “When your household is so poor – as an individual you start to degrade. I couldn’t think of any amusement or entertainment, I couldn’t afford anything in Lithuania at all. The only available free entertainment was movies on TV and reading. I really needed time to switch my brains off and forget about everything (...) sometimes I’d have some thoughts like to turn on the gas, so that the three of us [Sandra and her two children] would never have to wake up again” [Sandra].
After being asked about how her life has changed since migration, Sandra highlighted the changes in her quality of life. Firstly *psychologically* – she found “peace” in her soul. Secondly, she found *financial safety* and security.

“One thing is definitely different here from my life in Lithuania – I found peace in my soul. That’s indescribable thing. I was living in constant fear and anxiety. Now, for example, on 28th of each month I get my salary and I don’t need to worry that till 28th of next month I won’t have anything to eat. I pay my rent and I can afford to go to the shop and buy some clothes if I need it” [Sandra].

Just by looking at this one example, it is clearly seen that moving to the UK changed Sandra’s life immensely, even in terms of something as simple as being able to buy better toothpaste: “In Lithuania I had only tiny dreams. (...) for example, to buy a better toothpaste. (...) Now, all my dreams have been fulfilled, more so, it surpassed all expectations”. Sandra is now able to afford to travel, to buy a car and a computer as well as to spend time on entertainment with the family. The contrast between “better toothpaste” and her UK expenditure is starkly apparent. It is also interesting to see the connection between having fun together as a family unit and a growing bond among family members. It may imply that changes in life styles such as having fun and leisure together may affect and strengthen family relationships. Sandra did not have that in Lithuania.

“In Lithuania we didn’t understand what it means entertainment. (...) We were extremely happy that we managed to buy a car here. (...) So, then we went to Stamford by car (...). We were happy to see the beauty of that town (...) every little thing brings joy to us, because before, in Lithuania, we couldn’t afford to do absolutely anything. Doing things together and having fun also brought us closer” [Sandra].

A new life in the UK not only helped Sandra to fulfil her financial dreams but also raised her self-esteem and strengthened her personality.
“I wanted to start respecting myself again, to feel human, and to become stronger” [Sandra].

**Fulfilled dreams**

Although some people had less edifying experiences in the UK such as discrimination against foreigners and being bullied and beaten at school (more about it later in this section), they all agree that the UK was liberal, open to foreigners and full of opportunities country.

“Now we can live our lives freely, without any restrictions. We can hold our hands while walking, because we know that people are, more or less, tolerant here. They are definitely more tolerant than people in Lithuania. (...) I feel much better here. I know, that majority of my friends in Lithuanian wouldn’t understand, and would condemn us [for being gay]” [Rasa].

Most people experienced satisfaction by learning new things upon migration (driving, flying, English) and affording the entertainment they could not have in Lithuania. The evidence shows this enhanced an individual’s sense of wellbeing. Many people agreed that their dreams have eventually been fulfilled in the UK.

“I’ve got a harmonious and peaceful life I was always longing for” [Rasa].

“Here I am free at six pm. You also have a security, normal holidays and life of real value – I didn’t have that in Lithuania. (...). There’s nothing missing: family is with me, I like my job, only two hours flight to Lithuania (...), I’m valued (...), and children are studying. So far so good” [Rokas].

“Here, I think, I have all I wanted. I have a job, my daughter is here. I can speak English and drive a car” [Milda].

Data analysis also showed that some people gained emotional stability and family as a result of migration to the UK. Rasa explained: “I have always envied people, who not only had a harmony in the house, but also a very loving and reliable
partner. (...) I envied the attention they received, the way they were made feel as real women; travelling and doing things together. Now, I’ve got it all” [Rasa].

All that Rasa hoped for in Lithuania (family, emotional stability and financial security) she achieved in the UK.

“So, in terms of emotional stability – I’ve gained a family here. The family I’ve been dreaming of for all my life” [Rasa].

**Improved relationships** – was one the biggest themes in **benefits of migration** subcategory. My data analysis suggests that, after migration to the UK, family relationships improved.

“I think that relationship even improved, because we spend more time together; solving problems, making food together, travelling” [Jurga].

Rasa’s example illustrates this point. Her relationship with her daughter improved since she was working part-time in the UK and found more time to spend with her.

“I didn’t have any time for her [daughter] in Lithuania. I used to work for 12-14 hours a day. (...). So, obviously, there was no time for children. Here, I only work on Saturdays and Sundays, so, for the rest of the week, we are together. That makes a huge difference. She returns home, we talk, go somewhere, and do things together” [Rasa].

People also talked about another factor for improving their family relationships, i.e. **facing and overcoming migration challenges together**.

“We were a strong family in Lithuania, and now I think we became even stronger because we had to overcome so many challenges together” [Rokas].

“I think that migration hasn’t changed our relationship much (...). Challenges only brought us closer” [Saulius].
“When we came over here – the whole situation and experience brought us closer. Together we tried to create a new life in a new country, in a new environment” [Barbora].

Ruta explained that, although her relationship with her mother was close in Lithuania, after migrating to the UK they became best friends because they had more time to spend with each other.

“Nothing has changed much – as a family we always were very close, especially with mum. But when we lived in Lithuania we hardly had any time to communicate properly, because either she was abroad, or was too busy. I think, that here we communicate much more. We tell each other everything. We became best friends” [Ruta, child].

4.1.1.1.3. CHALLENGES OF MIGRATION

In contrast to the obvious migration benefits to the Lithuanian family, there were also challenges they had to face. The diagram below shows the main challenges that emerged after the first round of data analysis (Figure 13).
One of the main challenges Lithuanian families faced in migration was **adaptation**. Data analysis showed that it was harder for the Lithuanian migrants to build new friendships in migration than initially thought. Having no information centres for foreigners, especially pre-dating Lithuania becoming part of EU, made starting their new life in the UK very hard. People did not know how the system worked or where and how to look for a job or housing. New arrivals did not know how to claim benefits. According to Elvyra, “*Language barrier, lack of knowledge about how system works, loneliness, and many other things*” – this all made the adaptation process much harder.

Another challenge for the Lithuanian migrants was being illegal in the UK. A few Lithuanian families migrated to the UK and stayed illegally before Lithuania had officially joined the EU. “Living in a shadow” – no rights, no access to NHS and the constant fear of being caught and deported. Some migrants described this as the most devastating experience of migration.

> “We couldn’t decide for a very long time whether to stay here and start settling down. That uncertainty and being illegal were one of the biggest challenges. I think it was really a terrible, terrible thing. That life in a shadow...I wouldn’t wish that to anyone” [Saulius].

**Children** and their adaptation problems was another challenge of migration for the Lithuanian families. Parents talked of their constant worry about their children who were either left behind in Lithuania, or on their own at home in the UK, while their parents were at work. Data analysis showed that, especially at the beginning of their settlement in the UK, some children felt lonely and found it hard to find new friends. Many were longing for their friends left behind and some were bullied, and even beaten, at school for being Lithuanians.

**Teenagers in migration.** All parents admitted that one of their biggest challenges in migration regarding children was their adolescents. They found it hard to
understand and cope. Some explained it as a lack of parental skills and knowledge, while others felt that they became distant to each other due to their very busy working life. Because of this, teenagers were often lonely and felt abandoned by their parents (both in Lithuania and the UK).

However, these teenagers did not tend to blame their parents. Most described their rebellious mood as a way to express their feelings about/disapproval of their parent’s new partner in migration. Data analysis showed that families who migrated to the UK altogether as a single unit, or soon after one another, did not experience as acute relationship clashes.

**Worries about children’s education** was another big challenge in migration revealed by data analysis. Many parents initially did not know how long they would stay in the UK. Taking the children with them would have been too high a risk in terms of their children’s education. Some identified it (children’s education) as the **main obstacle to migrating together**. They expressed a desire for their children to graduate from their schools in Lithuania. Others were more concerned about what would happen if they took their children to the UK then decided to return to Lithuania later, since the education systems differed greatly.

“They [family] stayed for a year in Lithuania; we wanted our son to graduate school in Lithuania” [Rokas].

“There was another choice – to take my son with me to the UK. But he was still at school. That worried me the most. What [grades] would he get in the UK when he gets there?” [Sandra]

“X [son] was in year 12, so we wanted him to graduate school in Lithuania. We took him over only after he graduated” [Jurga].

One of the biggest subcategories within **Challenges in migration** category was **language**. All people experienced the importance of language competency to
achieve their goals and succeed in the UK. Data analysis showed that not knowing the language delayed successful adaptation in the country and impacted on job searching, gaining desirable employment, communication at work or school, understanding the UK system and communication with officials.

“Since I didn’t know the language, I couldn’t look for anything that would meet my qualifications” [Rasa].

Many had to rely on their friends to help them translate on a daily basis. Some Lithuanian migrant women were eager to find new partners, usually other foreigners who spoke English, to manage their lives in migration.

Those who came to the UK with English fluency still found challenges due to the different UK accents. As a result it took some time before they felt comfortable and confident communicating in English.

“Language is a huge challenge, because...it’s seems that you know your English, but when you come here you think you’d be able to communicate in English with your school level English. But when you come here and start working from the lowest jobs in the fields, where people start speaking with big accents, then it is very very difficult to learn the language, because they speak a bit differently from the proper English language” [Saulius].

“Up till now I’ve been asking people to repeat because they are from different regions and it’s quite difficult to understand some of them” [Jonas].

**Missing family and friends** were other two big subcategories of challenges in migration category. Both migrants and the families left behind felt the acute longing for each other.

“Because parents reaching their old age now. You start realising that they will never get younger and you anticipate something to happen to them someday. Knowing that you
can’t be with them it’s the hardest thing of all. Your mum and dad...getting older, nd you know that you cannot be near them...to help them by just being there” [Saulius].

“I have fewer friends here. (...) here I have only my mum, and there – my whole family and friends. I keep thinking of them and miss them lots” [Ruta, child].

Friends were another “most missed” category along with Lithuanian culture, language, nature and food.

“Then another challenge, that somebody is left behind in Lithuania [silence]... friends...all your friends are somewhere else, and you are here”[Saulius].

“Brother, relatives, friends, Lithuanian food” [Milda].

“We miss Lithuania, culture, environment” [Jurga].

All respondents talked about missing Lithuanian food as if it was a big part of their identity, and an important tie that kept them connected with the Lithuanian community and each other.

Work was another big challenge in migration. Some people found it difficult to do low paid jobs while being well-educated. Others, although happy to have any job, found relationships at work challenging. Some factory workers found their treatment to be discriminatory and humiliating. Others, who knew the language and aimed for better paid jobs (GP, IT specialist, shop management), felt highly appreciated and valued for their work. One woman related it to the knowledge of language. When she was working at the factory (and did not speak any English), she felt humiliated by the local English or Polish managers. This was in direct contrast to how the English factory workers were treated.

“There were just a few of them there [English factory workers]. But they definitely were not bossed around. No one swore at them. It was tough there. Doesn’t matter what education you have – some of us were with high education degrees – nobody paid attention
to it – we were humiliated and bossed around. You had to suffer because you didn’t know any English” [Milda].

Later, after learning English and having a job as a fashion retail assistant, things changed drastically. She felt greatly valued and appreciated by the management and the staff.

*There is X [a famous fashion retail shop] shop in the area I live. (...) And I am very happy to work there. Communicating in English with English staff … There are no any other foreigners like me in there. All of them are local. Everyone is very kind and polite. They are very impressed with my work” [Milda].*

4.1.1.1.4. CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION

Data analysis showed that the consequences of migration had both negative and positive elements. It was also about personal changes in migration; gains and loses; and also the reality people had to face after their migration to the UK (Figure 14).
Most people realized that migration was not only about gains but also about losses. Although they gained financially, everyone felt acutely the consequences of their migration to the UK. Young people missed their friends who were left behind and the family. Adults missed their life back in Lithuania.

“Regarding my professional career – I have lost a lot. (…) I lost more than gained” [Rasa].

“Financially it is much easier – I have everything I want. Everything seems easier to achieve. But I became more sensitive, distant and reserved. I badly miss my life in Lithuania. Mainly my friends and school“ [Asta, teenager].

“In Lithuania, most of our time we dedicated to work. We didn’t have “working hours” there. On the other hand, everything there was comprehensible. There we left our
family, brothers and friends, whose we are missing dearly. Here we can spend more time for reading and travelling though” [Jurga].

“We live quite well: we have a huge house. In terms of money - we have everything we need: we can buy anything we want without thinking too much. If we think in those terms...Now, if we think about spiritual/mental values – we obviously, miss Lithuania, communication with Lithuanians, the fact of being accepted in the society” [Barbora].

Most people felt isolated and lonely at the beginning of their settlement in the UK.

“He [a teenager son] was quite lonely here. At the beginning we would go everywhere together, but, of course, he needed friends and was longing for the old ones he left in Lithuania” [Sandra].

She further explained her sons’ experience in the UK. “The hardest thing for my children was to be in an unfamiliar environment. At home, they used to be at my mother’s house in the country where they felt safe and secure. (...). They knew exactly what they had to do; their duties and responsibilities. They felt calm and safe there. They lost it all. Therefore it was very very hard for them to adapt here. It was a total solitude“ [Sandra].

Some people changed upon migration, becoming more distant, sensitive, more reserved (see quote on page 210).

“The whole life here changes your personality whether you want it or not. It changed me big times. I became reserved...unbearable sadness inside” [Elvyra].

4.1.1.4.1. BEING A MIGRANT: REALITY OF LIFE IN THE UK

Despite all the benefits and advantages people gained after moving to the UK, some felt that they would never be accepted into the UK society as an equal and would carry the stigma of being immigrants for the rest of their lives. Barbora’s
experience of being a migrant was quite acute. Although being professionally successful as a hotel manager, she felt that she would never be part of British society.

“There is always a feeling of being a migrant here. (...) No matter my white skin. (...) I think the feeling of being a stranger here is bigger than if I compared myself with the local born black people. They will be accepted as natives opposed to the ones who are white but speak with an accent. I think the essence of acceptance is – how you speak not how you look” [Barbora].

Despite having a high education, Milda also felt disrespected and humiliated for being a migrant while working at the factory in the UK.

“I wanted to leave factory, because there was no respect to us. I felt very humiliated. If you misplaced a magazine or did not understand something well, they would say: f…ing, f… you! (...) Factory is a factory. They could be different in some places, but in most cases, they would treat you as a migrant. They would not respect you at all” [Milda].

4.1.1.1.5. INITIAL PLANS, DREAMS AND WISHES

Another big subcategory of Migration - initial plans, dreams and wishes.

Most initial plans of Lithuanian migrants in the UK were the same, namely to stay for a while and earn money, gain work experience and return to Lithuania. However, some people decided to settle down, planning to return to Lithuania only when they were old or if at all.

“I really don’t think I’ll stay here forever. If I had a plan to stay here I would have sold my property in Lithuania and bought something here. But I kept thinking that I’d return back to Lithuania. But I cannot answer how long will I stay here for. Future will tell. At the moment there is an economic crisis. (...) I don’t know. I’d call it [UK] my second
home. Lithuania is always going to be my first one…(...) But I don’t think I would want to die here” [Jonas].

Some people did have imminent plans to go back to Lithuania. This was either due to the economic situation in Lithuania and a better quality life they have gained in the UK, or from building a new life and settling down in the UK.

“Not at the moment when there’s a crisis in Lithuania. If I didn’t have a job, then – yes, but now I’m not rushing anywhere” [Ona].

“I had a few plans: one of them was to come and gain different work experience here. At the beginning I didn’t think to stay here for long. I thought I would come here for a very short time, would get some work practice and then return home. After a year or so. And the second plan was, if things go well and so on, to get all my family over and to start building a new life together here” [Jonas].

“My cousin asked me if I come back to Lithuania. I told her that it was so hard to learn English and to rebuild by life here that I don’t want it all to go in vain” [Milda].

Children often approved of their parents’ decision to stay in the UK.

“They [parents] want to stay there for quite a while. (...). They think life is better there. They say that everything is much better there. Everything. People don’t pay attention how you are dressed. No one points at you with their finger. Unlike in Lithuania - bullying, teasing” [Migle, left behind child].

Some young people did not consider the possibility of returning back to Lithuania.

A.B. Would you like to go back to Lithuania?

- “If I had £5 million! Maybe then...otherwise –no!” [Vesta, teenager].
Peoples’ wishes were very simple in migration: “to have a better life” [various respondents].

However, the data analysis showed that the most common wish and dream was to be reunited with their family.

“I wish that my dad and brother would come to live here” [Goda, child].

“I wish to get all my family over and to start building a new life together here” [Jonas].

4.1.1.1.6. TRANSITION STAGE

Transition stage category is about living apart: either leaving or being left behind. It is also about coping mechanism during the transition stage until family gets reunited (Figure 15).
Data analysis showed that the transition stage was very painful for both sides – the ones who were leaving and the ones who were left behind.

“It was terribly difficult, it reminded me of the time I was in the Soviet Army” [Rokas].

“I was crying a lot when she [mother] left for the first time. I was crying all the time. I couldn’t imagine living without her, living with a stepfather [Migle, left behind teenager].

“It was very hard to live on my own, because we were used to making all decisions together, to do everything together. It was a very hard year, indeed” [Jurga, left behind wife].

4.1.1.6.1. EMOTIONAL - PSYCHOLOGICAL IMPACT OF THE TRANSITION STAGE

Anxiety, anger for the situation, worries, sadness, lonesomeness and constant nightmares were just a few dominant emotions that people experienced during the transition period.

“I would have very bad dreams as if I was saving her [daughter] from water or fire. I thought I’d rather drawn myself but I had to save her. After she [daughter] came over here – I stopped having those nightmares” [Milda].

Some experienced a range of emotions as a consequence of the migration situation. 19 year old Vesta talked about her temper and anger attacks due in part to not coping with being left behind. All she wanted was to be protected by her mother.

“When mum left for England - everything was alright I didn’t even notice that, but after a while I started missing her badly. I was only 10 years old (...)...all I wanted was to hold my mum and cry on her shoulder” [Vesta, left behind teenager].
My data analysis showed that having no sufficient support at home after the parents’ migration left children feeling vulnerable. Young people felt insecure and some expressed **suicidal thoughts**. Vesta found it very hard to live without her mother to the point of considering suicide.

“Things with school got worse too. I didn’t want to study. I was very nervous and impatient. Once, when my doctor prescribed me medicine for depression (...) I took four tablets at school (when supposed to take it only one or maximum two).(...) Soon grandma registered me to the mental health clinic where I had to talk to a woman about my temper and the reasons for that. (...) That session didn’t help me at all. (...) I told my friend that I’d jump down from the window, that I couldn’t live like that anymore, but she told me something that changed my thoughts about life. She told me that I should wait till my mum is back from England and then she would take me to a better life there” [Vesta, left behind teenager].

Interim findings also showed that it was very important to set the support network for the ones left behind. Children, who had the whole extended family and family friends looking after them, were coping easier during the transition stage than those who were left with just their grandmothers.

“I was quite scared at that moment, but my grandma or auntie would come on the weekends. Grandma would stay with us or take brother to her place and I would stay on my own to have a rest” [Migle, left behind teenager].

Migle was asked who helped her to look after her little brother while her parents were working in the UK. She answered that it was her extended family.

“Maybe relatives? God parents. (...) grandma, although we are not in good terms, but still...Mainly godparents, cousins” [Migle, teenager].

Interim findings revealed that some young people gained confidence after being left behind and being responsible for their younger siblings. They managed the
household, school work and cared for their siblings, provided there was a constant communication with parents in migration and the support network of family and friends to rely upon.

“I am getting ready for school myself. As for food, my sister does all the cooking. School is very near, so I can come back home on my own” [Tadas, left behind child].

Milda was asked if it was difficult to look after her little brother. She answered, “What can I say? (…). [Pause]. He is older no, so there’s not so much to care about.

A.B. So, what are your duties?

“I have to get him ready for school and cook”.

A.B. Can you do that?

Yes, I can! [Very confident!] We are making kugelis [Lithuanian potatoes’ dish] together – we are doing everything together. [Smiling]. (…) He’s always either at the computer or watching TV or reading a book. Playing outside with his friends, but, because he’s poorly at the moment, so, I have to look a bit after him. Come back to cook for him”.

When asked if she had any help and support, Migle answered, “Yes, I do! My girlfriends, my godmother – she supports me a lot” [Migle, left behind teenager].

4.1.1.6.2. COPING WHILE BEING LEFT BEHIND

Data analysis showed that regular communication and a clear time set for the reunion made the transition period easier to cope with and to manage.

“I would talk to my mother and my daughter every week, as if according to the schedule every single week I would call them” [Milda].
“I talk to him [brother], explain to him that everything is alright, that we meet them [parents in migration] soon. Mum will come back soon, dad may come back soon too. We’ll go there soon” [Migle, left behind teenager].

Writing a diary or letters were just a few of the coping mechanism people used to ease the pain of separation,

“As soon as mum left I immediately started writing a diary (...) I keep waiting for her return or getting reunited with her over there” [Migle, left behind teenager].

“I used to write letters, but most often I wouldn’t finish or send them. It was very hard. Sometimes I would leave a house, go for a walk, and cry a lot” [Goda, left behind teenager].

4.1.1.6.3. CHALLENGES OF LEAVING BEHIND

Interim findings revealed that the other side, those who left, suffered similarly. Parents experienced a deep sense of guilt and longed for their children. Most talked about this as being the greatest challenge of migration.

“I left Vesta [daughter] with my mom. And I haven’t seen her for two and a half years. These were illegal times [when Lithuania was not part of EU] I couldn’t see her. I was dreaming of her. When I left her – she was only nine years old” [Milda].

Interim findings also revealed that it was not easy to leave a family behind. In most cases, it created loneliness, depression, constant stress and anxiety. However, data analysis showed that as soon as the families reunited, things returned to normal. Relationships improved and families became closer upon reunion because they went through all migration challenges together, providing that the family was close in Lithuania in the first place. (See pages 203-204 for supporting quotes on improved family relationships after reunification).
4.1.1.1.6.4. COPING MECHANISMS AFTER LEAVING FAMILY BEHIND

For most Lithuanian migrants, the transition stage (when one or a few family members were left behind) was the most challenging migration experience. Distance caused anxiety, insecurity and emotional disruption.

“I couldn’t forget about them [children] for a second. I had a toy teddy, so I would hug that teddy [crying]. I was with my teddy then” [Ruta].

Such acute emotions were common among the other respondents, who found the greatest challenge was leaving their children (family) behind. As one of the coping mechanisms, Ruta mentioned regular communication in order to be sure that her children were doing alright. It strongly indicated the importance of communication, especially when family was left behind.

“I would also call them a lot and spend a lot of money on those phone calls. I wanted to get them over as soon as possible” [crying] [Ruta].

Her daughter echoed Ruta’s story by telling that “we communicate constantly. We talk on Skype every day. Parents always check if we are at home, if we’ve eaten. If hungry – to eat, if poorly – to stay at home” [Migle, left behind teenager].

Data analysis showed that better arrangements of care for their left behind children allowed parents to feel and cope better during the transition period in migration.

Interim findings showed the main coping mechanism in migration was hard work (trying not to think about the situation). Keeping busy and regular communication were two other coping strategies during the transition period for parents.

“It was very very hard. (…). I worked hard to forget it all. [Long pause]. It was really really hard, and I would spend lots of money on phone calls to Lithuania” [Barbora].
“I was working, working, and working” [Milda].

“Every day we would speak on the phone or through Skype. Couple of times he [husband] was back [in Lithuania], we also went to the UK for Christmas” [Jurga].

Jonas explained what helped him.

“Being busy. I was more immersed into work. Hmm... People, of course, I met here and was surrounded by them. Virtual world, of course. (...) After divorce- virtual chat was my confider” [Jonas].

Being busy by doing crafts was also one of Elvyras’ coping mechanisms.

“I’m doing crafts – that’s my coping mechanism. I don’t make them purposely. After making I just store them into boxes... but doing it, as a process, helps me to disconnect from everything that’s happening around me” [Elvyra].

4.1.1.2. CHOICES AND DECISIONS

Figure 16: Choices and decisions theme
Another big emergent theme was **Choices** and **Decisions** (Figure 16). Data analysis showed that this was about the **motivation** and **responsibility** to create a better future for the migrants’ families and themselves. People had to make difficult choices and decisions, i.e. to leave their troublesome partners and try to solve financial problems and provide a better future for their family by migrating to the UK? These decisions came with a cost, as in most cases, the individual had to leave his or her family behind.

Milda had to make a choice whether to continue working at the nursery where she had a regular but inadequate income to provide for her daughter’s future education, or to leave to the “unknown” in the hope of building a brighter future for both of them.

“I can’t complain. I always had a job. Graduated from the college. While working at the nursery I could continue working there, but I left, because I wanted to be independent and because of my daughter’s future. Live, have a quality life, to earn enough to provide a good future for my daughter” [Milda].

Her left behind daughter, Vesta, explained her mum’s decision to migrate:

“Mum left because of my future. She wanted me to go to college and university, and to earn money, because in Lithuania was very difficult. (...) I think those were the reasons for her to leave. (…). She said that she left because of my studies and to earn money. She would send me money in Lithuania every month or every week. She wanted me to come to England, graduate school well, and find a good job in the UK” [Vesta, left behind teenager].

With time, people also had to make the difficult decision of whether to stay in the UK or return to Lithuania. In most cases parents decided to stay because of their children.
“There was always a hesitation – are we staying here, or we are going back? There was always a feeling that we are staying only temporarily. We didn’t think that we would stay here forever. (…) She [daughter] was a teenager. Maybe 12 years old…yeah…and, you know, she said: No, I really really don’t want to go back to Lithuania…And then, I thought that it might be far too much stress for her, because we took her from Lithuania, where she had her life, where she went to school, had her own friends, and then we brought her over here, and placed her in a totally different environment. And now, after a while, we have to do that again…relocate…And I thought that it would be too much to cope for a child. And then we decided that we have to stay here because of her” [Barbora].

Some migrants had to make the difficult choice between families and a newfound relationship as illustrated by Rasa’s story. She was a married woman, had two children and was on the brink of a divorce at the time she met her new love online.

“At the beginning we were just chatting, but eventually, we found lots and lots of things in common. I felt that I found a true soul mate. (…). Everything was like in a fairy tale: flowers, a ring, enormous attention, and relationship full of respect and protection. It was the relationship, which I had never had before. After we met, I made a decision to start a new life with her, even if I had to leave everything behind, including my children” [Rasa].

The motivation to leave was also very strong in Sandra’s story, who tried to leave an abusive relationship in Lithuania and create a new life for her and her two sons in the UK.

“I was dreaming of leaving and it didn’t matter where to. For me, the most important was to leave X [husband] and start a new life somewhere where I could live as a normal human being” [Sandra].

In Sandra’s words, it was “a true gamble” since she did not know where she was going or what she was planning to do in the UK. However, both her determination to succeed and the responsibility she felt for her children’s future
helped her to overcome any challenges and obstacles of migration. It proved for her that the decision to migrate was the right one.

“My life got totally different value [in the UK]. Absolutely. It was very important to have my boys [children] with me. That was also easier for them because there wasn’t a drunken father nearby or the extended family’s pressure. I completely crossed that out of my life” [Sandra].

4.1.1.3. LIFE IN LITHUANIA (LT)

Initially, the Life in Lithuania theme/category consisted of the following subcategories: financial situation, life experiences, family relationships and communication. However, during further data analysis it became clear that family relationships category was too big to be seen only as a subcategory. Therefore, I moved it to the list/model of main themes under the same name (Family relationships) and added all time frames/stages of family relationships:
before, during (transition stage) and after migration to it. I cover this theme later in this chapter.

Similarly, the Communication subcategory was about communication in Lithuania, and focused on the communicating news to the family regarding decisions to migrate. In half of the cases, children and other family members were simply informed about the “inevitable” decision. The other half of the respondents took a joint decision, discussing challenges and consequences of migration with their families. However, during further data analysis, it became apparent that communication played a significant role in family relationships, especially during the transition stage when families lived apart. Therefore, it became one of the core themes of this research, encompassing such categories as Communication tools; Communication with friends; Academic communication; Communication with family and Trust. The Communication theme is discussed in more detail later in this chapter (see page 252).

During further analysis, it also became evident that the initial Life experiences subcategory consisted of stories about an individual’s hardship in Lithuania, as well as their financial and personal circumstances that encouraged/pushed people to take control of their lives and make a decision to migrate. An integral aspect of life experiences in the UK was the financial hardship exemplified by Sandra’s story of feeding her children sell-by-date products, and Milda’s story of financial dependency on her husband from whom she was trying to escape: “to become independent and free again”.

4.1.1.3.1. FINANCIAL SITUATION

According to my data analysis, Financial situation, Life experiences and Family relationships can also be called REASONS TO MIGRATE. It is either personal or financial reason and often it is both.


Financial situation encompasses two subcategories of equal importance, namely

Economic crisis and Living conditions. Economic crisis is about financial and employment insecurities in Lithuania, where potential migrants saw no future prospects and little trust in the system. Essentially, to the migrant, there was no hope that things would get better. Living conditions was also about poor household and struggling with daily life. Although most migrants were originally determined to survive in Lithuania, when things did not improve they became increasingly motivated to migrate for a better life abroad (UK).

“I think, that if there was a better situation in Lithuania... if people were able to survive there – just to have their ends met... People don’t need great wealth, millions or something else, because people don’t want millions, they want a stable life and to pay their mortgage” [Rasa].

Ruta also explained how the financial situation in Lithuania greatly affected her family relationships. Ruta found she had no choice but to migrate to the UK where the financial situation, as well as relationships with her husband, improved.

“There were lots of arguing and tension here [Lithuania] before. It was all because of money. (...) The reason was... if you want something to buy a child or yourself – you can’t allow yourself, because there was never enough money considering all the bills and essential expenses. (...) I am happy now. Because the situation allows us more than we had in Lithuania. Situation in Lithuanian is critical. I wouldn’t behave as I do now and I wouldn’t be able to afford things if I lived there now. When I go back [Lithuania] – I can allow myself more” [Ruta].

Although Ruta went through great hardship leaving her children and husband behind, when they were eventually reunited in the UK, she felt very happy and content. Not only was this because they were all together again, it was also
because they could now afford to rent a house with separate bedrooms for their children.

“But now, we are all together and we all are happy, content and even thinking of renting a place just for our family, without any strangers living in the same house, for children to have a separate room” [Ruta].

Rasa was also “pushed” to migrate because of her financial situation in Lithuania.

“It wasn’t good for me in Lithuania. I would work the whole month, and salary wasn’t enough to pay my bills, I always had to borrow money at the end of the month. There were times, while at the shop, I’d think whether I could afford to buy some yogurt for my child. Most of the time I didn’t buy it, because, at that time, yoghurt was a very expensive novelty in Lithuania. That meant- if I bought that yoghurt, I wouldn’t be able to buy anything else for the family that day” [Rasa].

Sandra’s story was very similar to Rasa’s:

“I am wandering, how on earth, did I manage to survive with my little salary. With that salary I was only able to pay my bills. (...) And what about food or clothes for children? My father- in-law would help us a bit and also my mum would give us some food. She would never give us any money. But in order to get that food we had to drive about 30 km, so that food actually was worth the price of petrol. (...). At that time, I worked in a big supermarket, so my children would say that they were eating rotten food, because I brought them “sold by date” food. (...) So, in order to hide it from children (...) I would dry the labels off with a hair dryer” [Sandra].

Milda’s life in Lithuania was completely dependent on her controlling partner as she explained in her story. Financially, she was unable to survive on her own.

“In England you can be more independent. (...) In Lithuania you have to live with someone to share all those bills. And what if you find a wrong man? Like my mom- you have to live anyway. She said she was happy. What else could she say? (...) Many
women, like my mom, had no other choice but carry on living. Where would they go if they got divorced? Religion also plays a big role in that – families are not allowed to have a divorce” [Milda].

Milda took great courage to break that dependency. She migrated to the UK to be “financially independent” and to provide for a better future for her daughter.

4.1.1.4. LIFE IN THE UK

Initially, the Life in the UK theme contained the following categories: Negative experiences, Positive experiences and reasons to stay, Priorities and plans, Family relationships and Communication. From Figure 18 above, it can be seen that my data analysis prompted the further inclusion of how the Lithuanian community impacted life in the UK.

During initial data analysis, family relationships was one of the key subcategories in Life in the UK theme. However, during further analysis, it became clear that it would make more sense if it was merged with other
categories, such as family relationships in Lithuania and family relationships during transition stage in one big FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS theme, in order to better understand how family relationships were affected and transformed by migration over time and in this way, also directly answering the research question of how migration to the UK affects Lithuanian family relationships, if at all.

Similar process happened with communication category within Life in the UK theme. It became so big and crucial for managing migration situation, as well as maintaining family relationships, that it only made more sense to merge it with other communication categories, e.g. Communication in Lithuania, Communication during Transition stage into one big main theme. Both, family relationships and communication themes are discussed later in this chapter.

Data analysis of Life in the UK theme indicated that Lithuanian migrants in the UK embraced both positive and negative experiences.

Initial findings showed that before migrating, all respondents had “illusions “about UK being a “beautiful and rich country”. However, after migration they were confronted by a different reality and, in the words of different respondents, “unfriendly neighbourhood; lots of Asians and disabled people; hard to find and keep a job; bullying at school”.

My data analysis also showed that people were equally divided when relating their experiences of their medical care in the UK. Some had positive experiences and favourable impression of the NHS - “fast and reliable service” [Rokas and Ruta]. Others, on the other hand, had little or no trust in NHS, using comments such as “wrong diagnosis; not reading medical records from other countries; unnecessary operations; enormous queues” [various respondents].
Children also had different school experiences in the UK. Some were impressed by “amazing teachers” [Vesta] and “less work” [Ruta]. However, most reported being bullied and beaten at school for “being Lithuanians/foreigners” [Vesta, Goda].

4.1.1.4.1. NEGATIVE EXPERIENCES

My data analysis showed that respondents had various, negative experiences in the UK. These included discrimination at work and at school for being a foreigner. People’s stories related their abuse at work in a factory, being badly treated by neighbours and being bullied at schools. All teenage respondents reported verbal or physical abuse at school. In most cases, it happened only to those without English fluency. The ones who had better paid jobs and spoke English well were often praised for their skills and efforts, and highly valued in their living or working community.

As a negative experience of their lives in the UK, people mentioned the inner struggle of leaving elderly parents and children behind. Likewise, they reported the difficulty starting life in the UK with new culture, no support network, lack of language and appalling living conditions. Other negative experiences included challenges with new families in migration, such as when teenagers did not accept their parent’s new families or their partners. These parents often felt torn between their partners and their teenage children.

However, my interim findings showed that the positive experiences outweighed the negative ones in the UK.

4.1.1.4.2. POSITIVE EXPERIENCES AND REASONS TO STAY

Positive experiences include both social and financial benefits such as learning English, integrating in to a community, appreciating one’s sexuality and personal achievements, like learning to drive, fly or learning about the UK system in order to benefit from it.
Financial benefits were the main reason why people stayed in the UK. They included financial and social security, more favourable financial welfare, a better quality of life, more opportunities and greater educational options for their children.

Interim findings showed that the main reasons for people to stay in the UK were the following: “children found friends here” [Jurga]; English culture; benefits “waiting for the council house”; “sexual freedom” [Rasa]; financial safety and security - “every month money is paid on time” [Ona].

The interim findings also showed that people’s lives were much easier in the UK. According to the respondents, they were never short of money and could buy anything they wanted. This applied to both groups - the ones who lived on benefits and rented or lived in council houses, and those who owned their properties and paid mortgages. (Please, see quotes on pages 200, 210-211).

Data analysis revealed that most Lithuanian migrants used benefits for self-development (English, computer, driving courses) in order to get a better job and enjoy a better life in the future.

“For two and half years we had to live on benefits. During that time I did English level three and level four. Then, I was learning computers for two years, and then I started learning driving - theory and practice” [Milda].

Rasa explained that she used benefits to advance her English knowledge in order to “make it” in the future.

“In this particular situation – it’s my chance to go to college and learn English. It prepares me for that career jump. If not the benefits – I wouldn’t be able to study English at the moment. Now, I can study the whole day. I hope that eventually I’ll be more useful for this country as a result of that” [Rasa].
4.1.1.4.3. FUTURE PLANS, DREAMS AND PRIORITIES

Many respondents had their dreams fulfilled in the UK, such as learning to drive, learning English, having a job, providing for the family as well as gaining a new family in the UK.

While talking about future plans, half of the adults expressed their wish to go back to Lithuania “when the time is right” [Ona, female]. Others had no immediate plans to return. All interviewed teenagers had no plans to go back since they had made their circle of friends in UK.

Plans to stay in the UK. Most of the respondents expressed a wish to study, get a better job, settle down and have a new family in the UK. All younger people wanted to graduate from college well and enter a good university.

Interim findings showed that at first, the priorities in migration were about survival in a new country and a new culture: surviving without a job, surviving living conditions, and surviving longing for friends and family left behind. This rapidly changed into priorities of finding a job and having a steady income to support and provide for the family. Even later, the priority was to look for a “better” neighbourhood to live and to improve living conditions for the whole family became.

4.1.1.4.4. LITHUANIAN COMMUNITY IN THE UK

The Lithuanian community in the UK is one of the biggest subcategories in the under Life in the UK theme. Many respondents had something to say about either local Lithuanian organizations (church and scouts) or other Lithuanians living in the UK. Respondents went to Lithuanian churches for Christmas and Easter because of a “tradition “at home. However, very few attended church due to a strong or devout faith.
“We go to services for Easter and Christmas to the Lithuanian church in London” [Vesta, teenager].

For some, church was another support network, whereas others tried to avoid Lithuanian gatherings.

“I didn’t leave Lithuania to hang around with Lithuanians in the UK” [Rasa].

“I am not looking for any Lithuanians friends here. My purpose is to find a job, earn money and support my family back home” [Ona].

Some teenagers found it quite difficult to build new relationships with other Lithuanians in the UK.

“I met a few Lithuanian teenagers here, but they are not my real friends. Most of them came from villages in Lithuania, they like to drink, get into trouble and so on. We hardly have anything in common” [Asta, teenager].

Sandra explained that her teenage son also had problems building relationships with his Lithuanian school mates in the UK.

“There were more Lithuanians there [school in the UK], but as he [teenage son] said, they were very angry and he couldn’t build a relationship with them. Although, at that time, he already had a few friends, he still felt very isolated and lonely” [Sandra].

Respondents were split in their opinion about Lithuanian community in the UK. Some viewed it as a great support (information centre regarding benefits, job search and accommodation), whereas others said it was: “better be avoided” - “drinks a lot, lead double lives, looks for trouble, not trustworthy, selfish, profit oriented, not open, not sincere” [Milda, Rasa, Vesta].

When talking about Lithuanians in the UK, respondents spoke mostly in negative terms rather than describing any positive characteristics. Rasa, for example, described them as “not the best people” who came here to make money and then
wasted it by showing off at parties in Lithuania. She described how they: “shop at Lidl; are very selfish; insincere; not open; arrogant and love alcohol…”. “Better people”, in Rasa’s words, were the ones who were known by respondents (family and friends). Those were the people who came to the UK to make/start a new life and worked hard to achieve their aspirations.

A few (especially younger) people mentioned that they did not have trust in Lithuanian people in the UK.

“I don’t go to the church there. I don’t communicate with Lithuanian community there” [UK] [Vesta, teenager].

Vesta further explained mistrust she has towards Lithuanian youth in the UK.

“I don’t trust Lithuanians any longer. Especially boys. (…) I know how they really really are. If someone brings a Lithuanian (…) to my house– I won’t let them in. I don’t need to be friends with Lithuanians” [Vesta, teenager].

Initial data analysis also showed that the organized Lithuanian community (“strangers”) did not play a major support role in the adaptation process of new Lithuanian migrants. Of more importance, according to the data analysis, was the people/family members and friends who arrived to the UK prior to respondents and either offered them a place to stay or helped them to settle down and find a job.

Milda explained that her sister was her biggest support in migration.

“My sister found me everything. I lived with her, she took care of me, paid for my trip…if not her – I wouldn’t be here” [Milda].

This network of earlier migrants was important in the respondent’s life because they served as a bridge to connect and understand the UK system.
My data analysis showed that most Lithuanians at the beginning of their settlement in the UK lived with their friends or families, or shared a rental property with other Lithuanians. This also provided a reason why most did not bring their families at the beginning of migration.

There was a division between old and young Lithuanian migrant generations in the UK according to my data analysis. Respondents admitted that for the older generation it was harder to adapt to a new culture without English fluency. However, they also admitted the older generation was more focused and motivated to find a job in order to provide for their family (parents). Young people (teenagers), on the other hand, had better language skills and often felt under pressure to help their parents with translation. At the same time, young people were going through their own adaptation problems, inherent in adopting culture, school, finding new friends and staying in touch with the old friends in Lithuania. Sometimes, the youths also took responsibility such as being the “messenger” between their parents (or family members) in the UK and Lithuania.

Initial data analysis showed the tendency of Lithuanian migrants to integrate into their British rather than Lithuanian communities. Interim findings showed that Lithuanian migrants socialized with other Lithuanians out of necessity and only at the beginning of their settlement in the UK. Those who wanted to “make it” tried to establish roots into the English/British community.

4.1.1.5. MENTAL AND PHYSICAL STATE

The theme of Mental & Physical state consists of: Emotions, Emotional pain, Feelings, Self-esteem, Depression and Determination categories (Figure 19).
Following the initial data analysis, some data regarding **mental and physical state** was divided into two separate clusters of **Emotions** and **Feelings** in accordance with Pettinelli (2009) (see Appendix 22).

However, by the end of final analysis, it became apparent that not an exact division of a certain notion was important (e.g. is sadness a feeling or an emotion) but rather what causes it - separation, low self-esteem or/and adaptation to a new country? Therefore, this category was later renamed as **Psychosocial effects**. Nevertheless, in this section, I present interim findings as they appeared after the initial data analysis process.

### 4.1.1.5.1. FEELINGS

The feelings category consisted of both **positive** and **negative** feelings. Data analysis revealed that there were more positive feelings than negative emotions in this theme. There were also clear associations, for example, **peace** (positive
feeling) was associated with Life in the UK and fear and anxiety (negative feelings) was associated with Life in Lithuania.

Figure 20: Feelings category

4.1.1.5.1.1. POSITIVE FEELINGS

Data analysis showed that the most frequent positive feelings were joy, happiness and contentment.

Joy in migration was the biggest subcategory under positive feelings. It included gaining new family, a new partner, having more time to spend with children, being able to financially support families left behind as well as being able to travel and afford more entertainment compared with what they used to have, or dreamt of having, in Lithuania.

Happiness was another dominant subcategory under positive feelings and was related to life in the UK. It included happiness at finally being reunited in migration, having a job and financial security in the UK along with having emotional stability and a loving partner.
Data analysis revealed that a feeling of contentment was present in most respondents’ lives. When they compared their lives in Lithuania to their new life in the UK, they all expressed that in migration they felt more contented with their achievements, whether it was financial, i.e. having a job, being regularly paid, being able to afford renting a house, or psychological, i.e. gaining a new family, or having family reunited in migration.

4.1.1.5.1.2. NEGATIVE FEELINGS

According to the data analysis, the most frequent negative feelings people experienced were anger, sadness, fear and anxiety, and depression. According to the interim findings, anger was the biggest subcategory under negative feelings.

From an adult’s perspective, anger was mostly related to life/relationships in Lithuania, or relationships during the transition stage when tension was rising between separated partners due to an uncertainty about the future. However, anger was related to experiences in the UK while talking about work experiences in a factory and relationships/communication with English doctors, as well as anger at a teenager not listening to the parents (UK). From a child’s perspective, a teenager was angry at a parent for leaving her behind and then for bringing her over to the UK, and finally felt anger towards a parent for having a new family in migration.

“I am angry because she [mother] left me alone in Lithuania, and also that she brought me over. I’m also angry at her boyfriend, not because he lives with us, but because our relationship with him is cold. (…). She [mother] is cross with me because she finks that I purposely ignore or avoid him, and I am angry because she forces us to become closer” [Vesta, teenager].

Sadness was another big subcategory under negative feelings category. Both adults and children felt sad because of their separation. Adults felt sad for leaving
their families behind and children felt sad after hearing news of parent’s leaving, with inherent separation imminent.

“On the weekends I miss my mum. I miss my home, my farm. I would like to live and work here, but I wish I could go and see her every weekend” [crying] [Milda].

Tadas explained how his mummy was feeling while working in the UK: “She is sad without us...but she’s got a good job. She has lots of jobs. She’s successful, just very sad” [Tadas, left behind child].

Interim findings showed that sadness was mainly caused by family separation, but it also included dearly missing Lithuanian friends and a desire to go back.

“My old friends are my real friends I’m longing for the most” [long pause, looks very upset] [Asta, teenager].

**Fear and anxiety** was the “smallest” subcategory under negative feelings category. It was related to life in the UK and life in Lithuania (LT). In Lithuania it was more about financial insecurities and not being able to provide for the family: “So many people took mortgages, because banks were very generously giving them. (…). What if they lose their jobs? What if it was a different situation? I’m sure, that they would be packing their stuff to migrate to the UK. And I’m sure, that they would go for any work they could get here” [Rasa].

In the UK it was more about relationships, e.g. a fear of what the future holds, what happens when children leave home? “She’s [mother] afraid that when I leave house she will be alone” [Vesta, teenager].
4.1.1.5.2. EMOTIONS

Figure 21 shows that **negative Emotions** outnumber **positive Emotions**. The dominant emotions (unconscious thoughts that affects the whole system and get deeper and stronger on the individuals thus affecting them the most) are the following: **distress, worries, frustration, confusion** and **insecurities**.

4.1.1.5.2.1. NEGATIVE EMOTIONS

**Distress** was the second biggest subcategory under **negative emotions**. It mainly reflected people’s emotions at the beginning of their migration, including the transition stage. Both sides, parents and children, felt distressed at being separated, even if it was a joined decision. While being left alone, children especially were feeling distress. It did not disappear even after reunion with one
of the parents in migration. According to the data analysis, most children in migration were longing for their left behind family or friends.

**Worry** was another leading negative emotion. It was mainly associated with financial pressure in Lithuania and worries about children’s and, in some cases, the parents’ future. The emotion of worry was experienced in both countries by adults either worrying for their left behind children or for their children going out in the UK.

“If it’s 9 or 9.30 and they are not at home – then I start calling and asking when they are back. But X [daughter] is much older now…but I am still worrying, because it’s a foreign country. And if she decides to stay at her friends for the night then I need to call her at least 10 times to check if everything is alright” [Ruta].

Parents in the UK were also worrying about their children left on their own while they were at work: “What if they join a gang and will be hurt by someone?” [Elvyra].

**Frustration** was mostly about experiences in the UK, such as doing a low skilled job in UK while being a high qualified professional in Lithuania. It was also about being treated as a second class citizen while working at the factory. Frustrations was also about not knowing English and not being able to communicate and explain themselves at the beginning of their migration. It was also about being frustrated of the past illegal status, when one could not see a GP (which in turn lead to irreversible health issues).

“I blame the time when I was in England illegally and I couldn’t go and see any doctor. Because of that…I can’t have children now. I wish I had a chance to go back to Lithuania on time and do all the needed tests” [Milda].

Interim findings showed that children felt frustrated for being left behind and from not knowing how to cope with this separation. In most cases, frustration led to conflicts both at school and at home. In some cases, the frustration at being
separated was closely related to sadness and anger that in one case even led to suicidal thoughts (see quote on page 216).

Confusion was a thread that was seen in the stories of two respondents. Rasa was confused because she did not know how to tell her son (who was left behind) about her gay partner in the UK. That led to complicated communication delaying their reunification. Her daughter was also confused because she did not know how to treat the whole “new gay family” situation. Although Rasa’s daughter felt “uplifted for being trusted with a secret” she found it hard to keep a secret from her left behind family (daddy, brother and grandparents). She was also confused about the whole situation and indecisive as to whether she was happy with mum and her new partner in the UK, or wanted to go back to her father and brother in Lithuania.

Another respondent, Elvyra, described her personal situation as “confusing and complicated”, both with her partner and her daughter. However, she was in the same situation in Lithuania, being in a relationship with a married person.

Although the confusion subcategory only related to two family situations, I decided to keep it under negative emotions as both families had the same characteristics, i.e. tense and complicated family relationships in Lithuania that led to even more complicated and confusing relationships in the UK. These two examples supported an emerging theory that if family relationships were unstable back home, migration would only deepen that gap.

Insecurities was the smallest subcategory within negative emotions. It was mainly about life in Lithuania: financial insecurities, employment and general insecurities about the future. Most respondents felt insecure speaking English at the beginning of their settlement in the UK, which naturally caused adaptation problems.
“I knew the language, so I didn’t really have any problems with it. But I was afraid to speak. Because of my different pronunciation, I thought that everyone would be laughing at me. So, I kept silent for a while and tried not to answer if asked for something” [Asta].

4.1.1.5.2.2. POSITIVE EMOTIONS

Excitement was referred to by only two respondents. One was excited by passing a driving test and enjoying the pleasure of driving. The other one was excited about having a same sex partnership, which would not be acceptable in Lithuania. Although it had only two references, excitement showed an impact on family relationships by boosting each person’s self-esteem immensely. For example, on the weekends, the new driving license holder takes her family to explore the country and see places: “spending more time and doing things together definitely brought us closer” [Sandra].

4.1.1.5.2.3. EXPRESSING EMOTIONS

Expressing emotions was a separate category under EMOTIONS because it showed respondents’ emotions that were either being expressed during or spoken about in their interviews.

For most of the time people described their separation as the hardest experience they had ever had. Both adults and children expressed crying as their main coping mechanism. Ruta talked about her two children she left behind in Lithuania:

[Started to cry]”I couldn’t forget about them [children] for a second” [crying][Ruta].

Her son, Tadas, found it difficult to answer the question about how he felt when he learned that mummy was going to leave to the UK.

“It was sad” [Tadas, child] [Very long pause, the boy is very thoughtful, visible tears apparent in his eyes].
Ruta’s teenage daughter explained how she felt when their mother left them behind. “I was crying a lot when she left for the first time. I was crying all the time. I couldn’t imagine living without her, living with a stepfather” [Migle, left behind teenager].

Another left behind teenager felt the same. “I would cry almost every day, because I missed her [mother] very very much. I never wanted to go to the UK myself… I wanted my mom to come back” [Vesta, left behind teenager].

Another child in migration expressed her feeling about separation with her father in Lithuania. “If mum is happy, then I’m happy too! [crying]. I just miss daddy a lot...To be nearby” [Goda, child].

To the question if she would like to go back to Lithuania, she answered:

Goda: Hmm [Looks at her mother]

**Mother:** “Tell what’s on your heart – don’t look at me!”.

Goda: I don’t know [crying].

**Mother:** “Be honest; don’t pay attention that I’m here”.

Goda: [crying] [long silence].

After her mother left to go to another room, girl answered the question quietly:

Goda: Yeah! [crying].

In order to check and verify my interim findings on Expressing emotions category, I ran a Word Frequency Query (WFQ). The WFQ results confirmed my interim findings about expressing emotions: Both adults and children expressed crying as their main coping mechanism and they described their
“separation as the hardest experience they had ever had” (see Appendix 23 for Expressing Emotions WFQ).

4.1.1.5.3. SELF-ESTEEM

Another big category under Mental and Physical state was Self- esteem. This category was divided into low and increased self- esteem subcategories.

Low self-esteem was the smaller one of two. It mainly reflected people’s stories/experiences from their life in Lithuania: abuse at home, difficult childhood. Low self-esteem was mentioned as a mark of the past (childhood, marriage in Lithuania) and nobody mentioned it as a present occurrence.

Increased self-esteem was more prevalent. Interim findings showed that people’s self-esteem increased after they managed to find a job in the UK and succeeded in it with appreciation from the colleagues. It also increased upon starting something new, such as learning to drive or fly, or learning English and succeeding academically. All of this was associated with life in the UK.

4.1.1.5.4. DETERMINATION

Initially, the determination category was a subcategory of Self-esteem. However, taking into consideration its complexity, I decided to single it out and make it a separate category under Mental and Physical State.

Furthermore, I could not put determination in either Feelings or Emotions categories since data analysis indicated that, together with motivation, responsibility and trust, determination was one of the main driving forces in people’s migration experiences.

Determination was one of the dominant themes/aspects in almost all of the themes. It was often expressed as a determination to survive in Lithuania or to make it work in the UK. Data analysis showed that people were determined to
sustain their family (LT), sacrificing living without a family in order to do better in the future for the whole family.

“I’d live apart for couple of years. You set your mind that way – if you know that’s going to be hard for about half a year – so, then it’s easier to cope. It’s like having a goal, and knowing that you’ll suffer for a while but it will pay off eventually” [Jonas].

Ruta echoed Jonas’ experience and determination to succeed no matter what: “I was really suffering because of that [leaving family behind], but always felt that I needed to find a job and make it work for my children’s sake” [Ruta].

People were also determined to study and learn English in order to do better in the UK. Milda told her daughter that, “mummy wants a better job and to be more independent and I will go to the college. So, I would work from 6 in the morning. After work, I would change, have a snack and go on a bike to college. I didn’t want all my life work in a factory. Yeah...I had to start with English” [Milda].

Other manifestations of determination included: to succeed in life; to be independent from men [also one of the reasons to migrate]; to get family over; to learn how the system works in the UK and to benefit from it; to survive in the UK: “knowing that there is no way back”; to help family in Lithuania; to be happy/to strive for happiness: “You have to strive to be happy and then God will help you too” [Sandra].

It order to check the significance of determination category, I ran WFQ (see Appendix 24). The determination category also had the greatest count of references, unlike depression that had scant few. This confirmed the notion of determination as one of the main themes that goes throughout the whole migration process.
4.1.1.5.5. EMOTIONAL PAIN

**Emotional Pain** is another big category under the **Mental and Physical state** theme. People described it as **suffering** or via the Lithuanian word **skausmas** – pain. It is to describe both physical and emotional pain and is mainly about the pain of separation and loss.

My interim findings showed that **missing parents** and **separation** (missing children) were the most prominent causes of emotional pain. These overtook all other emotional disturbances, such as being bullied at school in the UK, having a cruel childhood and/or having tense relationships with parents and siblings back in Lithuania.

**Emotional pain** was especially acute during illegal times when people were not able to go back to Lithuania whenever they wanted.

“*I left her [daughter] with my mum. And I didn’t see her for two and a half years. Those were illegal times. I couldn’t see her. I was dreaming of her. When I left her – she was nine years old. Hmm…*” [Looking sad, thinking] [Milda].

They had to choose between working extremely hard in order to help their families and not seeing them for a while for that reason, or staying at home and suffering the hardship and lack of opportunities in the future. The decision to give in to their pain of separation and going back meant a failure and the defeat of their initial decision and aim to migrate.

“*My first job was at the factory. It was a disaster, a total brain numbing exercise. Nothing creative, just robotic packing. I thought I would go crazy if I carry on like this...At home I was crying non-stop*” [Rasa].

According to my data analysis, **emotional pain** or “**bleeding heart**” has different “shades”. One shade was of feeling pain and **guilt** for leaving children with an
irresponsible partner or a family member who is not trusted enough to provide for the children left behind.

“My heart is bleeding. It’s bleeding, because he is staying with such father, who doesn’t care or look after him” [Rasa].

In such cases, the responsibility and motivation was even higher to work hard in the UK in order to make the separation experience worth it.

Emotional pain is another driving force in making a decision to migrate. In some cases it was a push effect of an alcoholic, violent or unfaithful partner from whom the respondent wanted to break so she could start a new life in a new country (personal reasons).

In other cases, people experienced emotional pain at being unable to provide a good quality of life for their families in Lithuania. This encouraged them to migrate and look for better opportunities abroad (financial reasons).

Those were the two main reasons for people to migrate from Lithuania. The paradox is that people who hoped to escape from their emotional pain by migrating discovered they experienced emotional pain again by being separated from their loved ones.

Emotional pain is also about unresolved issues with family members, some from as far back as their childhood. Interim findings showed that these issues followed people during their migration. Emotional pain became even more acute due to the lack of a support network and a “friendly shoulder to cry on”.

From the children’s perspective, emotional pain was a daily companion. Left behind children experienced the emotional pain of missing closeness with their parents or failing to get along with their cares. In migration- they suffered from missing family members and friends that were left behind.
Emotional pain was also closely connected to the responsibility theme, because most of youngsters, after migration, felt responsible for their family left behind (especially their grandparents), and became deeply motivated to stay in touch with them, visited or support them financially.

“And now, when grandma’s husband is dead – she gets about 700 litas [less than £200]. And she has to survive on that money. It’s quite difficult...It’s painful for me to hear if anything goes wrong with her” [Vesta, teenager].

Vesta also felt emotional pain, since she lost several family members who were left behind and she was not able to go to their funerals:

“I lost almost all my relatives. (...) I couldn’t go to their funerals (...). We only went to grandma’s funerals three years ago. And just recently my cousin, my young cousin died(...). Once again I wasn’t able to go to the funerals. It is painful to know that your family is almost gone. I’ve got only one grandma left – that’s all” [Vesta, teenager].

4.1.1.5.6. DEPRESSION

Data analysis showed that depression occurred both in Lithuania and the UK. In Lithuania, depression was more about not seeing perspectives and being down by the hopelessness of their financial situation, as well as finding it hard to cope while being left behind. (See quotes on pages 197, 200-202, 225-226).

In the UK, it was caused by crushed dreams about a brighter future in migration.

“I got older, tired, became blunt, have ruined my health...have lost my big dreams and goals, feeling of being impermanent and having depressive moods. Not all planted trees take roots” [Elvyra].

Other respondents got depressed because they were not able to form a new support (friendship) network in the UK, thus painfully missing their family and friends in Lithuania.
Although people described their migration experiences as “depressive”, I felt that *depression* was a medical term for a serious mental condition and it had to be diagnosed by a specialist. After further data analysis, I moved it to *Psychosocial effect* theme under *negative feelings and emotions* category.

### 4.1.1.6. WORK

The **WORK** theme is divided into **Work in the UK** and **Work in Lithuania** categories.

The data analysis showed that **Work** (LT, UK) played a huge role in people’s decision to migrate. No work, or very little pay in Lithuania, and an inability to provide for the family caused tension in family’s relationships. Work also played a main role in people’s decision to settle down in the UK. Having a job and being appreciated for one’s work raised people’s self-esteem and enabled them to improve their families’ lives financially.
4.1.1.6.1. WORK IN THE UK

The “Work in the UK” cluster is divided into: Work arrangements, UK job market, New experiences and Motivation to succeed.

Motivation to succeed is the biggest subcategory in this cluster. My data analysis showed that people were highly motivated to succeed in the UK. Some people had high professional ambitions whereas others just wanted to have a steady job and be able to support their families.

“I’ll try to pursue something higher. I had a career in Lithuanian, which took me eight years to achieve. Here, I think I’ll need four to five years to move one step further. But I’ll get there” [Rasa].

Work arrangements include: Hard work, Work during illegal times, Part-time work. Everyone agreed that they greatly benefited from part-time arrangements and work at hotels and factories. However, the former was always a challenge to people. As much as people were happy to get a job, they did not find it easy due to a lack of language or discriminatory management/attitudes towards foreigners.

Ruta reflected on her work experience at a hotel: “It was very very hard at the beginning- I’d fall on those beds and cry my heart out. I was asking myself what was I doing there and If it was better for me to return back home? It was too much to take ...Those blankets were so heavy! They would point at every detail. You have to leave it sparkling within half an hour. But I managed somehow” [Ruta].

Rasa’s experience at the factory was equally challenging. “Since I didn’t know the language, I couldn’t look for anything that would meet my qualifications. So, my first job was at a factory. It was a disaster, a total brain numbing exercise. Nothing creative, just robotic packing. I thought I’d go crazy if I carry on like this any longer. While at home I was crying non-stop” [Rasa].
Milda also wanted to leave work at the factory because, in her words, “there was no respect to us” [Milda].

Data analysis showed that at the beginning of their settlement, people were seeking any job. When discussing why Lithuanians with higher education applied for low paid jobs, Rasa explained,

“During the Soviet times, many people didn’t learn English. [because of the “iron curtain” nobody could leave the country, so there was no need to learn any foreign language but Russian] Therefore, when they come here they do the dirtiest jobs because they don’t speak the language. If they knew the language – the majority of them would do totally different jobs” [Rasa].

The New experiences subcategory is about improved communication/language skills and increased financial security due to a new job. One improvement was a regular and reliable salary, which was not always the case in Lithuania.

A teenager explained that because of her financial security, she would not like to go back to Lithuania, despite missing her left behind friends.

“I don’t think I’m going back to Lithuania. I don’t see my future there. Mum says that dad is working very hard and is not being paid for that. Those things would never happen here [UK]” [Asta, teenager].

4.1.1.6.2. WORK IN LITHUANIA

Work in Lithuania category includes negative work experiences, such as overload of work, very hard work with little pay and no appreciation for one’s skills and knowledge.

“It wasn’t good for me in Lithuania. I would work the whole month, and salary wasn’t enough to pay my bills, I always had to borrow money at the end of the month. And now,
here I am able to go to the shops and buy something and there’s even something left to save!” [Ona].

Rasa had a well-paid job in Lithuania. However, her skills and knowledge were not appreciated enough there.

“I deeply regret that my professional potential hasn’t been used fully in Lithuania” [Rasa].

Unlike work in the UK, people did not blame employers for devaluing their work. Rather, they blamed the whole system. For many of them, it was a reason to migrate and find a country where their professional skills would be appreciated and financially rewarded. The country of their choice (and dreams) was chosen as the UK. It was interesting to see that, even if people complained about their work conditions and the way they were treated in the UK, they only blamed that particular employer. Overall, they maintained trust in the UK job market and its system.

4.1.1.7. COMMUNICATION

Interim findings revealed the exceptional importance of the Communication category. It either went through most of the themes, or had a great impact on the family relationships. Communication closely interweaves with the other most frequently emerged categories such as: trust, responsibility, motivation, and determination.

Data analysis showed that communication with family has two dimensions: 1. Means of communication (in order to stay in touch) and 2. Quality of communication.

1. People tend to stay in regular touch with their families left behind. For this, they use telephone, Skype, regular mail (grandchildren to grandparents) and regular visits (after Lithuania became a member of EU).
People agreed that regular communication helped them to cope through the transition period. Maria explained that communication was very important during all stages of migration. She found it quite natural to communicate daily with her old mother in Lithuania through Skype. She thought that new technologies helped “to maintain relationships and enable easier communication” (which plays a big part in their relationship).

2. For some respondents, distance and time had an impact on the relationships and communication quality. Teenagers found it difficult to communicate with their step-fathers in migration. Sometimes, it involved lack of language, sometimes different culture, sometimes ignorance and disrespect, or no wish to communicate at all. Teenager Vesta explained her communication with her step-father in the UK.

“We don’t like each other; we haven’t spoken for 5 years. We only speak while argue” [Vesta, teenager].

Data analysis revealed that some people experienced that their own parents and siblings left behind in Lithuania would only talk to them if they sent money regularly.

My data analysis showed that communication played a major role in managing the situation and sustaining relationships in migration.

“If I’m at school – mum would always call me during a break to see how I was doing. If she worked in the evening, she’d call me home and we’d have a chat. She’d ask what we were doing. In general we are communicating constantly” [Migle, left behind teenager].

Children communicated more intensely with some family members and their friends in Lithuania after migrating.
“I write e-mails to dad and call him on special occasions. [Silence] Sometimes I send him a normal letter or he sends me. Sometimes I go and visit him” [Ruta, child].

Data analysis showed that intensive communication in migration was associated with an improvement in relationships due to the time families spend together.

“I think that relationship even improved, because we spend more time together, solving problems, making food, travelling. It wasn’t bad in Lithuania either, but over there we worked very hard in order to survive therefore we had very little free time” [Jurga].

However, data analysis also revealed that communication between children and parents who had new families in migration was different/complicated/tense. Results showed that a lack of communication, miscommunication, and tense communication led to tense and complicated relationships between children and parents/step-parents. Migle explained how she communicated with her step-father who was left behind to look after her, and her little brother, while their mother was working in the UK.

“Sometimes we don’t speak for about two days. He [step-father] talks to me through my brother – he asks about this and that. Tadas [brother] comes to me and gives dad’s message – then I pass my message to him” [Migle, left behind teenager].

Vesta’s communication with her step-father in the UK was also tense.

“I think that’s cultural. (…). He wants me to stay at home all the time. He doesn’t want me to leave the house. If I go somewhere – I have to be at home on time. He doesn’t want me to speak to anyone – would only do homework. He wants me to be totally isolated – to be just with myself. He doesn’t like me meeting friends in town or going to clubs.... so he calls me names every time... It’s difficult with him. Difficult communication” [Vesta, teenager].

Interim findings showed that communication in migration was also based on trust (or elements of it). Regular communication builds trust. It can also be
assumed that regular communication, and discussing obstacles and challenges together with a family leads to maintaining/improving family relationships, as well as helping people to sustain their families in migration.

“First of all, when I revealed my secret [being gay] to her [daughter] - it brought us much closer together. She feels responsible for the secret not to “leak” in any way. And it really raised her [daughter’s] self-esteem, because she was trusted” [Rasa].

Jonas’s take on the trust issue came from a different perspective. He got divorced because of his migration to the UK. However, the examples of his friends in migration showed that it was possible to live apart and maintain family relationships.

“So, it seems it’s possible to live like this [living apart] and sustain a family. (…). Percentage wise, probably most families wouldn’t be sustained in those circumstances, but there are a few who made it. (…). It probably depends on individuals. There must be trust between them [partners]” [Jonas].

**4.1.1.8. RELATIONSHIPS IN MIGRATION**

During my initial data analysis, it became clear that the Relationships theme would make more sense if it was separated into two separate themes: relationships in migration and family relationships in migration.

**Relationships in migration** consists of three categories, namely English vs Lithuanians, relationships at school and relationships with friends both in Lithuania and in the UK.

The interim findings showed that people who spoke English did not find a problem building new relationships with local people. Those who did not know the language well, and therefore could not communicate easily, tried to avoid English speaking people. Some tried to find their support network within the Lithuania community but as soon as they learned the language, they attempted
new friendships with English speaking people and broke ties with other Lithuanians in migration.

4.1.1.8.1. ENGLISH AND LITHUANIANS

Interim findings showed that Lithuanians were beaten in the UK for being foreigners and the police were ignorant regarding their cases.

Teenager Vesta explains her experience of being beaten at school in the UK:

“There was that girl...every Lithuanian who went to my school was beaten by that girl. (…). She just couldn’t stand Lithuanians...she couldn’t stand them. (…) So, usually, when we had to go home after school, we would make a big detour. We normally would be at home in about 10 min, but going around - it would take us an hour to get home. (…). So, at that time, I and my cousin were going to the shop. We had to cross park and (...) we saw that gang there...I didn’t want to go near them...I knew we’d be asking for trouble (...). I wanted to turn back, but she [cousin] wanted to carry on. And when we were going through...they surrounded us. (...) And one of them...the leader...pulled my hair and pushed me to the ground. (...). There were about 20 girls that surrounded me...and when you are on the ground you can’t do anything about it. (...). So, they kicked me into my tummy, side...tried to kick to my head. (...). I was all in tears, with pulled hair - in some places it felt as it was bald...Just because she hated Lithuanians. So mum called the police, made a statement and then she found out that the girl had already been expelled from 4 schools because she was beating children” [Vesta, teenager].

Vestas mother explained what happened when they reported the incident to the Police:

“Vesta told me that other Lithuanian girls have been bullied too and their mums wouldn’t do anything about it. So, next day, my blood was still boiling and I called 999. Then police woman contacted me, she came over and we had a conversation, but then… I went to the police station, there was an interpreter helping me there...They told me that there was a case and the court would take place shortly...I waited for about half a year – nothing
happened. So, with my partner we went back to the police station, and they told us, that everything has probably been resolved because they could not find her anywhere. (...) So, I haven’t heard from them since” [Milda].

Data analysis showed that some adult Lithuanians also experienced arrogance towards them from English people. Rasa talked about tense relationships with her English neighbours:

“We also have very bad neighbours. Very very bad! We really struggle with them. If any of our plant grows just a bit above the fence – they immediately start complaining that it’s blocking their view. (...) In short, it’s a conflict situation, because they constantly trying to find fault with us. (...) I wish we had a place, where we’d be able to say “HI!” to our neighbours” [Rasa].

However, Sandra recognized that people did not tolerate Russians in Lithuania either.

“If, for example, the English call us bloody immigrants, and treat us like rubbish because we take something away from them - I understand them very well, because I know what we felt when Russians came to Lithuania” [Sandra].

Sandra’s statement about different statuses confirmed findings that Lithuanians were aware of their “immigrant” status in the UK and did not complain about any mistreatment. They just carried on with their work and initial plans – “earn money and provide for the family” [Ona].

4.1.1.8.2. RELATIONSHIPS AT SCHOOL

Data analysis revealed that some young Lithuanians experienced a hard time at English schools. Some of them either felt unaccepted and were being bullied for being foreigners or could not find a common interest with the local pupils. One of the teenagers explained her relationship with her school friends as feeling “alone in a crowded room” [Goda, teenager].
Some Lithuanian pupils expressed how they despised their English classmates. Vesta explained: “All my friends are only Lithuanians...and ...I didn’t communicate much with English girls, they looked very childish to me. It was easier to communicate with Lithuanians. They were very childish, so childish that I couldn’t stand them – made me sick” [Vesta, teenager].

However, after moving to another town in the UK, she preferred to have English friends instead, since she felt betrayed by the Lithuanian pupils who did not need her help at school, “soon as they learned the language” [Vesta, teenager].

“I didn’t want Lithuanians at school. I wanted to make different friends, because all Lithuanians I’ve known so far – they used to betray me” [Vesta, teenager].

She further explained her case, starting with the statement that, when she arrived to the UK, she did not have any friends.

“It was only my mum and her friend. There was only one Lithuanian in a college. (…). At the beginning he helped me to know the school’ surroundings, where to go, but he didn’t speak good Lithuanian, because he moved to England when he was 6 years old. (…). Then...there was another Lithuanian at school, but she was much older. So, we were only three Lithuanians in our school, but soon after - Lithuanians kept coming and coming, and coming. In one year – there were 60 of Lithuanian pupils at school” [Vesta, teenager].

To the question of whether she became friends with any of them, Vesta answered,

”I became their translator. I showed them the school, because it was a very complicated building. (…). So, I showed them around, introduced to other pupils, teachers. So, when they learned everything – they didn’t need me anymore ...and we were not friends anymore. When new Lithuanians arrived– I taught them the same, they learned everything, found friends and then did not need me anymore” [Vesta, teenager].
Vesta’s case illustrated how important it was to have stable relationships with friends. Teenagers suffered if relationships did not last long and they felt “betrayed”, as expressed by Vesta when talking about Lithuanians in her East Anglia school. Whenever the new pupils arrived, they would become friends immediately because they needed her. However, as soon as they learnt about the school and the language, they would not be friends anymore. In that respect, Vesta felt she was being used and not needed. It came as no surprise that, when Vesta moved to another big town in the East Midlands, she did not want any Lithuanian friends. This could be seen as a defence or coping mechanism to avoid being hurt again. Similarly, it could show her desire to form stable, long lasting friendships with English pupils.

4.1.1.8.3. RELATIONSHIP WITH FRIENDS

4.1.1.8.3.1. RELATIONSHIPS WITH OLD FRIENDS IN LITHUANIA

Unlike older migrants, young Lithuanian migrants found their relationship with their friends back in Lithuania becoming distant, despite communication through new technologies. Their parents, however, found their friends back in Lithuania a great source of support no matter the distance and time. Their friends were the ones who helped to look after the migrant’s families left behind, either children or older parents. Some of the Lithuanian migrants in the UK even tried to get their friends to move to the UK by helping them to find a job or a place to stay. However, interim findings showed that ties with Lithuanian left behind friends got weaker as the years went by.

Goda explained how her relationship with her left behind friends in Lithuania became distant over the time.

“During first year after moving here -there was no communication whatsoever - because we didn’t have internet. I received and also wrote a few letters. Later, when we got a computer, the communication became very intense. But I would go back to Lithuania very
seldom. Eventually, I realized that our relationship has grown cold – I live my way, they live theirs. I felt that our paths began to separate and I started to avoid them. We’ve been communicating less and less now” [Goda, teenager].

Another teenager, Vesta, who was asked how she communicated with her left behind friends, answered,

“We communicate through ONE [Lithuanian chat program], because my friend doesn’t have a computer and the internet at home. So we correspond through ONE when she comes to her friend’s house. When I lived in X [town in East Anglia] – we would correspond by snail mail and would send pictures to each other. I had a good friend in Lithuania, but then she left for Ireland...and then...she changed a lot...she wouldn’t write to me” [Looks upset] [Vesta, teenager].

4.1.1.8.3.2. RELATIONSHIPS WITH NEW LITHUANIAN FRIENDS IN MIGRATION

Interim findings showed that some Lithuanian migrants, especially the young generation, did not try to form new friendships with other Lithuanians in the UK, but if they did - these did not last long.

“I got involved with Lithuanian Youth alliance, but I didn’t like it, so slowly I distanced myself from them. I used to have a Lithuanian girlfriend, she was two years my junior, we met through friends in England. She used to be my best friend, we would meet every weekend, but when new Lithuanian friends appeared - our paths have separated” [Goda, teenager].

Others, found it difficult to build new relationships with Lithuanians in the UK. Sandra explained that her teenage son had difficulties due to his lack of the English language and the difference in cultural backgrounds. He tried to find Lithuanian friends in the UK, but Sandra was not happy with some of their troublesome past.
“He [Sandra’s teenage son] had a few acquaintances, but very quickly he realized they were not his type of people. They were Lithuanians. X is a Lithuanian and he wants to hang out with the same ones. We are different from the English; we have a different way of thinking. We have to accept this fact. And the friends he found were definitely not the best people here. To say the truth, most of the Lithuanians in the UK are not the best people”. Maybe the situation is different in the USA but people who came here [UK] must have a bad history” [Sandra].

This could also explain fractures in the Lithuanian community in the UK. People were divided according to their initial location in Lithuania (e.g. big cities, towns, regions and even parts of the town), and the schools/universities they went to. Therefore they were not necessarily looking for new friends outside their inner circles despite being united by the overall migration process.

Asta came to the UK from a big city in Lithuania. She explained why she could not build new friendships with other Lithuanian teenagers in the UK.

“I met a few Lithuanian teenagers here, but they are not my real friends. Most of them came from villages in Lithuania, they like to drink, get into trouble and so on. We hardly have anything in common. I came from ...[Z]. (...). People are known for their arrogance there, but all my friends were very easy going and normal teenagers. So, I expect my friends to be the same as the ones I had in Lithuania. They were really exceptional friends and now I don’t have them...At the beginning I was ok, but now I realized how much I miss them” [Asta, teenager].

4.1.1.9. FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS

The Family relationships section is a compilation of data analysis that consists of family relationships before, during (Transition stage) and after migration. Interim findings indicated that relationships were very important and my findings showed that, where relationships between parents were good in
Lithuania, they remained good and even improved in the UK. However, a minority of people also seemed to be migrating to get away from troublesome or abusive relationships.

4.1.1.9.1. RELATIONSHIPS BEFORE MIGRATION

In order to find out how relationships were transformed, if at all, by the migration process, I had to learn what kind of relationships people had prior to their decision to migrate. To provide a fuller, more complete picture of the phenomenon, people’s relationships before migration were looked at from the perspectives of both children and adults.

However, the data appeared to have a much wider spectrum and was much richer when covering adult relationships. These included relationships with parents, siblings, children and a partner. By contrast, children mainly discussed their relationships with their parents.

Initial data analysis showed that most of the respondents had a close relationship with their families before migrating to the UK. Interim findings indicated a strong relation between family relationships before and after migrating to the
UK. Data analysis revealed that if families were close in Lithuania, it was more likely they would remain so, or grow even closer after migration. There were two cases when teenage girls (Vesta and Goda) felt their relationships lessened. Both previously had good relationships with their mothers. However, after finally rejoining them in the UK, each found her relationship became strained due to their mothers’ new partner.

Interim findings showed that family relationships were one of the reasons for people to migrate. They either escaped from abusive parents or an alcoholic partner in order to start a new life. For the same reason, people often left their partners hoping to build a better life with a new partner in migration. It was also clearly seen that the families with close relationships took the decision to migrate together. Those people either moved to the UK together or they were reunited soon after one of the parents/partners settled down in the UK.

In comparing relationships with siblings before and after migration, there was a visible improvement in their relationships after migration. Relationships between adult Lithuanian migrants in the UK and their siblings in Lithuania became closer, despite a long sibling rivalry and tension over many years.

“My brother is older than me…our relationship was not the best then. Just only now realized how close we are. I can’t explain…it feels as if we are one” [Saulius].

However, there was only one case when a distant adult sibling relationship in Lithuania became even more so following the respondent’s move to the UK.

“A brother has been a stranger for a long time now” [Elvyra].

Some adult relationships with their parents in Lithuania were also complicated. In most cases, elderly parents disapproved of the respondents’ decisions to migrate and take the grandchildren abroad. However, after it happened, the
resistance disappeared and the adult children became “closer than ever” to their parents in Lithuania [Elvyra].

**Children** described their **relationship with their parents before migration** as being very close. During migration, there was an even distribution of “closer than in Lithuania” or “more distant”, often due to the parent’s new family.

Vesta described her relationship with her mother as very close in Lithuania.

“We were very close with mum. I wouldn’t leave her hand. I would also sit on her laps all the time. (…). I was a mummy’s child”.

However, after re-joining her mother in the UK, Vesta found their relationship changed.

“We used to be very close, but not anymore. (…). Maybe because I’ve grown up, got my own opinion about everything and (…) maybe because we don’t see each other so often, or maybe because of her man, her husband” [Vesta, teenager].

Data analysis revealed that **abuse** was a part of some **family relationships**. It was also one of the reasons people wanted to leave Lithuanian and start a new life in migration. It depicted experiences of people as being physically and emotionally abused by their violent and controlling partners or parents.

“The family situation was the main reason to emigrate. With every single day and every single year my husband was getting deeper and deeper into alcohol…I was doing everything just to survive somehow. (…). It was very very hard. (…) I’ve been thinking all the time that I have to escape somewhere. (…). I was dreaming of leaving and it didn’t matter where to. For me, the most important was to leave X and to start a new life somewhere where I could live as a normal human being” [Sandra].

“If you look at my life sorry since childhood…it was really cruel. Father was beating me more than caressing. I experiences lots of violence.(…). When I look back and start
analysing my life, I think, that I got married so young, because I wanted to escape from my father. (…). He was beating me till I was 14 or 15 years old. The first boyfriend, I had a relationship with, became my husband. We had only been dating for 3 months when we decided to get married (…) I was 18 - when we hand in an application to get married, and 19 - when we actually got married. Our son was born when I was 20” [Rasa].

“I moved to England, because he [partner] was very jealous. (…) I won’t forget it, when one time I bought a lipstick…a very expensive one (…). He found it in my handbag and threw it into a wall – it broke into pieces…He said, “Next time you’ll go and buy your lipstick with me. I don’t know what a f…er bought it for you! (…). I wanted to run away from that situation (…) to become independent from men. That no one would push me” [Milda].

4.1.1.9.2. RELATIONSHIPS DURING THE TRANSITION STAGE

Interim findings showed that during the transition stage, people’s relationships intensified. There was an uncertain/indefinite time of reunion, which brought tension to family relationships. Children felt abandoned and angry for being left behind and partners often became suspicious about partners in migration and their real intentions. Mistrust, jealousy and anger were leading emotions during this period.

Vesta was angry at her mother for both, leaving her in Lithuanian for an indefinite time, and also for eventually bringing her over and “forcing to like mum’s new partner” (see quote on page 237).

Ruta also explained her relationship with her left behind husband as tense.

“It all started when I started working at the hotel [UK]. There were arguments at home. I used to dash home to be at the computer on time in order to avoid any unnecessary reproaching and arguments. I had to be on SKYPE at certain times and not a minute later…If I got stuck in a shop on the way home I had to think for an excuse how to
“explain it all, because he’d think that I found a boyfriend and had an affair, and so on” [Ruta].

Even Ruta’s left behind children were aware of her husband’s jealousy and the impact her departure had on their relationship:

“My dad was going ‘bananas’ without mum here. Every time she had to leave to see her friends - he would start reproaching her: now you are going out with someone else! He’s very jealous...He loves mum very very much” [Migle, left behind teenager].

Data analysis showed that trust played a key role in sustaining family relationships, especially during the transition period.

“My cousin, for example. Our house is divided in two parts: one is ours – another one is my cousin’s family. They [cousin’s family] don’t live together. It’s been like this for about seven years now. She’s raising three children and he’s working in Germany, and comes to see them about three times a year. They are in a very good relationship. (…) I asked him if he had anyone there because we are open with each other. He, said” No”. So, it seems it’s possible to live like this and sustain a family. (…) There must be trust between them [partners]” [Jonas].

4.1.1.9.3. RELATIONSHIPS AFTER MIGRATION

Data analysis revealed that relationships after migration were more profound than before. They had greater depth and complexity and included such issues/categories as: new family in migration, parent – child relationships, relationships with a partner, difficult relationships and abuse. Once again, relationships in migration were looked at from the perspective of an adult and a child.
Initial findings showed that for most of the respondents, their relationships improved since migrating to the UK, especially the ones who moved together or soon after one of their family members moved to the UK. The shared challenges of migration and having more time together brought families closer and strengthened their relationships.

“Challenges only brought us closer” [Saulius].

Ruta’s husband was very jealous when she moved to the UK but, as soon as he re-joined her, their relationship improved.

“Everything became more peaceful. No jealousy. He saw how things are working here” [Ruta].

Ruta’s case contradicted the emerging theory that if a family was close in Lithuania, they would grow even closer in migration. Ruta’s case showed that her relationship with her husband was extremely “rocky” in Lithuania. They constantly argued about expenses and financial matters, and the word “divorce” was often mentioned by both. However, once Ruta left for the UK, her husband
joined her very soon after. The effort of her husband to sustain their family resulted in a more harmonious relationship after migration. Both worked hard in the UK and felt closer to each other like never before. Allegedly, the word “divorce” was not mentioned anymore.

On the other hand, the ones who left their families behind for quite a long time found this had a negative impact on their relationships. Previously close relationships between mother and daughter became strained and distant after the family’s reunification in the UK.

“It’s quite difficult to deal with Goda [daughter]… after all I missed couple years of her life. (…). It has definitely had an impact on her character and habits” [Elvyra].

According to the data analysis, young people had a very close relationship with their grandmothers. Most young people said that relationships with their grandmothers were the closest relationships they had and they found it very hard to live apart from them.

“I am very very close to my grandma, dad’s mother. (…). I am very close to my grandma because I do appreciate that she helped mom to give birth to me. (…) Later she taught me things and we would do things together. We were very close. I loved her very much. Very very much, indeed! She was the closest person from my dad’s side” [Vesta, teenager].

4.1.1.9.3.1. NEW FAMILY IN MIGRATION

Data analysis showed that new family in migration caused strain in family relationships. While teenagers openly confronted their parent and partner, the younger children tried to hide it and secretly missed their parent left behind (as quoted on page 243).

Relationships between new family’s members were complicated and varied. The step-daughter and step-father relationship was tense. Wives’ and
husbands’ inter-relations varied from scorn, anger and jealousy between spouses in Lithuania to becoming getting even closer in migration. Some responded, “challenges brought us closer” [Saulius] and “finding shelter in each other” [Milda].

Data also revealed that some Lithuanians lived in artificial/pretend families by having a partner or a family in the UK while at the same time keeping the relationship and real family in Lithuania (Elvyra’s case).

Jonas met a few girlfriends on a Lithuanian website in the UK.

“With one of them I still remain friends. (...) She is married. (...) Her husband lives in Lithuania, she lives here. They are not divorced. She goes to Lithuanian from now and then. So, it’s a very interesting relationship” [Jonas].

4.1.1.9.3.2. PARENT - CHILD RELATIONSHIP

Initial data analysis revealed that most adults had a good relationship with their old parents and found it difficult to leave them behind. Rasa had great difficulty in taking her daughter abroad because her parents refused to part with their only granddaughter. But after a while, the grandparents accepted the situation and “forgave “their daughter for taking granddaughter to the UK.

“I think I’ve got closer to my mom since I emigrated. We correspond a lot. They also correspond with my daughter. I was already writing letters to them before emigrating, but my father refused to read them. He told me, if I left -I wouldn’t be his daughter anymore. (...) The granddaughter is really everything to them. So, I wrote him a letter. A very long letter, where I poured my heart out. So then, he understood. He hugged me, and we both cried” [Rasa].

Relationship with father. Not all the adult respondents mentioned their relationship with their father but of the ones who did, these did not speak well of them. Either their fathers were controlling and abusive in childhood or still
controlling in their adult life. Rasa opened up about her relationship with her father.

“My father was always very violent with us [Rasa and her sister]. He always explained, that he did that for our own good. But to be honest – he was a real tyrant! Later, he tried to control our marriages. I told him a couple of time: “I don’t control your life, so don’t try to control ours!”” [Rasa].

Data analysis showed that children, on the other hand, missed their left behind fathers and wished to stay in constant touch with them.

“I miss my dad and a sister there [Lithuania]. So, for me, it’s the most difficult thing to cope” [Asta, teenager].

Relationship with mother. Data analysis revealed that almost all adults had a close relationship with their mothers in Lithuania. Teenagers had relationships with their mothers that fell apart after they moved to the UK mainly because of the mother’s new partner. Young people had varied relationships with their mothers. Some respondents found that their relationship improved, since being in the UK gave them more time to spend together.

“When we lived in Lithuania we hardly had any time to communicate properly, because either she [mother] was abroad, or was too busy. I think, that here we communicate much more. We tell each other everything. We became best friends” [Asta, teenager].

On the other hand, others found their relationships falling apart due to their mother’s new partner. Vesta explained why her relationship with her mother became strained. “One of the reasons my relationship with mum got worse – was because of him [mother’s partner]. Because of him I’m not staying at home, I don’t want to go home. I get up, I eat, I leave for school...I go to bed just not to see him him. If I see him – I don’t speak to him ...I go upstairs and I go to bed” [Vesta, teenager].
**Relationships with children.** Interim findings showed that most respondents had very close relationships with their children. They were very caring, loving and protective towards their children. In most cases after migration, these relationships improved because parents (working part-time) had more time to spend with their children. However, most parents in migration found a decline in the **parent-child relationship.** This commonly occurred when children reached adolescence. Parents also found it difficult to mend the broken relationships if they left their children behind for a long time (in Elvyra’s case it was more than two years).

“*It has definitely made an impact on our relationships*” [Elvyra].

Data analysis revealed that greater emotional maturity was one of the contributing factors for the families to get on well after the difficult years of adolescents, no matter what country they lived in. Young people were becoming less dependent on their parents and more focused on their own lives, filled with friends, studies and entertainment. Meanwhile, parents were adapting to the idea of their children growing up and getting ready to leave the nest.

**4.1.1.9.3.3. RELATIONSHIP WITH PARTNER**

Interim findings showed that some of the Lithuanians living with partners in the UK had complicated relationships. Just to mention a few cases: an abusive Middle Eastern husband; uncertainty in a 10-year partnership with a Lithuanian man who was still married and supported his own family in Lithuania; an ongoing secret relationship with a Lithuanian lesbian partner.

**Other respondents enjoyed fulfilling relationships** with their partner, who was a new foreign partner, helping them learn the language, or a husband who had never been to the UK before, but joined his wife because he did not want to live without her. Similarly, they could both be professional partners who felt that the challenges of adaptation made their relationship even stronger.
4.1.1.9.3.4. DIFFICULT RELATIONSHIPS

Interim findings showed that abuse was present in some family relationships in the UK - new family in migration. Data analysis also revealed a tendency for the person who was abused by a partner in Lithuania to have a relationship with another abusive partner in the UK. Milda’s case illustrates this.

“Yeah. It must be down to psychology (...) my first husband, my daughters father, liked to drink (...) then I also didn’t want to live with my second partner because I didn’t want that life...(...). And now, I am afraid, if I get divorced from my current husband I may meet someone else like him. I found it easier to communicate and to have a relationship with such people because I know them...I would struggle with the ones of a higher level...It is hard to fight your nature - to go against your will” [Milda].

Her daughter revealed why Milda wanted to leave her current husband whom she met and married in migration. “Whoever she chooses – is bad! Her second husband respected me, but he didn’t respect my mum, while this one doesn’t respect either of us. She carried on by revealing details of their difficult relationship and communication: “He would break dishes, he would hit me couple of times and since then I don’t speak to him at all. Only fight and fight all the time” [looks tearful].

Vesta was deeply concerned about her mother’s relationship and wished that she would divorce her current husband: “I really want my mum to get divorced from him. (...). He uses her ...he uses her for being an EU citizen. (...). It’s hard to see her living her life being beaten and having constant arguments. I want my mom to have a better life” [Vesta, teenager].
4.1.1.9.4. RESPONSIBILITY

(The obligation/duty to carry forward an assigned task to a successful conclusion).

Data analysis showed that a sense of responsibility played a big role in family relationships. Adult respondents felt that it was very important to financially support their families left behind and provide for their children’s future through hard work and sacrifice.

“*My mum was taking care of us, now it’s my turn to look after my daughter*” [Milda].

Milda also argued that it was important to take responsibility for “*one’s action and decisions. You always have to be responsible no matter the age or gender. That is the most important*” [Milda].

Some children, however, felt that they had a responsibility to help their parents to sort their own lives out in migration (Vesta’s case).
During the process of data coding and analysis, it became apparent that the FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS theme was not only too complex on its own and could not be studied in isolation, but that it was a core category/theme that encompassed all other main themes such as: Migration, Communication, Relationships in migration, Work, Choices and Decisions, Life in the UK and Life in Lithuania, Managing the situation and, Mental and Physical state (later renamed to Psychosocial effects). Family relationships was at the very core of all those themes.

All the main themes helped to understand the phenomenon better. For example, how having no job in the UK affected family relationships. Data analysis showed that people had to make the difficult decision to leave their families behind in the hope of finding a job and helping their families financially. But when it did not happen soon enough, this tension started rising between family
members (Ruta’s case). By looking at family relationships through time (before and after), it also became clear how migration was different before the decision to migrate to the UK. Some people had growing tensions because of the financial hardship and, by migrating to the UK, they hoped to resolve both financial and personal relationships.

**Relationships at work** were also closely connected to family relationships. In the case of Milda, who was humiliated for being a foreigner while working at the factory, lowering her self-esteem, and affecting her psychological state, she was constantly crying and feeling helpless. These were the emotions she constantly felt, forcing her to admit that she had made the wrong decision by migrating to the UK. Milda left everything in Lithuania to build a new life in the UK and, when it did not happen straight away, she felt her world “was falling apart”. However, her story had a positive ending due to her coping skills, strong will and determination. Milda learned the language, took additional professional courses and became a retail assistant in a high street retail shop. This increased her self-esteem immensely and she eventually remarried in the UK, subsequently bringing her daughter over. These were just a few examples of how all the main themes were inter-connected and closely related to family relationships.

4.1.3. CORE CATEGORY II - TRANSITION STAGE

It became apparent that the **Transition stage**, the period when people lived apart before their reunion, was vital for family relationships. Data analysis showed that during the transition stage, help and support was needed the most. It is the stage where people go through insecurities, uncertainties and the acute pain of separation. The transition stage was where people were at their most vulnerable and intervention was needed the most. The outcomes of this research could be a great tool to help Lithuanian migrants sustain and maintain their family relationships in migration by assessing their needs during the transition stage and by providing sufficient help and support in order to make
their migration experience less stressful, less challenging. This would reduce the negative impact on their family relationships.

In order to find out what were those needs as well the sufficient help and support for Lithuanian migrants in the UK, I focused on deepening and exploring the significance of the Transition stage in people’s relationships. My aim was to establish the challenges, strains, and obstacles and to ascertain what kind of support would be needed for the families to sustain both their families and their relationships during that vital period. The transition stage became a primary focus and a core theme for my further investigation in Phase II.

4.2. PREPARATION FOR PHASE II

The second stage of data collection was conducted with two focus groups and with the aim of verifying interim findings through member validation. I also wanted to explore the Transition stage theme and learn about the respondents’ needs and support requirements. I focused on the following questions: 1) What kind of choices and decisions had an impact on people’s coping strategies? 2) How did these affect their family relationships? 3) Who/what helped them to make informed decisions? I hoped that, while talking about the transition stage, people would reveal coping strategies and how they managed the migration process prior, during and following migration. Data analysis showed that self-help, relying on oneself and caring for yourself, as well as controlling the situation through time management, setting priorities, learning about how UK system works and/or staying in touch with friends and family in Lithuania and UK, were the most common ways to manage the migration process/situation. From the focus group results, I hoped to learn more about the individual’s inner resources which were mentioned, but not explored, during the interviews.

Another aim was to learn about the priority of people’s support networks in both groups – those left behind and those leaving behind. What was their
support network? It was my aim to learn about both sequential and priority-wise order of people’s support network in both groups – those being left behind and leaving behind. For example, did they rank their support network as to 1. Family, 2. Others, 3. Friends in the UK/Lithuania.

Additionally, I was very interested in exploring who were the “others” - were they social services, governmental institutions or NGOs? I hoped that the answers to those questions would provide me with enough information to understand the most significant players and their respective roles in helping people to cope during the migration process, particularly during the Transition stage (see Appendices 15-16 for FG schedules),

4.3. PHASE II FINDINGS

4.3.1. I STAGE OF FOCUS GROUP. VALIDATION OF INTERIM FINDINGS

The focus group (FG) sessions consisted of two parts: member check and further exploration of the Transition stage and support systems. After presenting the interim findings (see Appendix 25), all participants (9) in both focus groups (FG) and 3 in remote discussion (RD) and including one follow up interview (FUI), reiterated the interim findings and agreed that the findings reflected the reality they knew of or went through.

While looking at the main themes depicted in Figure 26, participants agreed that all ten themes reflected their migration experiences.
While looking at the biggest category, MIGRATION, participants agreed that it was correctly divided into the following themes (as they emerged during initial data analysis): Reasons to migrate; Benefits of migration; Challenges of migration; Consequences of migration; Transition stage and Wishes/Expectations.

While commenting on each separately, participants agreed that the biggest challenges on migration were: adaptation, finding a job, language and missing family. Sandra explained that all those challenges were equally hard for her: “They all were equally challenging for me” [Sandra, East Anglia (EA) FG].

While discussing consequences of migration, participants agreed that they had both positive and negative experiences. However, the positive migration experiences surpassed the negative ones. Laima explained that migration could be a positive experience provided family, “took responsibility for their decision, accepted all gains and losses, took the risk, had realistic expectations and had self-trust” [Laima, The East Midlands (TEM) FG].
Interim findings revealed that the two main **reasons** for people **to migrate** were either financial or personal (complicated relationships) or both. After the initial analysis, there was an indication that an added reason for people to migrate was to search for **self-fulfilment/realization**. Participants in the East Midlands (both FG and RD) thought that **self-realization/fulfilment** was part of their reasons to migrate.

“The main reason is self-fulfilment. Not financial not complicated family situation” [Maria, TEM FG].

They also came to the decision that the reason it was not mentioned previously was because people “simply do not use that word, especially less educated or using more simple language” [Maria, TEM FG].

Some East Anglia FG respondents also added self-fulfilment as one of their reasons to migrate:

“Yes, there was something missing in Lithuania. I agree …regarding **self-fulfilment as a reason to migrate**” [Aiva, EA FG].

While discussing reasons to migrate, respondents agreed with an emerging theory that if the reason to emigrate was **complicated family relationships**, such as conflict with partners and escaping the situation by migrating, it would deepen the gap and worsen the situation. This usually led to a complete break up. Participants in East Anglia reiterated those findings.

Sandra: “If the bond is strong - family will stay together no matter what, but if not - then not. (…). There are lots who get divorced...the ones I see around. Lots... There was a serious woman...her husband joined her after a few months in England… and then very soon they got divorced. It is most likely that they were not close in Lithuania”.

Aiva, Meta: “yeah yeah”[in agreement].
MANAGING THE SITUATION was another big category, which all participants agreed played a dominant role in maintaining family relationships and was an important part of their migration experiences. In Maria’s [TEM FG] opinion, it was “one of the most important factors to keep ones sanity and family relationships in control”. In her case, there was no help or support in migration when they moved to the UK. Her family had to rely on each other, which fortified them as “one unit” and made them “stronger to face the challenges” [Maria, TEM FG].

Participants of Phase II agreed that seeking communication was essential to managing the situation:

“There was no internet, so I used to write tonnes of letters [to her daughter]. (…) While my mum was alive I was calling her every week. Then on the weekends I would find some time to call my daughter” [Milda, FUI].

Participants also agreed that there was more support currently available than when they migrated to the UK. Their initial help and support came from their family and friends who were already in the UK:

“When I arrived there was no help at all...But there was family and friends here already” [Milda, FUI].

Now, many respondents think that there is “more than enough support, people just need to find their way to get the information” [TEM and EA FGS]; “there are lots of websites” [Milda, FUI]. FG participants discussed the official and un-official support systems and their thoughts and suggestions for improvement, which are expounded in greater detail later in this chapter.

Respondents agreed that CHOICES AND DECISIONS play an important role in family relationships. According to Maria, the decision to migrate, as well as
other important decisions in the family, “should be joint decisions and approved by all the parties, otherwise – there will be a strife in the relationships” [Maria, TEM FG].

All participants of Phase II agreed with the interim findings reflecting both LIFE IN LITHUANIA and LIFE IN THE UK themes.

Participants agreed that the NHS experience in the UK was both positive and negative. Respondents explained their reasons, including how some might have bad experiences of the NHS due to a lack of language, or others might not be used to being asked personal questions. Most of the participants emphasised the benefits of the NHS offering fair and free services to them.

“First of all it is free. We don’t bring any bribes here unlike we do in Lithuania” [Sandra, EA FG].

All Phase II respondents reiterated the interim findings on priorities in the UK. Laima summarized it:

“Succeed, take roots, find a job, family comes over, then extended family rejoins them. Diaspora expands and expands. That’s the principal...of course, at the beginning it is about reasonably rational simple things: where to live, where to work, what to do with children, and then later it is about communication, relationships and other things” [Laima, TEM FG].

Discussion on the priorities in the UK did not undermine the importance of relationships or the strain of migration. Rather, it emphasized the priorities of settling down first, then finding a place to live, a job to pay the bills, and then making arrangements for the family while still apart. Only then could migrants “work on sustaining relationships” [Maria, TEM FG]. These priorities appeared to be acceptable to all respondents.

Phase II respondents agreed with the impact migration had on people’s MENTAL AND PHYSICAL STATE. Maria described it as, “leaving and the whole
migration process, affects your whole well-being: it is both physical and mental. Sometimes you can describe what is happening to you: loneliness, anxiety, sadness...physical sickness of not being able to cope well. Other times – you just feel an acute pain of longings of desperation, of situation in general” [Maria, TEM FG].

Some people agreed that suffering from emotional pain was an inevitable part of the migration process and, if foreseen, could be managed better. Laima was very touched by the results on emotional pain, so much so that she found it difficult to clearly express her thoughts:

“That part of the research [emotional pain] is very important… straight to the point (…). I think that is very important explain to people to accept their pain as inevitable part of the progress” [Laima, TEM FG].

Laima further explained that if people were told about the challenges and the pain it would bring to their lives, it was also equally important to tell them that it would not last forever – “that could be a helping hand and support to them” [Laima, TEM FG].

While discussing self-esteem findings as a part of the Mental and Physical state theme, respondents emphasized their increased self-esteem after migrating to the UK. People blamed the oppressive history in Lithuania for people’s low self-esteem. They all emphasised that their self-esteem shot up after migrating to the UK. They felt valued, cared for and appreciated for their skills and knowledge. Just by knowing that there was a system of Justice, increased their sense of self-esteem. Similarly, their ability to finally provide for their families and increased professional self-realization strengthened their self-esteem.

While discussing interim findings of the WORK theme, participants clearly saw the relationship between one’s professional achievements (or just having a job) with one’s family relationships: “If he doesn’t have a job – he cannot fulfil himself, he is not happy, or even if he’s got a job, but not happy with it- it all affects relationships”
[Raimonda, EA FG]. When asked who could help them during that difficult time, the respondents answered: “Talk to the family about the stress and challenges you are going through” [Laima, TEM FG]. Once again, the recurring theme of the importance of communication between family members was emphasized.

All Phase II respondents agreed with the interim findings that the quality as well as the frequency of COMMUNICATION was very important during all stages of migration. People found it quite natural to use SKYPE to communicate daily with their families and friends left behind. Respondents thought that “new technologies help to maintain relationships and enable easier communication”[which plays a big part in maintaining family relationships] [Maria, TEM FG].

The respondents of Phase II agreed with the interim findings on RELATIONSHIPS IN MIGRATION and FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS.

Laima thought that the interim results on relationships “reflects the situation very well: parents and children separation dilemma and tragedy” [Laima, TEM FG].

Both groups supported the emerging theory that if a family had good relationships back in Lithuania, all the challenges of migration would not break that bond. On the contrary, it would bring them even closer: “all those challenges bring people closer” [Laima, TEM FG].

While discussing difficult relationships, respondents also agreed with the findings that people who experienced abuse in Lithuania ended up finding and settling with another abusive partner in the UK. They referred to this either as their own example or from someone they knew who had experienced it.

Respondents agreed that the core of all findings was the migration effect on family relationships. They all expressed the same opinion that “whatever happens to the individual – it affects or reflects on their family relationships” [Maria, TEM FG].
4.3.2. II PART OF FOCUS GROUP FINDINGS

What are the main issues that affect family relationships the most during the transition stage? Who can help (officially or unofficially), and what can be done to facilitate Lithuanian migrant’s ability to manage their situation, better cope and sustain their family relationships? All these questions were discussed in the second part of FG.

Firstly, participants were asked to reflect on the findings on the Transition stage and identify the main issues that affected families the most during that period. During the first stage of data analysis, it became apparent that families were the most vulnerable during the transition stage and that the pain of separation, the challenges of adaptation in a new country, the language, and long hours of work all put great strain on family relationships.

The findings of both FG discussions showed that issues affecting family relationships the most during the transition stage were (from the positive perspective) - thorough preparation and self-fulfilment or realisation. The factors that had a negative effect of families were: strains of adaptation in a new culture, social uncertainty and insecurity and, the fear of failing. Maria and Jurga described the issue of adaptation in a new culture:

“Difficult to figure out law and culture of different country” [Maria, TEM FG]

“It was hard to integrate into community due to lack of English” [Jurga, TEM FG, RD].

In order to make it easier, people suggested learning English as well as getting acquainted with the UK system before migrating to the UK. People emphasised the importance of thorough preparation before moving to another country.

The participants also identified the importance of self-fulfilment or self-realization with regard to family relationships during the process:
“If you can’t realize your potential [professionally]– you are unhappy, and if you are unhappy – your closest ones will suffer too” [Laima, TEM FG].

Saulius added, “social insecurity and uncertainty regarding the future, and fear of failing - may also have an impact” [Saulius, TEM FG].

4.3.2.1. SUPPORT SYSTEMS DURING THE TRANSITION STAGE

After the main issues about what affected family relationships the most during the transition had been identified, the FG participants were asked to discuss what could be done to make the transition stage easier to manage. They were also asked how Lithuanian families could be assisted during that period. FG discussion concluded with an “Advice Bureau” exercise, where participants answered the question, “Looking back at your experience, what would you advise other Lithuanian families who are planning to come to the UK?”

While discussing support systems, people identified the order in which they required help, namely 1. Family, 2. Friends and 3. Other (official support and unofficial support).

According to the findings, the biggest support category was family. This was defined as being either the family members in the UK, providing accommodation, helping to find a job and/or assisting with the UK social system, or family in Lithuania who were looking after left behind family members.

“As for unofficial help – my biggest support was my sister. My sister found me everything. I lived with her, she took care of me, paid for my trip. If not her – I wouldn’t be here. Our mother was looking after our daughters” [Milda, FUI].

The second biggest support category, according to the findings, was friends and acquaintances. They played a vital part in people’s adaptation process, especially at the very beginning of their settlement in the UK.
“When we came here - Barbora’s family was already here, so a “cushion” was already given to us. So, Barbora and her husband’s family and all that network, friends we met through them. (…). I think, that we were very lucky and that helped us to survive adaptation easier. We also became integrated quite easily because we got caught into that network” [Laima, TEM FG].

The other services seemed to be playing a lesser supporting role for Lithuanian migrants. These included mainly official services, such as library, job centre, social services, housing association, Lithuanian embassy and Lithuanian community centre. The East Anglia FG discussed how people were sceptical about receiving official support. According to them, the British government “spends/wastes too much money on helping foreigners to adapt in this country”. In their opinion, “if you made a conscious decision to migrate, so feel responsible for your decision and build your life yourself without relying or expecting too much help...If you jumped into a river – you have to swim”.

Supporting their views was the closure of a centralized support centre in East Anglia. It was shut because of a lowering demand for its services in the city.

“It used to be New Link in East Anglia— but now it is shut. Funding is over. People knew about that centre but there were not as many people as the centre expected” [Aiva, EA FG].

The East Anglia FG group emphasized the unofficial support as being the most effective. According to them, social services failed in East Anglia because few people used them, preferring instead to rely on their friends or acquaintances. Migrants arrived to an already established community, where others helped them with accommodation and job. This removed the need to approach social services:
Aiva: *When people are offered an official help – they refused to accept it and say that they will manage on their own, for example, my friends will help or I will pay £10 and it will be translated.*

Meta: *Yeah, so the main support here goes through the acquaintances.*

The East Midlands FG had a different opinion with regards to official support. Initially, there were very few Lithuanians in the East Midlands, which meant the participants felt that they would have benefitted from official assistance with their adaptation and settlement processes. Although the East Midlands had one of the oldest Lithuanian community centres in the UK, it has been seen by the participants as an informal meeting place rather than an official information centre. Participants of the East Midlands group agreed that there was a lack of communication among social institutions and that more could be done regarding the availability of information for new migrants.

### 4.3.2.2. SOLUTIONS ON HOW TO HELP LITHUANIANS DURING MIGRATION PROCESS

After discussing support systems, the participants came up with a list of possible /hypothetical solutions involving official and unofficial support so Lithuanian families could better manage their situation during the migration process. Please see an example of Official Support table, produced by participants of Phase II, in Appendix 26.

In regards to **official support**, participants suggested the cooperation of Lithuanian embassy, Lithuanian community centre, local councils and job centres would greatly assist new migrants. This could create a centralised information bank, where people could find information on existing social services, psychological support, and induction courses. They also suggested a feedback system to learn about Lithuanian families’ needs. Migrants could fill in an “imminent needs” form for the services, giving valuable, direct
information/request of what they need the most. Participants suggested that such feedback forms could be distributed through the Lithuanian embassy, job centres, libraries, local councils and housing associations.

Participants also expressed their concern about increasing danger if the new migrants do not get sufficient help. A consequence could be that people feel isolated and vulnerable.

“In short, so those services (...) when people just arrive (...) should welcome them. They should do something about inclusivity, because it is the most important issue. It is very important for the person not to hide in some kind of social vacuum. Person needs to know that if he/she faces any problems– help is available. He or she should not stay on his/her own, locked somewhere in his own room and waiting for a mental break down” [Maria, TEM FG].

Participants suggested that help could be available from Job centres, Home Office and embassies. Below is a short extract of the East Midlands group’s discussion on the possible agencies’ collaboration.

Barbora: If person comes without a job (...) he goes to the job centre. There he could get more information where to go, telephone numbers, contacts...where to go and what to do in case he needs any help...for him to know – that if he’s not doing well- there is help available (...) or a Home Office. When person comes - he has to register in order to get an insurance number or something, so maybe.

Maria: You know, I have just thought that those services should collaborate with each other. Do they do that?

Barbora: I don’t think there’s one data base, that’s the most difficult.

Participants also suggested that Lithuanian community centres could work together with local councils by providing English courses because in their opinion, the lack of language is the main obstacle to succeeding in migration.
“You can have 10 diplomas, but if you don’t know any English – you will not succeed here” [Meta, EA FG].

Maybe Lithuanian community together with local council could help Lithuanians improve their English?” [Saulius, TEM FG].

If official help solutions were more hypothetical, the discussion on unofficial help and support was based on participants’ own personal experiences through a “think tank” exercise. Participants created an “advice bank” for the new Lithuanian migrants to have an easier transition in the UK.

Initially, participants (both FGs) discussed the range of unofficial help and support. They spoke of the need to spread the information to the prospective migrants so they would not have to leave their children behind.

“If you decided to migrate - move with the whole all family and don’t look back” [Milda, EA FG].

“Make a conscious decision, think things through and if decided to migrate – migrate with the whole family. Don’t leave children behind in any case/on any account!” [Barbora, TEM FG].

Milda also encouraged people not to leave their spouses behind. “Don’t leave your family behind: wife or husband. (…). I would always say – go together, because you don’t know what’s going to happen…the best is to migrate together. Plan far ahead for the whole family to migrate all together” [Milda, FUI].

However, some people suggested settling first and only then getting all the family together.

“We would suggest first make sure that you will have a job after arriving and only then migrate with the whole family” [Jurga, RD].

“It is easier first to come alone and later to get all family over” [Rokas, RD].
“Family should re-join when there is a proper accommodation for all of them” [Vejas, EA FG].

All participants agreed that sometimes it was not possible to migrate with the whole family. In those cases, they advised leaving them with close friends or family to be well looked after.

“It depends who is available there. It could be just anyone, even friends. Most importantly that they would be looked after: fed, would have a place to live. It is not necessarily should be a family, friends could do it as well...mum, dad, grandparents, neighbours could look after them too. (...) But I would advise to take family with you. It is not a good idea to leave them behind” [Milda, FUI].

Participants also suggested the migrants needed to anticipate difficulties and be prepared for these.

“Be prepared to embrace difficulties and challenges” [Jurga, RD].

“Don’t have illusions that we are very welcome here and don’t feel that this country owes you something” [Jurga, RD].

Audrius warned about inevitable challenges in migration: “be ready to embrace huge changes, cultural shock, difficulties of integration at the very beginning of settling”. However, he also assured the prospective new migrants that, if they made a conscious decision and got prepared to embrace those challenges, they would be greatly rewarded for their effort. “If you made a conscious decision – move on without looking back; for your great efforts will be rewarded with great opportunities” [Audrius, TEM FG].

Participants also advised the new migrants not to have any illusions.

“Don’t see UK as a dream land” [Raimonda, EA FG].
“Money don’t grow on trees here...you have to work very very hard to achieve something” [Meta, EA FG].

In order to make life/transition easier in the UK, Milda advised:

- “Find and make some good friends!”

- “Save some money for a “rainy day” – bills, fines...just not to get to a minus balance”.

- “Most importantly – have a dream and follow it!”

- “Be happy! Enjoy the ride!” [Milda, FUI]

### 4.3.3. SUMMARY AND REFLECTION ON PHASE II FINDINGS

Phase II data was collected through a combination of a pilot interview, two focus group discussions, three remote discussions and a follow up interview. Final data analysis confirmed the findings of Phase I and enriched and deepened the knowledge of the support needed to help Lithuanian migrants cope and manage better during the transition stage.

The biggest contribution came from two different focus groups - The East Midlands and East Anglia. The outcome of those focus groups confirmed Phase I findings on the respondents’ coping mechanisms and intense feelings during the transition stage. It also provided me with more focused information on how the transition stage affected family relationships. But most importantly, it revealed what kind of help and support was needed in order to help Lithuanian migrants sustain their families and support them throughout their migration process.

Both FGs agreed that prospective migrants should not have unrealistic expectations about an easy life in the UK. “Money don’t grow on trees here...you have to work very very hard to achieve something” [Meta, EA FG]. They agreed that
Lithuanian families should be informed about this reality and all the challenges they might face in migration. Although both groups were in agreement and supported the interim findings, the discussion on social support after migration was divided in opinions. Both groups showed different aspirations, motives and needs in migration. It seemed that people in the East Midlands eagerly sought their professional achievements, “self-fulfilment” and integration into British society. By contrast, the people in East Anglia wanted to have their basics needs met, have a steady job and “move from council house to their own” [Raimonda, EA FG].

Final data analysis suggests that first and foremost, language, or the lack of it was what separated the two focus groups and explained people’s aspirations (or lack of) and the different needs for support. Data analysis showed that East Anglia respondents did not know English well at the beginning of their settlement in the UK and turned to friends or acquaintances for support. All the East Midlands participants came to the UK with a good command of English that enabled them to seek information and communicate with social services. Coincidentally, the East Midlands was not so widely populated by Lithuanians, so, although imminent help was provided by friends, long term help was primarily sought from the official support systems.

I did not anticipate such division in the samples. However, my findings showed that both groups, East Anglia and the East Midlands, had to overcome the same significant experiences and challenges, namely adaptation in a new country, culture, system and pain of separation and strains on family relationships during the transition stage. Their respective views on the role of the Lithuanian community were noticeably different.

During my research it became obvious that unofficial help played the biggest role in individuals/families transition and adaptation to a new country.
During the second part of the discussion about the transition stage of migration and support systems during that stage, people emphasized notions of **responsibility, self-esteem, self-realization** and **self-determination**.

People in East Anglia did not think that the **transition stage** had a significant impact on their relationships. However, they agreed that the transition stage was the most difficult period to cope, but coming to an already established community as well as having the support of Lithuanian friends and family in the UK all made them cope much easier. That confirmed my finding that informal help (friends and family) are the most important and effective **support system** during migration process.

Both groups supported the emerging theory that, if family had good relationships back in Lithuania, all challenges of migration would not break that bond. On the contrary, it would bring them even closer: “all those challenges bring people closer” [Laima, TEM FG].

Final analysis revealed that **accepting responsibility** for a decision to migrate (and **keeping a good attitude** about it) was core for survival during that period and lessens the pain and doubts. Final analysis also showed that **preparation** was the key notion in the migration process. This included learning about the UK culture, law and rights, as well as learning the English language, finding a job and place to live prior to migration before migrating, and arranging care for the left behind family. All of these forms of preparation **help to ease the whole migration process**. My findings revealed that the main coping mechanisms during the transition stage were keeping busy (working, studying) and keeping up ongoing communication with the left behind family members. My findings also brought to light the importance of a joint decision/a mutual goal of family members, which helped both sides (leaving and being left behind) to survive migration process easier. The findings from the Phase I data analysis allowed for a more in-depth focus, highlighting these specific issues in Phase II.
In the next chapter, I discuss research findings in the light of existing literature. I also introduce middle–range theories, the *agency/structure* debate, and look at my findings though the lens of *theory of social domains*. 
5. DISCUSSION

5.1. INTRODUCTION

In a previous chapter I discussed my research findings, which show that the transition stage, when families live apart, is the most painful for both parties (those leaving and those left behind). People experience emotional and psychological problems, and their relationships and wellbeing are/or can be affected by family separation. However, my data analysis revealed that all negative migration experience and its effect on family relationships could be managed with sufficient support systems, regular communication and thorough planning.

In this chapter, I compare my findings with past research and highlight my study’s contribution to the existing literature. Following this, I introduce the rationale of social theory, its need and use in social research, and the main players/theorists in shaping our understanding of reality. I look at how social theory views and explains my findings in relation to the wider literature on family and migration phenomenon. What is the bigger picture that the Lithuanian family portrays and taps into? Then I discuss my search for the middle-range theory and how/why I turned my attention to key sociological dualisms and their application on my findings.

I present social dualisms, and particularly the Agency/Structure debate, what significance it has in social research and its interpretation based on my findings. Finally, I explain the need for another, more complex explanation of social reality and how it lead me to discovering the theory of social domains which orientated a new look and interpretation of my findings.

The last part of my discussion chapter highlights my contribution to the empirical and methodological knowledge. I finish this chapter with suggestions for further
5.2. FINDINGS IN THE LIGHT OF EXISTING LITERATURE

My findings answer the initial research question, as to whether migration to the UK affects Lithuanian family relationships. They show that migration has no other greater effect than any other big and stressful life events, e.g. death, childbirth, job loss, illness, house move, “empty nest” syndrome, etc. - all those and other events are very stressful and painful. For example, looking at the recent “macro events” - Brexit (Britain’s exit from the European Union) - it is expected they would have an impact on Lithuanian migrants in the UK as well as their family relationships. All mainstream and social media is full of people’s stories and worries about what they should do, how uncertain they are about their future and whether they should stay in the UK or return to Lithuania.

The findings of my research show that both micro and macro events are closely interrelated in people’s experiences. Changes in the society (structure) affect human behaviour, people’s motivation to migrate and subsequently, their personal wellbeing and relationships. However, my findings show that an individual (agency) has a role to play and can be a “master of his/her destiny”. According to my findings, migration is a life event where, in order to succeed, people make conscious decisions and necessary arrangements to overcome future obstacles. Here, as with other life events, communication is a key factor. My findings suggest that if families discuss matters and look for solutions together, the negative impact of migration is avoided or diminished.

When I started my PhD Lithuanian newspapers were bombarding their readers with scary titles such as: “Consequences of emigration - demolished lives” (Uzkuraite, 2005 Vakaru Ekspresas, 3rd Oct.), “Migration demolishes families” (Eidukonis, 2011, Valstieciu laikrastis, 21st Dec.) and emphasizing the risks that
migration brought to the family. Most of them very openly discussed the inevitability of divorce and potentially high children’s suicidal rates. In her recent article, Pukiene (2016) introduces a Lithuanian detective who is spying on Lithuanian partners left behind. The detective boasts about the ever expanding “business” since more and more migrants feel suspicious about their partners’ fidelity while living apart and they hire him to investigate. In his words, the grounds for partners’ suspicions are very strong - there are more cases that prove their partner’s suspicions than the ones that prove them wrong.

My research findings show a different picture. Although admitting that the Transition stage when families live apart is very painful for both parties (leaving behind and being left behind), it does not provide the evidence that migration challenges lead to higher family divorce rates. On the contrary - my findings show that the challenges of migration bring most families closer together, (provided these families were already close in Lithuania to begin with). Constant communication, discussion and pre-empting challenges makes the family work as one unit towards a common goal and provides a better future for the entire family.

The transition stage is the most challenging period during the migration process. However, my findings show it can be managed with sufficient support systems, communication and thorough in-depth planning. Nevertheless, future longitudinal studies of the enduring effects on families are needed.

5.2.1. REASONS TO MIGRATE

My findings confirm the literature of Kuzmickaite, 2003; Martin and Zurcher, 2008; Poviliunas and Krupickaite, 2012; Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012, who state that reasons to migrate are either economic or noneconomic in response to the “pull” of demand and the “push” of supply. Both of these are influenced networks. Many Lithuanian migrants explain their reasons to migrate as an
ultimatum - they had no choice since their economic situation in Lithuania was untenable. Push factors for them were - the economic crisis, their financial situation and poor living conditions. Kuzmickaite (2003) adds to this that Lithuanians migrate because of personal reasons - dysfunctional families (violent, alcoholic husband) and professional growth and fulfilment (skills and knowledge are not appreciated at the work place).

My findings also confirm that having a well-established network in the UK – makes decision to migrate easier as well as equips Lithuanian migrants with the initial adaptation tools: introduction to the system, help with language, job and accommodation.

5.2.2. REASONS TO MIGRATE AS SEEN THROUGH THE LENS OF MIGRATION THEORIES

My findings support Castles et al (2014) who argue that the migration phenomenon is too complex to be explained by one migration theory. My findings also revealed that a number of theories explain different aspects of Lithuanian migration.

Looking at Lithuanian migration phenomenon through the theories that represent structure, such as push and pull; neoclassical and human capital; world’s systems, globalisation, segmented labour market and agency (network, transnational and diaspora, and migration systems approaches) – explanations emerge on how and why Lithuanians migrate.

My study reveals many reasons why people migrate to the UK. These are explained/analysed using a combination of theories: push and pull – economic factors, chain/network systems - etc. Kukonenko (2012) fairly argues that all theories explain the phenomenon from micro, meso and macro levels. Each of these will be considered in further discussion of my findings.
5.2.2.1. THEORIES EXPLAINING LITHUANIAN MIGRATION TO THE UK

My findings agree that structural constraints play a major role in people’s decisions to migrate. Economic push factors, such as lack of work opportunities (Castles et al., 2014) or low pay, and pull factors, such as better opportunities and life styles could be explained by the **push and pull** effect. However, my findings reveal a more complex causation. Lithuanians were not just simply pushed or pulled. Their decision to migrate was affected by the economic conditions, however, it was not always their main reason. Other structural theories (such as neoclassical and human capital theories) explain another side to Lithuanian migration to the UK.

**Neoclassical theory** (micro/macro level) states that people migrate on the basis of “a cost–benefit calculation” where contextual resources are evaluated, for example, low wage versus high wage, scant versus plenty of opportunities (Castles et al., 2014, p. 29). From a macro perspective, migration is viewed as a process–driven event, where people move from labour dense to labour scarce competitive zones. Eventually, capital is expected to move in the opposite direction, with wages increasing in the sending countries due to a demand for a diminished workforce. As a result migration would become less attractive (Castles et al., 2014). Cost-effective lessons can be learned by the Lithuanian government. Its great efforts to stop the never-ending exodus are wasted unless these efforts increase wages at home (*The Lithuania Tribune*, 2016, 27th July).

Currents plans are slowly increase the minimum wage. One strong critic of the government’s plans is a signatory of the Act of the Re-Establishment of the State of Lithuania and Member of the European Parliament - Eugenijus Gentvilas, who believes that this will not stop people emigrating (Gentvilas, *The Lithuania Tribune*, 2016, 27th July). What may keep them in Lithuania, according to Gentvilas, is an opportunity to earn much more than the minimum wage - as
much as Lithuanians would earn abroad. Additionally he proposes a reduction in income tax and the creation of industries that use highly qualified workers. Gentvilas speaks about the reduction in income tax and creating high qualified work places. Gentvilas’ warning was based on the people’s need for the opportunities to succeed and create quality living for their children (Gentvilas, 2016, *The Lithuania Tribune*, 27th July).

Neoclassical theory that promotes the distribution of the labour across low to high wage-earning roles compliments the idea that Lithuanians are affected by economic constraints at home and pulled/lured by opportunities abroad. Kukonenko (2012) states that both push - pull and neoclassical migration theories are most used in explaining Lithuanian migration trends and patterns.

My findings support Castles et al (2014) observations that structuralists’ theories do not help to fully explore the migration phenomena by ignoring the agent’s role in the process. Economic factors, better opportunities - is a great stimulus to migrate, however, agency (personal circumstances, strive for self-realisation; sexual- freedom) should be taken in consideration as well.

**Human capital theory** is an economic theory, which explains migration as an investment “lifetime benefits (...) are greater than the costs incurred through migrating” (Castles et al., 2014, p. 30) and this pulls potential migrants over the threshold of their decision-making doubts. My findings show that people decide to migrate, risk their family relationships, and embrace all the challenges in hope that the end result would benefit the entire family.

My findings were not looked at through other structuralists’ theories – such as World systems, Globalisation or Segmented Labour market theories – since those, also called historical – structural theories focus on large – scale recruitment of labour, and if for example, neoclassical theory focuses on voluntary migration – historical-structural theories focus on people having no choice but migrating
due to the economic structures being incorporated into a global –political system. My findings show that, although some people stated that they had no choice and were going through a true economic hardship, they were not “pushed” to leave their country in search of a better life. So, those theories gave me an insight into the world of migration trends, and helped me better understand the complexity of Lithuanian migration phenomena to the UK.

Other migration theories, such as - the new economics and household approaches do not echo my research findings. Both theories explain the decision to migrate is taken not by the individual, but by the family or the household. The main principle is that family elders decide who migrates. The decision reflects who can offer a better investment for the family to maximize its income in the future (e.g. either a young person is sent to study abroad, or the appropriate, best positioned family member is assisted with travelling costs and network to find a job abroad). Families essentially sponsor the migrant, investing in their own livelihood in the future, thus the relationship between family and a sponsored-migrant is very much based on interdependency (Fleischer, 2006).

Contrary to these approaches, my research findings highlight agents’ free will to migrate.

Main agency theories - network, transnational and diaspora, and migration systems approaches focus according to Castles et al (2014) on the ties, identities and networks that are created between sending and receiving countries through the flow of information and goods.

5.2.2.2. PRO AGENCY THEORIES - ROLE OF NETWORK IN DECISION TO MIGRATE

My research confirms the literature (Bartram et al., 2014) that the decision to migrate belongs to a household. It also supports literature such as Castles et al (2014) that the decision to migrate is both individual (family) on a micro-meso
level, as well as being inflicted by social constraints (financial, economical, unemployment situation) on a macro level. My findings also support literature that says network systems play a crucial role in people’s decisions to migrate. Established communities, “pioneer” migrants facilitate accommodation and all needed information for future settlement. My findings show that people decide to migrate to places in the UK where there is an established Lithuanian community, and where Lithuanian facilities (shops, churches, Lithuanian schools, cafes and jobs centres) are already available. Most migrants are provided with accommodation and assisted in their job searches by family members, friends or acquaintances who previously settled in the UK. These support networks performing valuable services such as introducing them to the UK social and health services, job market and in some cases help them to get a council house. As soon as family members settle down they can invite their nuclear and extended families to join them. Findings show that people coming to the UK follow a consistent formula, namely one comes, finds a job, settles, gets his/her family to come, then invites his/her friends; they find a job, settle in their own place, and get their own families over. According to Laima “it is how Diaspora grows” [Laima, EM] and this supports the literature – on networks and chain migration.

However, some authors (Bartram et al, 2014; Castles et al., 2014) emphasize that just being a part of social network is not enough for migration to occur. More important is a social capital (information on travel, accommodation, job, financial and psychological support after arrival), which combined with financial and human capitals, effects people’s aspiration and capabilities to migrate. Later I look at my findings through Layder’s theory of social domains, where the importance of social capital could be explained or looked at through the lens of one of four social domains – contextual resources.
In contrast to the importance of social capital, transnational and diaspora theories were not particularly relevant to my research. Despite my respondents reporting on having a double household (“here and there”) and keeping double lives going, my respondents felt their permanent home was the UK. My findings do not show that people migrated to a “Lithuanian town” as it used to be at the beginning of 20 century, for example, Chicago – was a mayor Lithuanian harbour (Kuzmickaite, 2003). Nowadays, in the UK, new Lithuanian migrants chose to go to East Anglia, for example, because, either family or friends were already living there. My research revealed the strength of Lithuanian ties and influences in migration, however it only partially revealed matters related to Lithuanian identity, culture and values in migration. Looking at Chicago, Philadelphia and Cleveland communities in the USA, the close bonds within the diaspora (speaking the same language, attending Lithuanian schools, having national celebrations) were essential to keep ones identity as Lithuanians living far away from their homeland (Kuzmickaite, 2003). By comparison to the USA, UK is geographically closer to Lithuania. In addition, new technologies such as Skype and real time social media, allow people to maintain their national identities (if they wish) without being part of an official Lithuanian community or a “club”. However, it would be interesting to see sociological research, investigating the importance of maintaining Lithuanian identity during cultural/European assimilation. This question has already been asked in Lithuanian media, for example, “Does migration affect Lithuanian identity?” (Jokubkaite, 2010, Londono zinios, 3rd Sept.).

5.2.2.3. CONCLUSION ON THE USE OF MIGRATION THEORIES

While explaining migration trends and patterns, Castles et al (2014) warn that there is no single theory that would explain the cause of migration. Different theories explain different aspects at different levels in the analysis of migration. My research findings show that the sociological underpinnings of Agency and
Structure could be used to explain Lithuanian trends in migration to the UK. People are affected by the economic changes in their country and therefore pushed out, as well as being pulled by opportunities for better lifestyles abroad. Lithuanians are affected by structure, and encouraged to migrate via shared success stories of those before them. The network theory (people migrate to established Lithuanian communities or networks of friends/family) may explain why Lithuanians move to places such as East Anglia and the East Midlands.

5.2.3. NEGATIVE CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION

My findings disagree with the statement of Rakauskiene and Ranceva (2012) that “the social capital of Lithuania, the family, is weakened. The concept of a family as a value and the sense of stability weakens” (Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012, p. 247). My findings do not prove this statement. On the contrary, they show that challenges and obstacles bring families closer together. Looking at the statement that family values are weaken – the authors do not provide the evidence for the strength of family values, while families were still in Lithuania. My question would be, “Does all separation weaken family values and bond such as, serving in the army, working long hours, studying abroad, and travelling to work regularly?” My findings show that communication is the key for family’s stability. It shows that if a family discusses the prospect of migration prior to the decision, if they agree with the decision together, and if they foresee the challenges and accept the consequences then working towards the common goal strengthens the family’s bond. Not surprisingly, my research findings did not provide any evidence for “family erosion” as Uzkuraite (2005) warned would be an inevitable consequence (Uzkuraite, 2005, Valaru Ekspresas, 3rd Oct.).

5.2.3.1. SEPARATION AND REUNIFICATION ISSUES

However, two of my case studies supported the literature (Mazzukato and Shans, 2008) that re-unification can be complicated, especially if a new family member was added to the parental household during separation process. This is because
a new family member in migration causes tension between all family members after re-unification. I show cases where teenage children joined their mothers who had new partners in the UK, which caused tension between family members. Children often did not approve of their mothers’ choices causing mothers to feel split between their love and loyalty to their UK partners and re-united children. However, despite being acute examples no overall conclusions can be drawn from two case studies, where a rebellious adolescent age may be the overlaying factor.

On looking at the literature on adolescents’ coping mechanisms during the transition stage, my findings partly support the tendency for child’s suicide as a result of parent’s migration (Hochlods, 2003; Chambers, 2012). However, it would be interesting to see if those acute emotions and tendencies are not related to overall turbulence of adolescence when young people are searching for their identity and every challenge seems amplified. Further research focused on migration and teenager coping mechanisms and emotional development may provide insightful conclusions on this topic. However this question was beyond the scope of my study.

5.2.3.1.1. DIVORCE

My findings contradict the studies of Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) and Vladicescu (2008) that show migration and living apart have a negative effect on a partnership, often leading to a divorce. I did not find any evidence in my data analysis that migration causes family break-up. My respondents either came to this country to build a new life as already divorced people, or came separately from their families and reunited later. What my findings show is that having an indefinite time of reunification brings tension and, in some cases, jealousy to family relationships. However, results also show that if people are open about their situation and if they communicate issues, challenges and
difficulties with their partners, those obstacles can be overcome and stability can be reached.

5.2.3.2. SEPARATION ISSUES; CHILD’S BEHAVIOUR

My findings only partly support the literature of Smith et al (2004) that serial migration can disrupt the child–parent relationship and affect the child’s self-esteem and behaviour.

As mentioned before, this was evident in two case studies involving teenage girls who were reunited with their remarried mothers in the UK after a long separation. My findings support Chambers (2012) who argues that the nature of relationships changes while living apart due to the use of ever evolving modern communication tools. These enable the creation of a new “globalized parent – child” relationship” (Chambers, 2012, p. 121). However to study separation and its effect on a child’s behaviour in depth longitudinal studies are needed. I only guess that the time of separation, the level of communication and the support network (for both parent and child) may have a dominant impact.

However, my findings agree with Leliugiene (2005) that the way children feel during separation depends on the amount of preparation and communication parents invest in discussing their decision (to migrate) with their children. Communication was once again proven to be the key factor in managing the familial situation.

5.2.3.3. ATTACHMENT THEORY IN MY RESEARCH

My findings do not provide enough evidence in regard to attachment theory that was explored by number of scholars (Van Ecke, 2005; Malinauskas, 2006; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007). Further studies need to be done in order to see the relation between migration and its effect on children’s intellectual and emotional development. I interviewed only two children in my research and,
although both agreed that separation from their parents was a painful experience, they did not show any sign of emotional disturbance. Neither child expressed the need to “replace” their attachment object (parent) with a new object such as another family member, teacher or a pet.

5.2.4. POSITIVE EFFECTS ON FAMILY

My findings also support the findings of Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) that state migration has an “overall positive effect on families’” financial living conditions. My findings show that migration to the UK has not only financial benefits (financial security, financial freedom, advantages of part-time jobs, welfare) but also psychological benefits such as improved relationships, life styles, personal achievements, freedom of sexuality and increased self-esteem.

Before starting my research and being bombarded by all the negative Lithuanian tabloids on negative consequences of migration, I was eager to discover the real situation. In my research aims I stated that, along with exploring family relationships during migration process, I would also look for the positive aspects of migration. Data analysis provided me with an abundance of it – from fulfilled dreams to improved relationships.

5.2.5. ADOLESCENTS IN MIGRATION. ADAPTATION CHALLENGES AND THEIR RELATIONSHIPS WITH PARENTS

Although my findings, support the literature of emotional effects on teenagers, such as feeling of emptiness, longing for their family and friends left behind, my findings do not show teenagers trying to “fill the gap” with other “filling substitutes” (Grinberg and Grinberg, 1984; Bulik, 1987; Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000; Senberg, 2000; Zilber et al., 2001). My data did not reveal drugs, food or alcohol as coping mechanisms either during “left behind” period, or after re-unification in the UK.
My findings support Grinkeviciute (2010) who argues that, in order to prepare children for the challenges of migration, parents need to prepare them in advance. My findings also support Grinkeviciute (2010), showing that communication is vital for a teenager’s well-being. All participants expressed the importance of communication with their parents especially during their “left behind” period. They also mentioned regular communication was their main coping strategy when dealing with longings for parents abroad or missing friends in Lithuania.

5.2.6. OLDER MIGRANTS AND LEFT BEHIND ELDERLY PARENTS; THEIR ADAPTATION AND HEALTH RELATED ISSUES

Several scholars (Slonim–Nevo et al., 1995; Slonim–Nevo et al., 1999; Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000; Segal and Mayadas, 2005), studied older migrants’ experiences and adaptation challenges in migration. My findings cannot tap into that knowledge since I did not have any respondents of that age. However, older parents, their health issues were one of the key worries that the “sandwiched generation” (generation of people who care for their aging parents while at the same time looking after their own children) experienced in migration. The Guardian (2013) published an article by Helena Drakakis “Carer-friendly policies needed to relieve pressure on the ‘sandwich generation’“. Drakakis (2013) argues, that “with people living longer and more women having children later in life while pursuing careers, those caring for both their children and their parents are feeling the strain” (Drakakis, 2013, The Guardian, 25th Oct.). Although, the issues The Guardian explored were about British “sandwich generation” – it is very much related to the Lithuanian community in the UK. According to Drakakis (2013) “For many, juggling these care-giving roles is putting both financial and personal strain on the family”. And it is predominantly women who are more likely to bear the brunt” (Drakakis, 2013, The Guardian, 25th Oct.). It is even more acute for Lithuanian migrants, since, in most cases their parents are left behind.
Respondents of my research explained that, after a family’s re-unification – their main worry and pain was their aging parents left behind. Respondents were worrying about who is going to look after them when they need round the clock care? They also were worrying about who would look after the graveyards of their family in Lithuania? Or, if their elderly parents agree to join their adult children in the UK – what experience would they have? How would it effect three generational family dynamic, how would they adapt? How would they accept a new country and culture? My own experience as a “sandwiched generation” migrant in the UK (looking after young children and caring for my mother, who was initially living on her own in Lithuania) – cannot be taken in consideration since GT does not allow scholars personal experience to affect the findings of the research. Therefore, I feel that it should be further research done in order see what challenges both sides are going through, what their coping mechanism are and is there any support available for both leaving behind adult children and left behind elderly parents.

Further studies could be done to explore extended family relationships with left behind elderly parent; challenges and the decisions migrants have to face when their parents get older or ill.

5.2.7. MIGRATION AND ADAPTATION: NEW ROLES AND ADJUSTMENT

My findings support the work of scholars (Papadopolous et al., 2004; Segal and Mayadas, 2005; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007) who repeat that migration has an effect on migrant’s psychological wellbeing, which in turn impacts family relationships. However, they did not indicate separation traumas such as those seen by Vanecke (2005). They agree that people suffer from isolation at the beginning of their settlement in the UK. However, none of my respondents reported or appeared of being on the “edge” of mental disturbance. This can be explained by three factors. The first, being a small sample size when compared
to Venecke’s (2005) results. Additionally, the close proximity of Lithuania to the UK and the ever developing communication means, such as use of Skype, Viber and WhatsApp, could enable migrants on both sides to maintain their relationships easily and conveniently through daily communication.

My findings partly support the findings by the refugees and migrants report “The Forum” (…), that states the main challenges new migrants face in London is isolation and loneliness. I found this appeared only at the beginning of the settlement in the UK. My findings show that Lithuanians in East Anglia and the East Midlands tend to come to an area where Lithuanian communities have already formed deep roots such that an established support network is available to help them with accommodation, job search and English language. Of my two study areas, East Anglia was the most established. At the time when my respondents arrived in the East Midlands there was no thriving Lithuanian community. Yet through the existing Lithuanian community centre people managed to find help and eventually adapt in a new country and culture.

The intensity of vulnerability and isolation can also be explained by the size of a location. Many people report how it is easier to feel lonely and isolated in a mega city such as London than a smaller, compact towns in East Anglia or the East Midlands.

Similarly, my findings did not detect any of the difference in child-rearing practices and ideologies, suggested by Strier and Roer-Strier (2005) nor those of Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) who report that parents do not have sufficient intellectual or social resources to support their children in a multicultural environment. My interviewed children expressed no concerns about multicultural environment nor did their parents mention it as a challenge.

In summary, I have found that although migration affects people’s psychological well-being and their family relationships (as a result of challenges and turmoil
during the process of migration) this only occurs initially. Once immigrants have found a place to live, obtained employment, made new friends, and in some cases, become active members of their community this effect diminishes substantially. My findings show that after family re-unification the respondents never looked back and embraced their new life style and opportunities in their host country. That leads me to the conclusion that, despite a painful initial migration experience migration is another stressful life event similar to moving house, giving a birth, dealing with a death, disability, career set back and facing new challenges and uncertainties such as Brexit, PhD or SATS, etc. Furthermore, like in all stressful life events, good communication was found to be the key and main beneficial coping strategy. Stress is lessened when people communicate their worries, seek help and support, prepare themselves for the migration challenges and most importantly, share and communicate with their families. This was best achieved when they stayed in touch and together through all that “life throws at them”. In this way all obstacles were managed and the Transition stage towards “a new beginning” was less stressful or even avoided.

5.2.8. ROLE SHIFT AND ADJUSTMENT FOR LEFT BEHIND FAMILIES

Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) and Vladicescu (2008) report that left behind families have to adjust and adapt to a migratory absence of a family member. My study agrees with this, as illustrated by the case study. A husband gets angry and frustrated of being left behind and having to look after two children. Eventually, he becomes jealous and suspicious of his wife’s real intentions to move to the UK. As a result - he followed her soon after. Their teenage daughter was in charge to look after her younger brother, and to perform all the household chores that her parents used to do before moving to the UK. Although it was hard at times for her, during her interview, this teenage girl did not complain about her new role in the house but told me, that her extended family was helping her, and if she had any issues - she would always call her
parents abroad (or they check on her daily, anyway). They all got reunited in the UK a few months later. At no point were children left on their own. Thorough arrangements were made with aunties, uncles and grandparents “employed” to help and support their young children. Phones were available for children to contact their parents at any time. This, shows that with preparation, and some role shifting and adjustment - obstacles are managed effectively with little or no impact on the family’s wellbeing.

The focus of my study was Lithuanian migrants who came to the UK with the intention to settle. So, I did not have any data about temporary work migration – when parents regularly leave their homes and come back every few months. That can explain why I do not have any data supporting Maslauskaite and Stankunene (2007), Tomkunas (2007) who state that, when family member moves abroad – other family member shift their roles in order to accommodate the role of the absent family member. Therefore when a person comes back – s(he) does not have a role to play and feels unappreciated or not needed. With my study I cannot prove or disapprove those findings.

5.2.9. ROLE OF NETWORKS IN ADAPTATION PROCESS

My findings, on the role of networks in the adaptation process, contributes to the discussion of Bucaite-Vilke and Rosinaite (2010) who studied the formation of interpersonal networks and their role in migration. They concluded their study by identifying the strength and level of influence in migrants’ adaptation. On top of their list came formal and informal migrant networks, economic and cultural resources, and then interpersonal networks. My study did not focus solely on adaptation issues – the core theme of my findings was – the Transition stage - where support and help was most needed. My data revealed that interpersonal networks (Lithuanian informal community, the people they knew in migration) were the source of migrants’ strength and main coping mechanism during the Transition stage.
5.3. THEORY IN SOCIAL RESEARCH

According to Bryman (2001), “The term ‘theory’ is used in a variety of different ways, but its most common meaning is as an explanation of observed regularities” (Bryman, 2001, p. 5). Why do people migrate? What pushes or pulls Lithuanian migrants to migrate to the UK? Is their experience unique, or does it resemble the experiences of other migrants moving around the world? Giddens and Sutton (2013) argue that “theorising means constructing abstract interpretations using a series of logically related statements that explain a wide variety of empirical or ‘factual’ situations” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 9).

In order to explain what is the purpose of the theory, O’Brien (1995) uses a kaleidoscope analogy. “A simple way of understanding ‘what is theory’ is to compare theory with a kaleidoscope, the child’s toy consisting of a tube, a number of lenses and fragments of translucent, coloured glass or plastic. When you turn the tube and look down the lens of the kaleidoscope the shapes and colour, visible at the bottom, change. As the tube is turned, different lenses come into play and the combinations of colour and shape shift from one pattern to another. In a similar way we can see social theory as a sort of kaleidoscope – by shifting theoretical perspective the world under investigation also changes shape. The components of the world being investigated combine and recombine into new patterns as they are viewed through different theoretical perspectives. Different theories bring different aspects of the world into view: theories are like the lenses of the kaleidoscope; when you slot different ones into place things you could not see before suddenly become visible; patterns that were indistinct become sharper” (O’Brien, 1995, p. 11).

Refering to the importance of theory in a social research Gilbert (1995) argues that “(…) a theory highlights and explains something which one would otherwise not see, or would find puzzling” (Gilbert, 1995, p. 11). The puzzle in my research was – does everyone have the same chance? Why do some people
cope better than others? How to explain such acute emotions people endure? What role do these emotions play in people’s dailiness? These questions highlight the theoretical gaps in a range of sociological frameworks. For example the ability to explain interrogate and theorise emotions within my data.

According to Giddens and Sutton (2013), “In the best sociology, factual research and explanatory theories are closely related. We can only develop valid theoretical explanations if we are able to test them by means of empirical research. Contrary to popular belief, facts do not speak for themselves, they need to be interpreted. Many sociologists work primarily on factual research, but, unless they are guided by some knowledge of theory, their work is unlikely to be able to explain the complexity they find. This is true even of research carried out with strictly practical objectives” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 9). They continue that: “without a theoretical approach, we do not even know what to look for when beginning a study or interpreting results at the end of the research” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 10).

I applied grounded theory approach in my research expecting that, at the end of my study, I will not need any additional theory to interpret my findings. Grounded theory helped me to gather, code/classify and analyse data. However the findings of my research, produced as a result of applying grounded theory approach, did not produce a theory I initially expected to emerge at the end of my analysis. The ostensible theory that emerged claimed the fact that migration was a very challenging process, yet, it could be successfully managed by efficiently using support networks and enhancing regular and focused communication with the family. I found this theory to be too simplistic to explain Lithuanian migration experiences in the UK. The stories I discovered showed more complexity; it revealed the significance of emotions involved, the strength of which affected families differently. I felt I needed further explanation why
some people cope and manage their situation better. According to Giddens (2004) Merton (1957) argues that sociologists should concentrate on middle range theories rather than “grand theoretical schemes”(...). Middle-range theories are specific enough to be able to be directly tested by empirical research, yet sufficiently general to cover a range of different phenomena” (Giddens, 2004, p. 664). Although initially I wanted to look at my findings through the main sociological dualisms, I turned my attention to the middle range theories in hope that they might explain my findings.

5.3.1. MIDDLE-RANGE THEORIES

Social reflexivity

First theory I looked at - was Giddens’ social reflexivity approach. It seemed to be relevant to my research since it discussed changes in “present lives”. Giddens argues the risk as well as a notion of trust in an ever changing world. He also discusses the social reflexivity that “refers to the fact that we have constantly to think about, or reflect upon, the circumstances in which we live our lives” (Giddens, 2004, p. 680). In his theory Giddens also talks about ‘democracy of emotions’ that emerge in everyday life. “The democratizing of personal life advances to the degree to which relationships are founded on mutual respect, communication and tolerance” (Giddens, 2004, p. 680). Despite the notions of trust, social reflexivity and democracy of emotions, which emerged in my research, I did not find this theory of social reflexivity wide enough to encompass all the nuances of migration and its effect on family relationships. Therefore I continued my search by looking at other middle-range theories.

Diaspora

Bartram et al (2014) define the concept of diaspora as “A dispersed population across more than one territory having a durable and salient relationship (consisting of a set of claims, practices and/or loyalties) to a common origin,
identity or homeland” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 49). In my research diaspora played a big supportive role in Lithuanian migrants’ lives (especially in the East Anglia community). Although my findings refer to Lithuanian community in the UK (many chose East Anglia as a cradle of current Lithuanian diaspora), my findings did not reveal issues of identity “practices or loyalties” of that community. Rather it was about coping mechanisms and diaspora serving as a support network during family separation. Also the concept of migration network is more related to transnationalism than diaspora. According to Bartram et al (2014) “With transnationalism there may be multiple networks of individuals and organizations transcending international boundaries that operate separately and perceive themselves as separate from one another. They may also overlap but even so not maintain a collective character. …). Diasporas also tend to persist across generations (Faist 2010); in comparison, transnationalism may refer to contemporary or historical migrations, which often exist separately or may be linked together“ (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 51). Therefore I shifted my attention to transnationalism (in the hope that it would explain my findings).

Transnationalism

Bartram et al (2014) define transnationalism as “The tendency among immigrants particularly in recent decades to maintain ties with their country of origin while also integrating in the destination country” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 140). Findings of my research revealed that, at the beginning of their settlement, families do live double transnational lives – keeping a close contact and involvement in Lithuania as well as trying to integrate and find their place in the host country – the UK. According to Bartram et al (2014) the key element of transnationalism is that the migrants try to stay part of the home communities they left behind. Portes (1999) argues that transnationalism has three dimensions, economical, political and cultural. And, although I see how it
works in a bigger picture of migration phenomena, I did not find those dimensions helpful in my findings. Lithuanians were sending remittances to their left behind families and felt culturally connected to their homeland. However, my findings showed that politically they tried to distance themselves from the structure that was not able to support them (or they could not rely on) in the first place. In many many cases that was the reason for them to migrate. The concept of transnationalism was also too narrow to explore my findings. It was more about preserving ones identity than about coping mechanisms or hardship one goes through the migration process, particularly during the transition stage. So, in search of an in depth explanation of my findings, I came accross the **migrant networks** approach.

**Migrant networks**

According to Bartram et al (2014) “Social settings are sets of relationships that are open in principle and are composed of different kinds of social ties. Migrant networks involve social ties that take shape via distinctive experiences of migration; these networks usually persist across international boundaries” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 94). Bartram et al (2014) argue that social networks are made up of “individuals and organisations, often called ‘nodes’, which are tied together by different sorts of relationships based on friendship, common interests, values/belief, economic exchange, and/or influence” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 95). My findings show that social ties are very important for Lithuanian migrants, whether they are organizational with institutions that help them to migrate and integrate, find a job and accommodation, or personal through friends and family that provide them emotional and financial support throughout the migration process. However, the same as diaspora theory – migrant networks theory did not reveal anything about individual experiences, such as the emotional and physical strains one endures in migration. Moreover, migrant networks theory did not explain why some migrants cope better than
others in transition – is that because of better social ties? Bartram et al (2014) explain that “Simply being a part of a social network is usually not enough to make migration a reality. One must have a social capital - the actual or potential resources linked to a migrant’s social ties” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 96). That led me to further look for the answers by exploring social capital theory.

Social capital

According to Bartram et al (2014) “The social capital embedded in migrant networks is often crucial for accomplishing migration, regardless of (though not instead of) specific country policies and restrictions. Necessary resources (such as information, money and aid) must also be exchanged via these ties to make migration happen. The relations inherent in the social capital of migrants constitute the mechanism by which such resources are distributed” (Bartram et al., 2014, pp. 96-97).

The main critique of this theory is that the concept of social capital “relies on the idea that social relations are ‘investments’, even with close friends and family, who are seen almost exclusively as the holders of potential resources rather than, say, sources of emotional support or shared companionship. Individual social ties are often considered the most important way to perceive social capital” (Bartram et al., 214, p. 134).

Despite the above critique Bartram et al (2014) suggest that social capital theory is useful to study migration consequences since it can be “a source of social control, family support, and benefits gained though extrafamilial networks” (Portes, 1998, cited in Bartram et al., 2014, p. 135).

Besides positive effects of social capital on migration experience I could have also focused on its negative consequences such as its unequal distribution among Lithuanian community in the UK. My findings showed that Lithuanian migrants, indeed, had different levels of social capital – I covered it while
discussing different Lithuanian communities in the UK - East Anglia and the East Midlands. However, looking at my research findings through the lens of social capital theory would have not revealed the psychological aspects, particularly, the role of emotions so powerfully present in my research. Social capital theory pays a lot of attention to exploring characteristics and structures of social networks, however “less is known about the quality of social ties [e.g. family relationships] within a network and the different environmental contexts within which networks exist and produce resources” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 136). Bartram et al (2014) further ask “What is the historical and cultural context of particular social networks and their ties? Surely differences across space and time also matter” (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 136). Social capital theory could only partly explain my findings and I felt that I had to look for more in depth theory that would include concepts such as time and space, network ties, social settings, cultural and historical context, emotions, social capital and contextual resources.

**Phenomenological approaches** (phenomenology, social inreactionism, ethnomethodology, interpretivisms and social constructivism)

According to McCarthy and Edwards (2011) “Phenomenology is a philosophical approach taken by both psychologists [individual] and sociologists [society], albeit with rather different emphases. Its primary orientation to human life is that it has to be understood through the meanings and perceptions by which people make sense of their daily lived experiences“ (McCarthy and Edwards, 2011, pp. 149-150). I like the whole idea that dailiness of migrants lives are explained through perceptions and meanings respondents put on their experiences and practices. According to McCarthy and Edwards (2011) “Meaning is built through interaction between others (as audience), between ourselves, and also with ourselves (internally). (…). The attention to everyday meanings comprises a number of elements, including emotions, evaluations (or moralities) and cognitions” (McCarthy and Edwards, 2011, p.
It also draws attention to the social order that is created by daily routines in family interactions and a sense of security “as individuals jointly construct personal and social realities by which they make sense of the world and work out how to live their lives. People’s experience of a firm feeling of who they are, their relationships and circumstances, is termed ‘ontological security’” (McCarthy and Edwards, 2011, p. 151). Those were very important concepts in my findings, however, phenomenological approaches were not suitable for explaining my research findings for the following reasons. First of all, phenomenological approaches see researcher’s role as a co-participant “in an interaction through which meanings about family lives are constructed” (McCarthy and Edwards, 2011, p. 150). It would have been impossible to combine both grounded theory (where the role of researcher is strictly defined as an external observer) and phenomenological approaches (were researcher is a co-participant). Most importantly, Phenomenological approaches could not be applied on already existing research findings. To my understanding it requires to be used as a methodological approach, where data collection and analysis are informed by this methodology and conducted accordingly. If I wanted to use phenomenological approaches in my research – I should have used them instead of grounded theory.

During the search of all-encompassing theory that would help to explain my findings I learned that all of them had concepts that could shed a light on my findings, such as power, social network, historical and cultural context, individual–society, emotions, ontological security. However, I also learned that all of them were restrictive in explaining the very complex phenomena of Lithuanian migration to the UK and its impact on family relationships. Giddens (2004) reinforced my turn by stating “it is indeed true that the more wide-ranging and ambitious theory is, the more difficult it is to test it empirically. Yet there seem no obvious reason why theoretical thinking in sociology should be confined to the ‘middle range’ “(Giddens, 2004, p. 664). In the end, I felt that I needed to
turn back to my initial need to understand Lithuanian migration phenomena by looking at it through macro theories and through major dischotomies in sociology: Individual-Society, Macro-Micro, Agency-Structure.

5.3.2. KEY DUALISMS IN SOCIAL RESEARCH

According to Layder (2006), the most important question facing social theory today is concerned with “how different aspects of social reality are related to each other” (Layder, 2006, p. xi). In his book “Understanding Social Theory”, Layder (2006) makes an overview of the major issues in social theory and organises his book around a central theme and problem-focus. “This concerns how the encounters of everyday life and individual behaviour influence, and are influenced by, the wider social environment in which we live” (Layder, 2006, p. 1). Layder (2006) looks at this theme through key social dualisms: individual-society, agency-structure and macro-micro. He explains that all those dualisms are closely related and refer “to different aspects of social life which can also be empirically defined” (Layder, 2006, p. 1). Layder (2006) also notes that theorizing and empirical research should go “hand in hand” since “the sociological problems they pose cannot be solved solely in theoretical terms any more than they can by exclusively empirical means” (Layder, 2006, p. 1).

In order to explain my findings within a wider social environment/reality, I looked at them through the lens of different social dualisms. The core theme of my research was the Transition stage and therefore my primary focus was to find out what was happening to a family during that period. In order to make a final map of my main category and before finalising my research findings, I checked the dimensions of all categories and subcategories of the Transition stage. Then I approached the final map of the main category with different theoretical frameworks, e.g.: Personal–Collective/Individual-Society; Past-Present; Structure–Agency, etc. Having completed this, I then began applying social dualisms to my data.
5.3.2.1. INDIVIDUAL- SOCIETY DUALISM

Layder (2006) explains ‘individual-society’ as the most basic and simplest dualism. “The individual–society distinction is perhaps the oldest and represents a persistent dilemma about the fitting together of individual and collective needs. This is expressed in sociological terms by the problem of how social order is created out of rather disparate and often anti-social motivations of the many individuals who make up society. (...) This view fails to take into account the fact that many needs and motivations that people experience are shaped by the social environment in which they live” (Layder, 2006, pp. 2-3). Findings revealed that many of my respondents were pushed to emigrate because of a poor economic situation in their county. It confirms the literature of Kuzmickaite, 2003; Martin and Zurcher, 2008; Povilinas, 2012; Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012. My work also revealed that the new society and culture they settle into puts a great mental as well physical strain on the new migrants and their family relationships. It confirms the findings of Papadopolous et al., 2004; Segal and Mayadas, 2005; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, and reiterates the link and interrelation between such notions as Agency and Structure or Individual and Society.

While looking at the Transition stage through the Individual–Collective/Society lens, it became apparent that it symbolises the inevitable duality/union/balance between them. For example, in my research, all categories under Transition stage represent both individual and collective/society. Some of the subcategories, such as Decisions and Choices, and Psychosocial effects, seem to be very individualistic. This relates to their motives, for example, the decision to migrate (individual). However, of equal importance is their collective purpose (to improve family’s life). The psychosocial effect and managing situation could be individual, but the impact of psychosocial effect and the result of how people as individuals cope and manage their situation, creates ripples which spread
around and becomes collective by impinging on families, extended networks and wider communities.

In my research, I could not pull those two notions apart and I could not focus only on individual without recognizing that it is always connected and linked to society and social aspects.

However, Layder (2006) reminds us that this dualism is too simplistic to illustrate the dynamics in a society. He argues that agency-structure dualism has an advantage over individual-collective because it “more solidly draws our attention to the socially active nature of human beings” (Layder, 2006, pp. 3-4). In my research, this was illustrated by a burning desire and motivation in people to migrate despite all the challenges and structural constrains they had to overcome.

5.3.2.2. MACRO - MICRO

Another dualism I applied onto my findings was - private/micro and public/macro. Layder (2006) explains that the macro-micro distinction deals primarily with a difference in the level and scale of analysis. Layder (2005) emphasises that this distinction hinges on the link between human activity and its social context. By contrast, the macro–micro distinction is more concerned with the levels and scale of analysis and the research focus. As with agency-structure, the macro–micro distinction is a matter of analytical emphasis, since both macro and micro features are intertwined and interdependent. Further, Layder (2006) points out that from those preliminary definitions, not only is the individual–society problem closely related to the agency–structure issue, but that both are directly implicated in the macro-micro dualism. That is, if micro analysis is concerned with face-to face conduct, then it overlaps with self-identity and subjective experience as well as the idea that people are social agents who can fashion and remake their social circumstances. Similarly, if macro analysis
concentrates on more remote, general and patterned features of society, then it also overlaps with the notion of ‘social structure’ as the regular and patterned practices (institutional and otherwise), which form the social context of behaviour. Layder’s (2006) point is that these different dualisms overlap with each other and that macro–micro dualism includes elements of the other two.

While applying the private/micro-public/macro framework I looked at three subcategories of the Transition stage: ‘Family relationships’, ‘Psychosocial effect’ and ‘Positive outcomes’.

According to family studies literature, public and private are often used in reference to work and domestic family life (McCarthy and Edwards, 2011).

“The terms offer an alternative theoretical framework from the predominant sociological notion of macro and micro levels of social analysis, in which family is inevitably situated at the interface between the two, but largely consisting of small-scale interactions between individuals. In this framework, family lives are generally theorized as shaped by the micro social forces of politics and the economy. Using public and private as an alternative way of understanding the relationship between families and economics and political life, however, facilitates an analysis of the interdependence of these different activities and arenas” (McCarthy and Edwards, 2011, p. 168). While looking at my ‘Family relationships’ category through the micro/macro lens, I saw that it was not a private matter as first thought. The literature revealed that family relationships have a great impact on wider society at the macro level.

Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) argue that “In transnational families with the migrant mother, the relationship quality was assessed more negatively prior and during the migration. The transnational living might have an extremely negative effect on the partnership and become a motive for legal divorce” (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 190). Maslauskaite and Stankuniene
(2007) go so far as to say that as many as 10% of the families consider divorce and named it as the main motive for migrating. In these cases, emotional divorce was seen as less of a negative consequence on the partnership (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 190). In my research, family relationships represent both *private* and *public* domains. I will use two examples to illustrate this. A young teenager felt abandoned and neglected by her mother who left her behind. This teenager stayed with her grandmother and shared a room with her teenage cousin, whose mother also migrated to the UK. The relationship was tense at home, displaying constant arguments with her grandmother and fighting with her female cousin. The uncertain/indefinite time of reunion with the teenager’s mother also made their relationship difficult. As time went by, the pain of separation and tension with her relatives at home became unbearable and the teenager considered suicide “*to teach them all a lesson*”. She took sleeping pills and collapsed at school. The whole community then got involved, including school, doctors, social workers, etc. However, people’s experiences did not always go to such extremes before showing the effect of both private and public domains. For example, after the wife’s migration to the UK a husband became very angry, even aggressive towards the step-daughter he was looking after in Lithuania. The girl tried to explain it as his helplessness regarding the situation:

“I *think he* [step-father] *is angry that we are in this situation. He is angry that we do not have money to migrate all together and he is angry what cannot do much about it but wait until mummy earns some money, either for us to pay all the bills and have a quality life here or for us all migrate to the UK*” [Migle, teenager].

The findings of ‘Psychosocial effect’ category show that it consists of both domains - private and public. For example, my findings reveal that separation has a psychosocial effect on family relationships as well as their well-being. Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) explain that, “children are most vulnerable members of the transnational family and in most cases they do not receive
appropriate parental care. Parents frequently diminish, neglect or even ignore the challenges the transnational living arrangement brings to the children and the misconception of the situation has the impact on the fulfilment of their parental roles. Children of transnational families suffer the disruptions in emotional, intellectual and social behaviour, but this state is often neglected or underestimated by the parents” (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, p. 190).

Similarly to ‘Family relationships’, my findings show that there is no such thing as “private” emotional pain or “private” depression. All psychosocial effects are deeply connected with other individuals and are greatly interdependent with public/macro worlds.

Another category, ‘Positive outcomes’ also contains both private and public domains. This category consists of relatively “private” subcategories such as: Verification of family bond, Positive personal changes, Moral satisfaction, Improved relationships, as well as relatively “public” subcategories such as: Personal achievements and Social status. One could argue that personal achievements are private, but my findings show that people are proud of their personal achievements in a “public sphere”, such as being recognised at work and being accepted in the community or appreciated for professional skills and knowledge. The public category also includes subcategories of Entertainment, Reasons to stay, Positive NHS experiences, More freedom and Increased self-esteem (pride for being accepted).

According to Layder (2006), “people are always involved in social interaction and social relations” (Layder, 2006, p. 3). This is where the agency-structure dualism has a distinct advantage to individual-society dualism.
5.3.2.3. AGENCY/STRUCTURE DEBATE

According to Giddens and Sutton (2013), the agency-structure debate is the most enduring concern in social science. It divides sociologists according to where their focus is - structure or agency. They ask, “How far are individuals creative actors, actively controlling the conditions of their lives? Or is most of what we do the result of general social forces outside individual control?” (Giddens and Sutton, 2013, p. 86).

5.3.2.3.1. IN FRAMING THE ANALYSIS OF AGENCY VS STRUCTURE (A/S)

In Sociology, A/S is polarised since each represents opposite views of social reality. Both structuralist’ theories, Consensus (Functionalism and New Right) and Conflict (Marxism, Feminism and Weberian theory), view society as a structure that shapes the individual who has very little ability to make changes in that society and their own position. Social action theories such as Interactionism and Postmodernism are in direct contrast. They see individual as an active agent in shaping the social world. But Layder (2006) insists that, “there is no such thing as society without the individuals who make it up just as there are no individuals existing outside of the influence of society” (Layder, 2006, p. 3.).

According to Layder (2006), the word ‘agency’ points to the idea that people are ‘agents’ in the social world and they are able to do things which affect the social relationships in which they are embedded. Layder (2006) focuses on Giddens definitions: ‘agency’ – the ability of human beings to make a difference in the world; ‘structure’ – the social setting and context of behaviour. In other words, Layder (2006) uses the notion of structure “in the conventional sense of the social relationships which provide the social context or conditions under which people act. On this definition, social organisations, institutions and cultural products...
(like language, knowledge and so on) are the primary referent to the term ‘structure’ (Layder, 2006, pp. 4-5).

In his structuration theory, Giddens (1986) argues that agency-structure is a duality rather than a dualism. In other words, they are like a coin - we cannot see both sides while looking at one, however, we are still aware of other side’s existence. My thoughts on this analogy was that, if agency is a personal ability to act independently, to escape the determinism and to act with freedom, can then migrants be agents and determine their lives? Can they actually control the migration situation they are in and overcome all the challenges of transition stage? Similarly, can structure (the other side of the coin) support agent’s free will and pursuit of change? Herriman (2014) suggests looking at the A/S dilemma as a conundrum of human life. For example, in order to have a smooth transition from one country to another, Lithuanian migrants need to learn the language, to drive on the right side of the road, and to acknowledge and accept the different culture and social system. On the other hand, according to Herriman (2014) and Giddens and Sutton (2013), structure constrains people. In the light of my research, for example, could the lack of language prevent people from getting better paid jobs? Would driving on the right side of the road be too stressful for some? And, is trying to adapt in a new culture is harder than most migrants expected prior to leaving Lithuania?

5.3.2.3.2. TRANSITION STAGE (TS) THROUGH AGENCY/STRUCTURE LENS

In order to explain my findings, I applied A/S dualism. From the agent’s perspective, I wanted to find out if agents (Lithuanian migrants) can determine their own lives and what happens to them. Can people actually control the migration situation they are in? Can they manage and overcome all the transition stage challenges? Can they maintain family relationships? From a structure’s perspective, can structure support agent’s free will and pursuit of changes?
In order to see the distinction as well as their interrelation between *agency* and *structure* notions, I coloured my TRANSITION STAGE models in colour accordingly - **STRUCTURE, AGENCY, AGENCY/STRUCTURE**.

I will now provide a brief analysis of my findings in the light of the A/S divide by looking at a few main categories of TRANSITION STAGE theme: ‘Managing the situation’ and ‘Priorities and Plans’.

![Diagram](image)

*Figure 27: Managing the situation during the Transition stage - A/S perspective*

From the figure depicted above, it is clearly seen that ‘**Managing the situation**’ category is about *Agency* and *Structure* interrelation. For example, **Work in the UK** is a coping mechanism, but **Work** is also the most influential structure. People move to the UK to get well paid jobs and secure a better future for themselves and their families. Although people are very active agents in seeking
jobs, they are greatly constrained in their migration process if they are unemployed, or for various reasons, are not happy in their work places. These reasons could include poor working conditions, low salaries, inferior work relationships and discrimination, to name but a few.

The category of ‘Support systems’ mostly represents Structure. Even informal support, such as family and friends, church, represents a structured group like family, kinship, community, friendship networks and religious institution. On the other hand, the Agent’s wish to use or not to use those networks determines whether those structures remain or adjust their services.

The same applies to official support. In the UK, it represents a very clear support structure: job centres, Lithuanian embassy and community centres, housing associations, schools, etc. However, their work is profoundly influenced by the Agent’s needs. For example, due to the great number of migrants settling in East Anglia, the Government opened a migrants’ support centre. Not only did it provide language courses, but it also served as an information centre. At the beginning, it was very successful but as soon as migrant numbers dropped and people settled down, the new arrivals started using informal sources and support, and those services became redundant, which led to its eventual closure.

Although it looks as if ‘Responsibility’ category is determined by a human action (and motivation), responsibility is about family notion/structure and one’s pre-determined roles within it. These roles include how parents should provide for their families, look after their own parents and children, and how children are responsible for looking after their younger siblings while left behind.
Figure 28: Transition stage: Priorities and Plans – A/S perspective

Figure 28 shows that some people’s plans and priorities seem to be determined by Agency related to looking after elderly parents, improving accommodation, succeeding (by being part of another group/structure: better paid job, better neighbourhood), finding new friends (once again to create a new group/structure where one feels connected and supported), earning money in order to support the family (agent’s drive and motivation, but influenced by structure appointed family roles and duties) - Agency/Structure.

There are only a few Agency “bubbles” in this ‘Priorities and Plans’ category: Surviving is greatly affected by social pressures, the unknown environment, and countless challenges, and yet there was a great resilience and desire to survive (and succeed eventually). How well you survive migration/Transition period depends on how effectively you acclimatise to the new structures of the British system, the work place, school, community, and so on. Once again, my findings seem to show a combined - Agency/Structure dualism.
**Reunification** is another Agency’s action to do one’s very best in order to reunite with the family. Although I placed this within the Agency’s domain, it emerged from my data analysis as Agency/Structure interaction, since the family’s reunion was highly dependent on and influenced by social structures. These might be whether one has a job and accommodation and whether the children have finished their schooling back home. Similarly, whether the family had enough money to settle down in the UK could impact reunion greatly.

The Wishes subcategory presents both Agency and Structure. If, for example, a wish “to have a new life” is more Agency related, then a wish “to escape Asian neighbourhood” is more Structure related since it shows people’s wishes to live/belong to or to be associated with a “different type of group”. This is also related to social status, which indicates one’s wish to be associated with a certain type of class or race. In this case, the respondents clearly identified the “white English community” as one they wished to live in. It was perceived as a symbol of a greater achievement in migration since living in a black or Asian community was seen as a failure of one’s efforts to succeed. Lithuanian migrant’s desire to live in a “white” community can be looked from the structural perspective in terms of socialisation. Values and norms of multi-cultural, multi-racial society were not internationalised through all agents of socialisation in Lithuania (family, education, media, peers and workplace). Up until very recently, there were no black or Asian people residing in Lithuania. Similarly, Lithuanians never faced different religions. Although there are a few mosques and protestant churches in Lithuania, Catholicism is the largest confession of predominant Christian faith in Lithuania. According to 2011 census, 77.2% of Lithuanians belong to the Roman Catholic Church. Therefore, most experience cultural shock on the arrival to the UK, where Catholicism and Muslim are identified as the fair of 8% and 5% respectively (BSA survey, 2015).
Lithuanian migrants have to learn new social norms and values that are typical/ingrained/mainstream in the British society, such as tolerance and respect to different nationalities, cultures, races and religions. This clearly indicates structural influence as a mean and main condition for social adaptation and integration.

Despite structural influence, where ‘agent’ has a power to change the situation, many people may refuse to accept or adapt to a new structure/culture and constrain themselves from fully integrating into multicultural and democratic society. Rising discontent and resentment may increase dissatisfaction and make migration (or the transition stage from one system to another) even more complicated and challenging. This would inevitably impact on many aspects of their UK-based lives, including family relationships.

During the process of my data analysis, I kept asking myself if the agency and structure framework was appropriate to explain my research findings. I felt that those domains were the main driving forces in the Lithuanian migration process and that understanding their interrelations within my research would become a valuable tool for encouraging Lithuanian migrants to become active agents in shaping their lives and overcoming constrains of different structures. By knowing the challenges or constrains of the new society, people could prepare themselves better. In other words, they could take the initiative to embrace, or turn negative challenges into positive ones, such as learning English before migrating. This would help people to communicate better in a new culture and environment and get better jobs that would help to support their families.

The findings of my research revealed that preparation (an active agent’s role) is vital to managing the transition period. People are affected/influenced by structures e.g., if you move to another country you have to accept their way of living, learn their language and perform your role as a citizen. If people took the time to prepare for the challenges ahead - the migration process would be less
painful and possibly has less impact on family relationships (e.g., tension because of stress and uncertainty about the future). An example of this is starting to arrange care for the left behind family and looking for help and support with jobs and accommodation within UK existing systems.

**Family structure.** There are also constrains of family institution such as how people feel obliged/responsible to provide for their families. There are certain expectations, values and social norms about how family is structured and how it should function. People feel as if they also failed in their family role (as a mother, father, daughter, etc.) if they do not succeed in migration.

What I see from my research findings is that both agency and structure are closely interrelated. Waves of migration, such as the large number of Lithuanians moving to East Anglia, greatly affected local structures such as schools, social services, NHS and the retail industry. They are all affected by the needs and increasing demands of a growing migrant population that makes them change or adjust their available services to the needs of the migrants.

After looking at my findings through the A/S lens, I realised that this did not seem to reveal/explain the whole picture of the Lithuanian migration experience in its complexity. My findings show that Lithuanian migration to the UK is more than a simple polarisation of A/S. Instead, it is a more complex phenomenon involving human interaction, social settings/environment, psychological and contextual aspects.

Therefore, I decided to look at my research results by applying Layder’s theory of social domains in order to have a fuller picture of what is happening with Lithuanian families when they decide to migrate to the UK, and how that transition affects their family relationships. I discuss it later in this chapter. Prior to this, I briefly reflect on the key dualisms in sociology/social science research which I initially tried to apply in explaining my research findings.
5.3.3. REFLECTION ON DUALISMS

Looking at my Transition map through different dualism lenses - Individual – Society; Private/Micro -Public/Macro - I did not see a clear line between those frameworks in my research. My research question - “Impact of migration to the UK on Lithuanian family relationships”, and, although, family represents structure, the family members as individuals represent agency. In the light of my re-assessing research topic, the question would be how does, migration as a structure, affect agent and his/her relationship with their family members? My findings show that the whole migration process can be seen in the decision to move, arrangements for the left behind family, adaptation, job search in another country, surviving transition stage, and emotions involved. This all has an impact on person’s/agent’s wellbeing. I explored the (structural) challenges and constraints that presented obstacles and difficulties to the migrants in migration (especially during the transition stage). In this way, I showed the prospective agents that transition from one country to another could be much smoother with concrete agent’s actions, such as preparation before migration (child care, job search, language, learning about how the UK system works and mastering the communication means). People can expect support from the system/structure but, as my findings show, they can equally take lead in action in forming their new lives in migration and in supporting and maintaining their family relationships while in transition.

After looking at my findings though “dualism lenses”, I initially decided to use the A/S framework for my research since this dualism has not been used in migration/family studies, at least in regards to EE migrants in the UK. However, the A/S framework did not provide me with the complex/complete explanation of my findings. For example, it did not explain/allow the nuances of a human nature, the power of people’s interaction or the power of transition through time and space. It felt flat and very two-sided. I found it problematic to apply dualisms
where micro is observant to macro and the power was assumed to be stretched from the top down rather than through time and space. In search of a more complex social theory, I came across Layder’s **theory of social domains**. Layder offered me a solution to the duality problem by allowing me to elucidate the complexity of Lithuanian migration in the UK through four, rather than two, social domains. The theory of social domains offers an in-depth explanation of the social universe through four interconnected domains: *Contextual resources, Social settings, Situated activity* and *Psychobiography*. I drew upon Layder, as his theory not only provides a more evolved, sophisticated and nuanced perspective but, most importantly, because it (and in particular psychobiography domain) paid a great attention to the individual’s uniqueness and experiences and what significant role these played in constructing his/her social reality. According to Layder, many social dualisms underplay “the complexity of social reality by failing to grasp its multi-dimensional nature” (Layder, 2006, p. 270).

Layder’s theory of social domains encompasses all earlier discussed notions of dualisms, both micro and macro, private/public; individual/society, agency/structure. Layder’s theory breaks it down even deeper - what are the power shifts in social reality and what are the driving forces for a social change? The theory of social domains allowed me to look at the phenomenon through the power shift, namely by who influences what/whom, and who has more power – the individual over structure or society with its institutions and organisations? For example, do organisations shape the individual and his/her behaviour and attitudes, aspirations and experiences? I was also able to see the role of networks, means and the importance of communication, as well as the individual’s inner resources in coping, adaptation and integration process. This included the role of pain and the emotions involved throughout the process. The theory of social domains gave me a fuller picture of the social reality Lithuanians faced after their decision to migrate to the UK and their complex experiences in migration, as well as their coping mechanisms and the relationships with inner and outer circles.
I look at my finding through the lens of Theory of Social Domains in the next chapter.

5.4. INTRODUCTION TO THEORY OF SOCIAL DOMAINS

Layder (2006) argues against Giddens’ ‘structuration’ and Archer’s ‘morphogenetic’ approach, both of which attempt to unify agency and structure. According to Layder (2006), social reality is too complex to be explained by dualism theories such as structure and agency or micro and macro perspectives. Layder (2004) argues that we should avoid “the reductive force of singularities and adopt a more expansive and inclusive view of the social universe” (Layder, 2004, p. 9).

The migration processes people have to go through - the decisions they make, the emotions they experience, the coping strategies they apply, the adaptation and the integration issues they face - all require a multi-angled/multi-layered, stretched-in-time theory of social reality. According to Layder, in order to understand the complexity, richness and depth of social universe, we should use the theory of social domains - four interconnected domains psychobiography, situated activity, social settings and contextual resources.

Knight (2012) explains that “Layder identifies ‘personal’ aspects of social life as ‘psycho-biography’ and ‘situated activity’. These are the components which are directly felt and experienced by individuals. Moving away from the centre of this model are ‘social settings’ and ‘contextual resources’, which are impersonal and remote from the individual, yet influence the personal experiences of social agents and vice versa” (Knight, 2012, p. 28). (See Figure 29).
Layder (2006) argues that using a purely vertical depiction of social domains does not “capture the dynamics of social activity and social process” (Layder, 2006, p. 273). He argues that social processes are never static and therefore, are stretched out through time and space “depicting the ever-flowing nature of social processes and human activities” (Layder, 2006, pp. 273-274). He then explains that domains are interconnected “through social relations of power which are also stretched out over time and space” (Layder, 2006, p. 274).
According to Layder (2006), these four social domains (Figure 30) represent “layers of social reality ‘frozen in time’” (Layder, 2006, p. 273).

5.4.1. PSYCHOBIOGRAPHY

The way we deal with social situations and relationships is influenced by all four social domains. Layder describes them as layers, and the closest one to the individual is his/her *psychobiography* - the individual characteristics, norms and values individuals accumulated throughout time. Layder (2006) emphasises the fact that people are emotionally unique beings. “Emotions such as jealousy, anger and hatred are capable of disrupting the smooth veneer of social situations and relationships. Motivations associated with these emotions drive us to behave in ways contrary to custom, ritual and routine, although this behaviour is also shaped by important social components” (Layder, 2006, p. 275). He explains that such emotions and motivations ensure that people are not entirely creatures of society, that they greatly influenced by the processes of socialization through parents, peers and institutions.

He argues that, some people are more capable than others of dealing with social situations. These people “exert more subjective power, and thus control, over their circumstances” (Layder, 2004, p. 11). The Psychobiography domain helps
the understanding of why people from the same country, e.g. Lithuania, experience migration challenges differently.

5.4.1.1. PSYCHOBIOGRAPHY IN APPLICATION

How people deal with their migration situation is closely related to their previous experience and resilience gained through past “painful” experience and “hard skin” grown over time.

My findings show that it takes great courage to change the situation. Many people simply decided to accept the situation. Others, however, felt that it was time to change. Each story of my respondents displayed individual emotional battles, such as living on the edge of starvation and having to look after small children; being imprisoned in one’s sexuality and not being able to live a fulfilling life or suffering from constant abuse of an alcoholic husband.

Looking at my findings through the lens of the psychobiography domain, particularly through the feature of self-control, explanations emerged as to why some Lithuanian migrants cope and manage their situation better than others. One reason could be that it depends on the way people exert control by anticipating the unexpected. I discuss types of control as well the power of emotions and their significance in managing one’s situation later in this chapter.

5.4.2. SITUATED ACTIVITY

Layder uses the term situated activity to “indicate the ‘inner’ coating of social connectedness for the individual. (…). Situated activity is the pragmatic arena in which relationships are routinely lived and played out” (Layder, 2004, pp. 44-45).

Relationships are inseparable from control. Control can be manipulative, but also benign. Layder (2004) refers to relationships as a transaction, where everyone engages in power and control strategies in the unfolding activity.
“Situated activity occurs between participants in face-to-face encounters and centres on the intersubjective (meaningful) exchanges that take place between them. It has a dynamic and emergent nature resulting from the collective inputs of those involved” (Layder, 2006, pp. 308–309). According to Layder (2005), “social activity is conditioned and significantly shaped by systematic phenomena (values, ideology, power, money, and the socially organized settings in which they are embedded) while simultaneously activity itself serves to reproduce, sustain or transform these social systematic features and social arrangements” (Layder, 2005, p. 141). Such notions as Work, Family, School, Prison, Church and so on, are socially constructed settings. Yet, they are greatly dependent on, and influenced by, social activities performed by the individuals.

He further discusses how distinctive personalities and individual psychobiographies play an important role in how individuals respond to social situations and the way they ‘construct’ the local realities and situations in which they live. According to Layder (2006), people are always involved in social relationships and it is very important to look at the relation between those complex situated actions/individual activity and a broader social context. In other words, it is important to look at who they are, who they become, how they relate to each other, and what impact all of those complex relations have in a broader migration context. Looking at my findings through the lens of situated activity, I can see the impact of “activity” on the relationships or consequences. For example, a missed or late call from a wife led to jealousy and anger. This, in turn, motivated the couple to become reunited as soon as possible. Similarly, bullying at school, abuse at work, and/or violence at home all motivated individuals to change their situation: work/school/country.

Layder (2006) explains the difference between the psychobiography and situated activity domains in terms of time and closure: “Psychobiography frames the lifetimes and personal identity of individuals as they are traced by personal and
social careers, situated activity frames the beginning and ending of encounters” (Layder, 2006, p. 277). Situated activity can be as brief as a greeting or as long as a meeting, but “generally, episodes are relatively short and limited by whether those involved are ‘physically in one another’s presence’” (Goffman, 1983, cited by Layder, 2006, p. 277).

Layder (2006) argues that “In situated activity, power, emotion and control are intimately related and manifest themselves in three modalities: self-control; emotional exchanges associated with benign control; and a person’s ability to manage his or her own current life situation” (Layder, 2006, p. 299).

According to Layder (2004), both power and control influence daily life, and our relationships and our feelings. “In this respect interpersonal control and the situated activities in which they are embedded represent the real heart of society” (Layder, 2004, p. 2.). Layder (2004) argues that “a person’s ability to control and influence others is conditioned by the unfolding nature of social interaction” (Layder, 2004, p. 11). As an example he gives the situation when an individual’s self-esteem could either be raised or lowered/crushed by the social interaction. He argues that this happens because “situated activity is a point of confluence for the influence of different but overlapping social domains” (Layder, 2004, p. 11). Therefore it negotiates the influences of individuals, their setting and the contexts of their activities.

Layder (2004) also emphasizes the link between power and emotions. He argues that “two are to be found in each other’s company in every instance” (Layder, 2004, p. 5). I discuss the concepts of power, emotions and control later in this chapter.
5.4.2.1. SITUATED ACTIVITY IN APPLICATION

According to Layder (2006) “An individual’s life situation is, in part, an objective network of social relationships with those who are most closely implicated in their personal circumstances [that would be family in my research]. But ‘life situation’ is also deeply psychological in nature. It is a sensitive reflection of an individual’s general feeling, tone and state of mind. It registers how well or badly a person is coping with circumstances and events, be they positive (as in marriage, a windfall, the birth of a child) or negative (such as family misfortune, ill–health and so forth)” (Layder, 2006, p. 280).

My findings highlight that the instability and insecurity of a situation arises from not having situated activities such as limited or no communication, no visits or meetings and no discussions about future plans or daily challenges. It shows that in those cases, problems arise, thus imminently affecting family relationships.

This also suggests that, for example, relationships at work are influenced by the quality of communication, i.e. English language. If English sufficiency is non-existent or very poor, then people’s relationships at work are affected/suffer and some people, as Milda’s case shows, can feel humiliated because of it.

“I wanted to leave factory, because there was no respect to us. I felt very humiliated” [Milda].

It also helps to explain why some families are doing better than others. As the psychobiography domain shows, people are all unique with their specific norms, values and their individual DNA. However, communication in situated activity is based on its regularity, clarity and efficiency. My findings show that despite being different in family structures (same-sex, single-parent, with one or two children) all families benefit from close and regular communication, especially during the transition stage when everything seems to be so fragile, and managing the situation appears to be impossible. Therefore, quality communication serves
as the most efficient tool of coping in migration. It is the core theme in my findings, suggesting that communication is the main condition for the families to do well while separated. My findings show that people’s relationships thrive through communication.

Through applying the theory of social domains on my findings, I once again see how everything in social reality is interconnected and as how everything affects individuals and their family relationships. If, for example, people are not happy at school or work, if they were bullied or picked on at work/school, this would ripple into the family’s day to day life, and have an impact on their relationships. Even when the situation is over, the effect may last. As my findings suggest, when self-esteem suffers, it takes a very long time to rebuild it, even if a person changes the work place or school.

Looking at my research findings though the lens of social domains, also helps to understand that the smooth transition and settlement from one country/culture/system to another, provides a smooth and stable family relationship. Once again, it re-enforces my findings that the frequency and quality of communication is at the very core of this transition.

As the case in my research shows, a woman, who was working in the UK, was rushing home from work to talk to her husband, who was left behind in Lithuania, on Skype. She was late and really worried about his reaction. She was so anxious about being late, being reproached and being accused of infidelity once again, that she ran across the street without looking around, and was hit by a car. Her husband flew over from Lithuania to look after her, found a job and, soon after, brought both their children over to the UK. However, this very case shows how fragile relationships are, and how a little encounter has a great influence or effect. It also shows that “each participant requires minimal levels of recognition, acceptance, inclusion, approval and other psychological reassurances in order that personal identity, security, self-esteem and self-value
are affirmed and reaffirmed. These are obtained via the attention, care and deference [respect/admiration] given by others” (Layder, 2006, p. 279).

Communication is the core of maintaining family relationships. Its frequency, as well as its quality, is a main condition to sustain families and maintain relationships.

After looking at the findings through the lens of situated activity it can be seen that power, emotions and control are the key components in explaining coping mechanisms. If one is unhappy at work, school or on the way home, then it would ripple into family relationships and affect its dynamics.

However, situated activity is also about communication and face-to face communication within ones social settings - the third social domain in the theory of social domains by Layder. It is about work relationships/encounters in the UK and Lithuania; school (both in the UK and Lithuania); community/neighbours (UK and Lithuania). All good and bad experiences ripple and affect people’s lives. Some of my respondents were bullied by their managers while working in the factories in the UK. This affected their moods and emotions, their self-esteem, self-worth and aspirations.

5.4.3. SOCIAL SETTINGS

The third layer, according to Layder (2004), is social settings. It is a more formal domain of social reality. According to Layder (2006), social settings represent structure – systematic aspects of social life. These can either be formal with a very rigid and hierarchal structure such as schools, universities, hospitals, governmental institutions, or informal such as family and friendship networks. Layder (2006) further explains the difference between formal and informal settings. In formal settings, social relations are based on hierarchy, positions and statuses (church clergy, school administration, governmental structures–e.g. NHS, job centres, etc.), where positions (and respect) are organizationally
enforced. Whereas in informal settings such as family, friendship networks, and communities, those positions are not clearly defined. However, it is still expected to respect settings, rules, traditions, norms and values.

Layder (2006) argues that the influence on the agent’s behaviours in informal settings is equally “real and engaging”. Layder (2006) explains that, for example, “the position-practices associated with friendship or parental behaviour are drawn from a diversity of sources, including tradition, best practice, neighbourhood, class position, ethnicity, personality and experience. As such, they call for strong commitment and adherence, but are policed and sanctioned by wider communal influences” (Layder, 2006, p. 281).

Layder (2005) states that social settings and situated activity are “tightly bound together and cannot in any sense be understood as entirely separate from each other. However, although settings and social activity are intimately related, it must also be recognized that they are dissimilar in that they possess independent characteristics” (Layder, 2005, p. 156).

Layder (2005) explains that, in order to have some continuity in social life, social settings depend upon people and their social activities. “Thus, it is social activity (in general) which both produces (in the present) and reproduces (over time) social settings in which this activity takes place” (Layder, 2005, p. 157). For example, if people stop going to the church, it will lose its function as a ‘house of faith’. There will be no need for Lithuanian schools, restaurants, beauty salons and shops to exist, if Lithuanian migrants stop using them. The governmental information centre in East Anglia closed when people stopped using it. The more Lithuanians came to East Anglia, the more shops, Lithuanian clubs and cafes opened. Within my research, I did not try to find out what was happening with Lithuanian identity in migration, but it would be very interesting to see how those old and new established social settings in the UK reproduce and enforce historical Christian/Catholic values in a Church, if at all, and also how they help
to practice and hold on to the cultural heritage through Lithuanian language, joint activities, celebrations, traditions and food.

Layder (2005) points out that “social activity always takes place within the immediate environment of social settings (and a wider social context) and has no existence outside them” (Layder, 2005, p. 157).

Talking about the differences of situated activity and social settings, Layder (2005) argues that the main distinction between these domains, is that social settings is primarily a location where social activity takes place, “and as such represent the reproduced social conditions (relations, practices, resources, control, discourses, ideologies and so on) under which specific social activities operate” (Layder, 2005, p. 157). In my research, social settings were clearly defined as the immediate environment. It is manifested though the main themes (places) such as Work, School, Family, Church, Lithuanian Community, etc. These were the places where respondents’ lives unfolded, both in Lithuania and the UK.

During the migration process, Lithuanian migrants have to “navigate” between formal and informal social settings. People arrive with their unique psychobiographies, sole coping mechanisms and inner resources. They bring with them their national norms and values, yet moving to the UK makes them adapt to the new social rules and expectations. Therefore, their social activities within those particular social settings need to be adhered to, learned and adapted. With his theory of social domains, Layder shows that domains, particularly social settings and situated activity, are interconnected, and “both sustain and transform them” (Layder, 2005, p. 158).
5.4.3.1. SOCIAL SETTINGS IN APPLICATION

Social settings showed me the human interactions that we all enact within particular social settings, and that we constantly move in or out of them. It also showed me the importance of “places/locations”, such as home, work, school, church or community centre, etc., and its relationship to managing ones situation, coping, and maintaining family relationships.

As the East Midlands community centre’s example shows, having a place to go to, where people speak the same language and have similar migration experiences, practicing the same religious beliefs and also taking part in traditional/national celebrations, all this helps to strengthen inner recourses. Furthermore, it helps people to create a support network and to feel “at home” – have a sense of belonging, and regain their identity and self-esteem. This also brings them a sense of safety and security, as well as a sense of being in control of their life situation once again.

The same could be said about the East Anglia community, although they do not have a formal community centre, however, established Lithuanian structures, such as banks, schools, restaurants, shops, all help them to cope and manage their situation. Through informal help and support, they manage to find work and accommodation, and cope, until eventually they get reunited with their families.

The domain of situated activity also shows how it influences social settings. People chose not to rely on formal support and information centres, such as the one in East Anglia that was funded by the government and was closed eventually. Alternatively, with the migrant numbers increasing, more and more organisations, schools and social settings are appearing, such as the East Anglia Lithuanian basketball club, Saturday Lithuanian School, beauty salons, etc.
5.4.4. CONTEXTUAL RESOURCES

Domain of contextual resources refers to “distributional inequality as well as accumulated cultural resources” (Layder, 2006, p. 302). Layder (2006) states that the domain of contextual recourses consists of two related elements: “First, there is a distributional aspect concerned with the unequal allocation of recourses and the social groupings affected by them, such as class, ethnicity, gender, age, status, and so on” (Layder, 2006, p. 299). Layder (2006) explains that the first element furnishes “the immediate socio-economic context of particular social settings (educational, occupational, domestic/familial, neighbourhood and so on) and their effects are felt and experienced in social activities and the inner mental lives of individuals” (Layder, 2006, p. 281).

In my research, it can be seen through the analysis of two different Lithuanian migrant groups. The first group were those who migrated to East Anglia. In most cases, these people were lacking language skills, they were seeking jobs in factories and were being pulled to a place where an established, informal Lithuanian community (with all the essential services, such as shops, schools, restaurants, job/interpreting centres etc.) existed. The second group were those who migrated to the East Midlands, which attracted people with higher education and a higher level of English, as well as those looking for jobs in higher education, IT, NHS and service management sectors.

The domain of contextual resources also let me look at different settlement paths in both communities. Lithuanians in East Anglia are happy living in “little Lithuania”, where their basic needs are met. They receive help from Lithuanian agencies with employment and accommodation, document translation and also assistance in applying for national insurance numbers and driver’s licenses. The East Midlands community, having already accumulated contextual/social/cultural capital, tries to integrate into British society first, and only use the Lithuanian community centre for their social needs, such as cultural
and national celebration, and Catholic Church services. The aims of both communities are different, and accumulated contextual resources define what kind of integration, Lithuanians in both communities chose.

According to Layder (2006), the second element of contextual resources “represents the historical accumulation of cultural resources such as knowledge, social mores, values, artifacts, media representations, sub-cultural styles, fashion and popular culture” (Layder, 2006, p. 299). Layder (2006) explains that “this is also the ultimate source of societal values (…), which not only shape the cultural context of social settings, but also the consciousness of those individuals who are influenced by them” (Layder, 2006, p. 281).

The historical accumulation of cultural resources could also be seen through value manifestation in those communities. In East Anglia, a great value is to have a job, take children to Saturday school to learn Lithuanian or go to Lithuanian concerts and sport events. In the East Midlands community, the core values are investing in education, searching for and obtaining well-paid jobs, attending high status cultural events such as the opera and the theatre, and being part of the local community and participating in local and national political life.

Looking at these two different Lithuanian communities with a very diverse class and social backgrounds, explanations appear as to why Lithuanian migrants in East Anglia and the East Midlands have different migration experiences.

Layder (2004) summarises the meaning of contextual resources by arguing that it influences human behaviour “by providing general cultural parameters in the form of expectations, custom, tradition, mores, habits, rules and so on. But they do so by linking in with settings and situated activities that mediate and mutually condition their influence. Conversely, individuals continually reproduce contextual resources by using them in their everyday activities” (Layder, 2004, p. 48).
The domain of contextual resources is less evident in my research findings. However, in order to understand people’s reasons for migration, such factors as push/pull could be analysed and interpreted through the lens of this domain.

5.4.4.1. CONTEXTUAL RESOURCES IN APPLICATION

My findings support the literature, particularly push/pull migration theory. Most of my respondents left their country because of better socio economic perspectives in the UK. Ona (female) explains that “Money and only money” was her main reason to migrate. As an attractive pull factor and a great motivation to migrate, my respondents mention free NHS, high quality education, high salaries as well as a higher living standard and social security. Most of those factors pushed Lithuanians, along with other EE countries, to leave their countries and migrate to the UK.

Many of my respondents migrated because they wanted to “build a new life“ for themselves and their families, and to rebuild their self-esteem and confidence. Sandra explains why she migrated to the UK.

“I wanted to start respecting myself again, to feel human, and to become stronger” [Sandra].

All this shows that macro changes in the society/world and economic growth in some parts of the world would always affect less advantaged countries/societies, leading to a mass migration in search of a better life. Lithuania is not an exception. Since independence from the Soviet Union in 1991, Lithuania has not been able to compete with other developed countries in terms of its economic growth and advanced social care. Therefore, many of my respondents stated that they had no choice but to migrate. They/the agents took “action” to migrate, thus taking responsibility for their own lives.
The theory of social domains shows how agency and structure, manifesting in four social domains, are interconnected. It shows how individuals (psychobiography) with their unique characteristics and value systems are greatly embedded in immediate action (situated activity) within particular social settings that are either influenced by, or have an influence on, social structures (contextual resources).

In recent years, many Eastern European countries, including Lithuania, experienced mass migration. The governments/structure had to come to a plan – to improve financial and social situation of their citizens in order to keep them paying taxes at home and avoiding “brain drain” and losing social capital (Kukonenko, 2012; Rakauskiene and Ranceva, 2012).

Migration also affects receiving countries. Although the UK pulls a lot of migrants to sustain its economy, unregulated numbers of migrants to the UK puts a huge pressure on social and health services, work places and schooling. As a result, the many British felt that their economy and social system could not cope with ever growing immigration and that it was time to start controlling it. That, consequently, led to the conservative government in 2016 announcing a referendum on whether the UK should remain a part of the EU. Brexit won and after triggering article 50, Britain has started the exit process.

Through applying theory of social domains on my findings, I can see how the notion of networks (moving to established infrastructures of migrant communities), the knowledge of how systems work and language all help people ‘do migration’. Accumulative capital of knowledge helps people to settle and adapt with fewer anxieties and less stress. According to Bartram et al (2014), “The accumulation of migration–related capital thus considerably reduces the uncertainties as well as the financial, social and psychological costs of migration” (Bartram et al., 2014, pp. 38–39).
According to Castles et al (2014), migration networks are meso-level social structures, which tend to facilitate further migration. It is clearly illustrated in my research why East Anglia is more attractive to Lithuanians than the Isle of Sky, for example.

Bartram et al (2014) argue that social capital “the actual or potential resources linked to a migrant’s social ties” are crucial for successful migration (Bartram et al., 2014, p. 96).

In the following section, I discuss all four social domains and how they help me to interpret research findings through the lens of interconnected concepts of power, time, control, emotions, security and trust.

5.5. INTERCONNECTIVITY OF SOCIAL DOMAINS

5.5.1. EMOTIONS AND FEELINGS

People manage migration challenges in different, nuanced ways. Some embrace challenges through thorough planning, such as pre-arranging care for their families, learning English, finding accommodation and employment prior to migration. Others, however, dive into the unknown regardless of the consequences. In those cases, not only they do struggle with the day-to-day challenges in a new country, searching for work and a place to live, but they also fight their inner battles “whether it was all worth it”?

Data revealed that emotions and feelings were very intense during the transition stage. However, as Layder shows, individual experiences, along with people’s emotions, transform over the time. As time went by, people’s negative feelings and emotions, such as fear of failure, anger, anxiety, feelings of guilt, disappointment, loneliness, sadness and despair, all transformed into positive ones. These included the excitement of a new job, passing a driving test, happiness of family reunion, new family in migration, joy of ability to support family, freedom of
ones sexuality, contentment of the situation as well as increased social esteem due to personal achievements and recognition for their skills and knowledge. Looking at my findings through the lens of psychobiography domain, I can see that whatever people experience during migration process, especially during the transition stage - it passes. My findings show that no matter how painful those experiences are, people learn to manage their situation and deal with the challenges.

5.5.1.1. EMOTIONAL PAIN – SKAUSMAS

Analysis highlighted a new concept/phenomenon/emotional expression - emotional pain. In Lithuanian, skausmas means pain. People described it as an excruciating pain in their heart - a burning or bleeding heart. While describing how she felt after leaving her son behind, Rasa explained that her heart was “bleeding”. Respondents did not use the words upset or sad, instead they described it as an emotional pain leading to a “going crazy” state. Rasa describes her emotions working at “brain numbing” factory – “I thought I’d go crazy if I carry on like this any longer. While at home, I was crying non-stop”. The theory of social domains allowed me to examine/explore pain through the lens of all four domains. Psychobiography helped me to look at what people do with their pain and what their coping mechanisms were. In the above example, it is apparent that Rasa’s work experience of doing endless monotonous tasks represents social settings in Layder’s theory of social domains.

People used the words pain or painful regularly when describing their migration experiences. To the question of how Sandra felt being apart, she answered:

“Very bad. Very bad, very very bad (crying), I felt terrible”.

Later, while talking about her left behind elderly mother, who lived on her own in the countryside in Lithuania, Sandra started to cry:
“On the weekends I miss my mum. (...) I wish I could go and see here every weekend” [crying].

This example illustrates how people’s emotions and experiences are interrelated: the pain of separation (psychobiography) and the longings for relationships and close communication, togetherness with her mother in Lithuania (situated activity). Situated activity helped me to look at how pain affected “each other”-people’s relationships and their communication. It also helped me to understand how it motivated them to cope, to communicate, and to seek help.

The same interdependence and interrelation of situated activity and psychobiography is seen is Ruta’s case. She left her two children and a husband behind in Lithuania and could not contain her feelings while talking about her separation during the interview:

[Crying] “I couldn’t forget about them for a second. I had a toy teddy, so I would hug that teddy (crying). I would also call them a lot and spend a lot of money on those phone calls. I wanted to get them over as soon as”[crying].

Such acute emotions show nothing different from the other respondents, who found leaving their children (family) behind the biggest challenge and the hardest thing to cope with. However, each of them tried to cope differently, either by crying, cuddling their children’s soft toy, making endless phone calls, working hard to forget it all, or doing crafts, etc. Pain motivates them to do something to lessen or to overcome it.

Sandra describes positive changes in her life since migrating to the UK. In Lithuania, she lived in “constant fear and anxiety” but as time went on, her family re-joined her in the UK, she found a new partner and she finally “found peace” in her soul.
Experiences, no matter how bad or good they are, do change with time. As Sandra’s case shows, the psychobiography domain influences individual perception of social reality, but it also shows how it changes over time, in a way that other social theories, particularly on agency and structure, were not able to provide.

5.5.1.2. POWER AND TIME

The theory of social domains, all four interrelated domains, points to the fact that all people have feelings and such drastic experiences as migration come at a cost: emotional pain, sadness, depressive, suicidal thoughts, etc. However, it also shows that “time is a healer”- that power of helplessness does not last forever and, that through managing coping mechanisms, people’s situation changes for the better. For example, power of managing situation ranges from being vulnerable and “lost in the system” to being confident and capable of coping and dealing with one’s situation. People manage to find employment, settle in the UK, learn language, find new friends and form new networks and eventually get family reunited. It raises ones self-esteem, self-worth, pride, satisfaction and joy.

Theory of social domains also point out the fact that pain, as described by the research participants, is closely related to trust and security. Pain is a signal to communicate to the individual that they are struggling and that they need to rescue and protect themselves. They need to make themselves secure. It is about preserving and securing stable living and taking control of their situation. If, for example, at the beginning of people’s migration experience, structure is in ascendance/power and agency is constrained by uncertainties of a new environment, as time goes by and as individuals acquire more skills and tools to navigate through new structures, such as language, culture, education system, they gain more power to mould their lives.
According to my findings, the migration process is accompanied by constant emotional turbulence. Findings also show that there is a power shift over time. At the beginning of settlement, feelings of separation are extremely acute. But as time goes by, and with more help and support, and also when communication is in place and people accept their situation as a temporary one, then pain diminishes and people embrace a better quality life. Thus, Layder’s view that social reality is stretched through time and space makes great sense.

5.5.2. TRUST AND (ONTOLOGICAL) SECURITY

Trust and security are two of very few main themes that go across all of my categories. Layder (2006) explains this phenomenon through domain theory: “(...) anxiety and insecurity are never completely allayed, conquered or successfully ‘inoculated’ against. Every situation must be regarded as a potential threat to inner security for even the most calm and mentally stable of us. What distinguishes those who are (or seem to be) unfazed by ordinary social existence and those who are socially disabled by chronic fear and anxiety is that the former is able to manage and deal with the uncertainties and threats (to self-esteem and security) that are inherent features of everyday existence. In this sense security and trust are forever ‘unfinished’ and incomplete. They are best understood as temporary, personal (although social as well as psychological in nature) ‘accomplishments’ generated within everyday encounters. Thus trust and security vary from situation to situation depending on the level of threat they pose as well as the individual’s personal level of tolerance” (Layder, 1997, cited by Layder, 2006, p. 275).

My findings show that it is very unsettling for the individual to go through unknown stages, so the concept of security is what drives people to act. Lithuanian migrants have to deal with fear and anxiety from the moment they take the decision to migrate. It affects everyone involved through the fear of uncertainty, doubts about the decision made and the guilt of leaving family
behind. This results in a feeling that the whole world seems to be collapsing for them. Therefore, **ontological security** is extremely important to all migrants and their family members left behind, since emotional stability helps to deal with emerging migration challenges. If there is uncertainty about the future, anxiety and fear interferes with everyone’s daily lives and emotions involved.

According to Layder (2006), ontological security is the core of one’s psychological wellbeing that includes **trust** and **safety**. Layder (2006) further explains that the basic sense of security develops early in childhood and continues throughout one’s life. This is reinforced by daily social routines and, when those are broken or disturbed by, for example, parents living abroad or separation from home community, friends and family, it brings confusion, anxiety and anger. My findings also show that new challenges, new environment, new culture and new language, brings a great anxiety to adults at the beginning of their settlement in the UK, whereas for children, changes in their daily routine, such as not having parents around and relying on family friends or grandparents to look after them, bring a new dynamic, stress and emotional disturbance. However, my findings show that people are ready to take those economic, social and psychological risks, pain included, in order to provide for their families and gain financial awards later.

I found it important to look at the impact of migration on individuals and their family relationships in the light of ontological security, since it is essential to one’s security system and to their psychological wellbeing. Layder (2004) argues that the basic security system is “a network of social and psychological processes and is the bedrock of the self and personal identity” (Layder, 2004, p. 26). According to him, if one’s security system is in balance, namely if one’s psychological, emotional, physical and other needs are met, then “the self will remain strong and adequately supported” (Layder, 2004, p. 26). Findings also show that **trust** is inseparable from **security**. It’s like the other side of the same coin. If children
trust their parents’ decision and if parents trust their children’s coping mechanism during the time they are separated, then managing the situation gets easier. And, as my findings show, trust and security require communication. The more families communicate, express their motivations and discuss challenges and obstacles together, the more trust they have for each other, and the more ready they are to embrace the temporary insecurity together.

My findings show that that communication place a huge role in people’s ability to maintain and sustain their family relationships. Layder (2004) explains it through concepts such as ontological security, power and self-control. People are doing their relationships rather than accepting ascribed traditional roles: husband/wife, parent/child. What they are doing together and how they interact is what makes relationships grow or shrink. Layder (2004) argues that relationships are not an expression of cultural expectations (i.e. mother-daughter; sister-brother), but rather “about the shared activities the participants engage in and how they act and interact with one another in specific situations” (Layder, 2004, p. 44).

Layder (2004) argues that “Undoubtedly there is a sense in which early childhood experiences of intimacy with caretakers and the predictable routines of daily life (which create a sense of safety, comfort and familiarity) serve to underpin ontological security in adult life” (Layder, 2004, p. 41).

When it is broken, as it is shown is Sandra’s case, the inner world crashes, since it has no power to withstand the unfolding new social reality in the face of migration (moving from familiar to unfamiliar environments, neighbourhoods, communities, languages, cultures, norms, values and mores).

“The hardest thing for my children was to be in an unfamiliar environment. At home [Lithuania] they used to be at my mum’s house in the country where they felt safe and secure. There were familiar fields, nature, and their daily tasks. They had it all. They knew
exactly what they had to do; their duties and responsibilities. They felt calm and safe there. They lost it all. Therefore it was very very hard for them to adapt here” [Sandra].

Layder (2004) states that each individual has “a unique form, an amount of ontological security which may increase or decrease in response to different situations and junctures in our lives” (Layder, 2004, p. 41). Once again, it shows the uniqueness of one’s psychobiography (personal history and inner resources) and interconnectedness of all social domains, situated activity social settings and contextual resources.

With the Lithuanian migrant situation in the UK, ontological security is affected by the migration process to the unknown. My findings show what a crucial role support systems play during that period, and especially during the transition stage. Control over one’s life is regained with the support of families, friends and social services. These are the ones who introduce the new environment and the new social reality and help to “own it” and to have a sense of belonging. Regaining control over one’s personal situation restores one’s ontological security, where people feel safe and in control of their lives.

5.5.3. AGENCY AND CONTROL

While discussing agency, Layder (2004) argues that it cannot be understood without referring to “a person’s self-identity and their emotional and psychological make-up” (Layder, 2004, p. 12). He argues that much of human behaviour evolves around emotional needs, such as being loved, a sense of worth as well as approval. Layder (2004) states that we all are embroiled in a balancing act between self-control and controlling others and, if it is not well managed, emotional eruption is inevitable.

Layder (2004) discusses interpersonal control and its importance in modern society as well as in our emotional life - our feelings and responses (Layder, 2004, p. 1). Layder (2004) argues that control can be understood in a softer way such as
influencing others through charm and persuasion, as well as convincing others that something is in their best interests. Layder (2004) states that this differs from manipulative or violent control, since another person has a free will to resist.

Layder (2004) argues that control is paramount in managing one’s situation. He defines three areas of controlling: self, other people, and an individual’s current life situation. According to Layder (2004), self-control allows people to master their life situations/social world. Knowing themselves and being in charge of their emotions and responses is necessary “in order to win influences and exert control in the wider social world” (Layder, 2004, p. 13). Whereas benign [kind/nonthreatening] control of others involves an ability to read their feelings and to respond in an adequate way that creates a mutual satisfaction.

According to Layder (2004), benign control plays “a central role in social life; social interaction is impossible without it” (Layder, 2004, p. 37). He further emphasizes that benign control “underpins many social skills and personal qualities, including emotional intelligence, personal appeals, a sense of efficacy and competence, self-confidence, self-esteem and personal significance. It also helps to deal with uncertainty and unpredictability in encounters” (Layder, 2004, p. 37).

The last area of control, according to Layder, is a control of current life situations such as work, leisure and private life. Layder (2004) argues that “The common focus of these possible objects of control is the individual’s dependence on them for the fulfilment or satisfaction of needs, concerns and problems” (Layder, 2004, p. 14).

It shows the complexity of a migrant’s life, when they have to juggle with their own emotional needs (being loved, missed, cared for, appreciated), as well as caring for, and keeping in order, the ones who were left behind, as well as work colleagues, landlords, officials they encounter, and finally controlling their
current life situation. It is no wonder that emotions are involved and self-confidence suffers. It also shows the interrelations of all four domains of social reality. For example: Who is the person, what inner resources does s(he) possess, what is his/her psychosocial make-up? What is the power balance? How they are influenced or how do they influence others (situated activity) in social settings, and in what context?

Answering these questions shows a very complex picture of Lithuanian migrants’ lives. My findings show the different coping strategies people possess. Some people try to manage their situation by immersing themselves in work and earning money as future investment. Others surrender to the immediate challenges and “let it all go” through expressing their emotions, such as crying or being angry at the situation and the people around them.

Some people invest in preparation by arranging schooling and care for the left behind family members as well as by setting a time for reunification and establishing means of communication. Others migrate with short notice in hope that the situation will sort it itself out.

My findings show that teenagers also have different responses to separation from their parents. Some, like Migle, embrace the responsibilities of looking after a younger sibling, whereas others, like Vesta, cannot find the strength to cope with separation and consider suicide. However, both cases are closely related to situated activity and social settings. Migle lives at home, while Vesta is a lodger at her grandmother’s house. One has been left temporarily whereas the other has not seen her mother for two years. Migle has extended support (aunts, uncles, grandparents) but Vesta only has her ill grandmother.

5.5.3.1. EMOTIONS AND CONTROL

the psychological dispositions of the individual” (Layder, 2004, p. 24). He further discusses the role emotions play in self-identities and social conduct. "If there is not enough validation and support for emotional needs, then a person’s self-esteem and self-confidence will suffer and deteriorate” (Layder, 2004, p. 25). He argues that the psychological wellbeing of the individual depends upon “a robust self-security system” and if there is not enough emotional support, the self-system will not be able to endure both internal (such as self-doubt leading to loss of self-confidence) and external threats (which undermine the individual’s position, status, power, skills, personality, making the self vulnerable) (Layder, 2004, p. 25).

Layder (2004) also states that self is not only the centre of “awareness in which emotional needs compete for attention, but it is also an executive centre” (Layder, 2004, p. 26), by which he means that individuals arrange their needs in such order of priority “as a prelude for formulating and shaping his or her behaviour” (Layder, 2004, p. 26). In this way, the self becomes the source of the action. “This executive self creates relative order out of the potential chaos of feeling responses that threaten to swamp action and bog it down” (Layder, 2004, p. 27). Layder (2004) explains that the self needs to sort those emotional needs in a priority order in order to be able to deal with chaos.

My findings show that people chose different coping strategies, especially during the transition stage. One of them is to fulfil the initial goal of migrating by finding employment and providing for the family, and only then deal with the emotional needs. Otherwise, people would feel as if they were overwhelmed by the emotional strains of separation and practical obligations. In other words, having priorities and dealing with emerging issues, helped Lithuanian migrants find a path through the chaos. However, Layder (2004) also points to the fact that the way people prioritise and make decisions depends on individual
psychobiographies. He states that, “What appears to be rational from one person’s point of view may not be so from another’s” (Layder, 2004, p. 27).

Layder (2004) used the example of a child’s development to illustrate that “The self and processes of control exists within a social field – a changing network of social relationships and a constantly unfolding life situation” (Layder, 2004, p. 27). He draws on Piaget’s theory of child development. In order to develop into a competent adult, the child needs to explore and make sense of the environment. They also need to gain skills to manage the ever changing social reality.

That also connects with my findings. My respondents found it difficult to manoeuvre in a complex system of a new culture until they learned how it worked. Taking control of one’s situation and learning how system works gives confidence and a self-belief that the situation can be changed for the better. It also gives a feeling of being in control.

At the other end of the spectrum, Layder (2004) explains what happens when one cannot handle the situation (internal, external) and feels out of control. Layder (2004) further explains the components of being in control notion: being independent, avoiding helplessness and possessing emotional intelligence.

5.5.3.2. BEING IN AND OUT OF CONTROL

Layder (2004) argues that in order to be in control of one’s life situation, an individual has to avoid helplessness or victimisation, such as a broken marriage or an unfulfilling job. He, or she, should also keep a healthy balance between relatedness and separateness, namely keeping one’s personal space while being involved in personal relationships. Emotional intelligence is another important social skill that allows one to have a feeling of being in control. As an example, Layder (2004) talks about being able to read other people’s moods, emotions and body language. Not only being able to recognize but also being able to interpret it correctly in order to predict their actions and reactions. However, Layder (2004)
emphasizes that “It’s not just the management of others’ emotions that is at stake here. Being able to manage your own feelings is also crucial because emotional self-control through the restraint of immediate impulses is important for success in life” (Layder, 2004, p. 31).

For the Lithuanian migrants, out of control notions such as unpredictability, the uncertainty of embracing a new social reality, moving to another country, another social system as well as helplessness and vulnerability could be prevented by taking control of ones situation in the form of preparation, anticipation of challenges and thorough planning. My findings confirm these as a solution to managing one’s migration situation more successfully.

5.5.3.3. MANAGING UNKNOWN

According to Layder (2004), “entering every encounter is like starting out on a journey (albeit usually brief) in which the destination is uncertain. It is this sense of uncertainty that initially prompts up to seek as much personal control as possible over the unfolding of the little drama that transpires when people come together” (Layder, 2004, p. 35). It leads to my findings that it is very easy to have an overwhelming feeling of being out of control of one’s situation. Uncertainty and unpredictability cause emotional turmoil, thus effecting everyone around. The support systems, namely emotional support and encouragement, as well as learning, for example, how the system works, all help an individual to regain control over unfolding events and to manage them productively, without causing too much damage to the individual’s psychological wellbeing or to their relationship with the family.

5.5.3.3.1. ANICIPATION

“The individual reduces levels of ‘uncertainty anxiety’ by being ready for any problems that may arise. In particular, a prior orientation to control allows the
individual to prepare for any untoward events or happenings that may take them by surprise (…)” (Layder, 2004, p. 39).

Layder refers to prior orientation to control as mental preparation by sketching a future event in one’s mind and going through different scenarios in case it happens in reality. This makes them mentally prepared and diminishes levels of uncertainty and anxiety. Most importantly, it makes one feel being in control.

However, Layder (2004) admits that, in the case of personal encounters through situated activity, this prior orientation to control may not work. He explains that because of the increasing and unfolding nature of encounters “we can never fully or completely grasp it in the controlling sense. (...). We can only ever achieve partial and fleeting control over the ongoing chaos of routine encounters” (Layder, 2004, p. 40).

5.6. REFLECTION

The theory of social domains and particularly the domain of psychobiography showed me that feelings and emotions are vivid during the transition stage of migration. And, due to their intensity, they can either make or break family relationships.

The psychobiography domain unfolded the most important themes of my research: emotions, feelings, security, trust, coping, managing situation. They are all closely interrelated and, by only applying the psychobiography domain on my findings, I was able to see its importance and connection in relation to my research questions: What is happening during migration process (emotional havoc, fear, anxiety and insecurity) and how can it be managed?

The psychobiography domain helped me to realise how the pain, which accompanies Lithuanian migrants throughout the process of separation, dictates the tools to manage the situation, in order to regain ontological security
(normality and predictability in one’s life) through coping strategies: trust, communication, keeping busy, pursuing hobbies and education.

My findings show that, in order to sustain family relationships, a support network is crucial during that period, and domains of social activity, social settings and contextual resources help to look at it in great detail.

The theory of social domains showed me that any changes in social reality affect individuals and their family relationship. The complexity of those relationships and the general Lithuanian migration phenomenon were amenable to analysis and understanding through the lens of four interconnected social domains: Psychobiography, Situated activity, Social settings and Contextual resources.

Migration has both positive and negative effects on an individual and on a family. My findings show a very complex picture of Lithuanian migration in the UK. Findings suggest that migration experience should not be taken and simplified as a chess move from A to B. It does involve feelings and emotions that not only affect individuals’ wellbeing, but ripples to its environment and splashes on to their families, friends, work colleagues and communities. My findings also show that ontological security is at the core of the migration progress.

Emotional pain is not considered a serious obstacle to migration, nor is it seen as a challenge to overcome. However, my findings show that it is a very debilitating effect on people’s ability to manage their situation and move on. When people’s emotions are disturbed, when the “normality” they knew no longer exists, people need help to embrace and accept their new reality and new circumstances. With the right help and support, people going through those hard times are able to find the strength to cope and manage their situations.

My research contributes to the knowledge of how people achieve personal, family security. It is all about coping and the tools involved in that process. My
findings show that people cope in different ways but that keeping in regular touch with the loved ones (phoning, “skyping”, e-mailing, writing letters) helps to unite them all.

How people manage their pain (psychobiography), their situation and their relationships (situated activity and social settings) is very much dependent on their social capital, for example the language, the people they know and whether official help is available, in other words, contextual recourses. With the framework of social domains, Layder provided me a tool to better understand my findings.

5.7. SUMMARY OF DISCUSSION CHAPTER

In this chapter, I looked at the existing literature and where my findings fit or add more depth to the existing knowledge.

I discussed my search for the middle-range theory and when I discovered that it could not explain the depth of my findings I turned to social dualisms. I looked at Lithuanian migration experiences through different social dischotomies, being particularly keen to find out if Agency or Structure could explain the roots of Lithuanian migration - reasons, motivations, challenges, obstacles, family relationships. However, it appeared to be too complex to be interpreted by the use of a dualism framework. When I came across the ‘theory of social domains’ it helped me to look at the phenomenon though four interrelated domains: psychobiography, social settings, situated activity and contextual resources. By applying Layder’s theory of social domains, I was able to see how the concept of power shifts/stretches over time from the beginning of ones settlement until their reunification with the family. The theory of social domains also helped me to untangle the layers of the Lithuanian migration phenomenon which I investigated. It showed me that people’s experiences could not be unified and that people’s coping mechanisms depend on their inner and outer recourses, on
their psychological DNA, on the networks they obtain, on the knowledge they have about migration process as well as the existing support system in a host country.

*Power of emotions, one’s ontological security* should also not be underestimated in an individual’s journey, and, in the same way, *control*, in order to manage ones situation successfully.

Although my research answered the initial research question of how migration to the UK affects Lithuanian family relationships, there were many more related and interesting themes /questions that emerged during data collection and analysis that would be particularly useful to investigate further.

In the next chapter, I discuss those studies and present recommendations for the official support needed to help new Lithuanian migrants to sustain families and help them cope through the transition stage. These recommendations were presented by the research participants themselves.
6. CONTRIBUTION, REFLECTION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1. CONTRIBUTION

The goal of my research was to provide a valuable study on Lithuanian migrants who, after the expansion of the EU, migrated to the UK in search of a better life. From the outset I asked the following questions: was it worth it? What did they gain? What did they lose? Was the immigration price worth leaving their families and sacrificing the relationships with their spouses and children in return for the material gains? How did they cope with separation, homesickness and isolation? What has it done to their self-esteem, self-worth and wellbeing? Is there any help available from the British social and health services to assist with their adaptation?

My focus was Lithuanian family relationships and how they were affected by migration to the UK. Throughout my research I explored what kind of issues families faced during migration, especially during the transition stage, and which aspects affected their relationships the most.

I discovered the challenges that Lithuanian families face during the migration process and the positive and negative experiences that they encountered. I also found out that the largest impact upon family relationships occurred during the transition stage. To this end, it was apparent that regularity and the quality of communication were key factors towards lessening the negative impacts on the family unit.

In this chapter, I look at my contribution to the migration literature, as a whole and to the studies on Lithuanian migration with particular emphasis on the Lithuanian community in the East Midlands and East Anglia. I also reflect on my research journey: the lessons learned, namely what could have been done
differently, my biggest challenges, and the discoveries I made. This chapter concludes with several unanswered questions and recommendations for future studies in this field. I also present a list of recommendations to improve existing social policies and services available to Lithuanian migrants.

6.1.1. CONTRIBUTION TO MIGRATION LITERATURE

My research expands upon the literature on migration networks (Bucaite-Vilke and Rosinaite, 2011; Bartram et al., 2014; Castles et al., 2014). My study confirms that networks play a major role in the individual adaptation process. My research contributes to the discussion of the role of networks in the migration process by exploring how formal and informal networks in the UK help Lithuanian migrants cope with the challenges of migration. These challenges included employment and accommodation searches, access to services and resources, maintaining family relationships and, the adaptation to a new culture.

My research also adds to the literature by confirming that migration is complex and cannot be described or explained by one migration or social theory (Kukonenko, 2012; Castles et al., 2014). In my literature review and discussion I highlighted the reasons and motivations for migration, as discussed by a number of migration theories (socio-economic, world systems, network systems, chains migration etc.). My research shows that, indeed, migration is a very complex issue and there is no single explanation as to why people migrate (Kuzmickaite, 2003; Martin and Zurcher, 2008; Poviliunas, 2012). The research participants chose, or were compelled, to migrate due to a variety of personal, social and economic reasons. However, each participant is unique. People experience the migration process differently, depending on their personal circumstances, their individual psychological/sociological resources, as well as the social and cultural capital they possess. This was clearly seen after applying Layder’s theory of social domains. None of the Lithuanian migrants’ stories were identical. The only
common theme among them was a desire to make a better life for themselves and their families.

Therefore, my research contributed to the literature in this field by exploring the coping mechanisms Lithuanian migrants embraced during their various stages of their migration. In addition, it highlighted the positive and negative effects they experienced during the transition stage (while being apart from their families), and the solutions they engaged in order to manage the temporary situation of separation and adapt to a new country, culture and customs. Upon reflection, the respondents’ felt they developed coping mechanisms that had helped them to survive the transition stage. They also indicated some particular services that were working well or that were absent, but would have helped them to adapt more smoothly into a new country (see the Recommendations section).

My research did not by-pass structural theories that attempt to explain human migration by socioeconomic factors (Kukonenko, 2012; Castles et al., 2014). Rather, this research shows the complexity of the phenomena and the need for a multi-dimensional perspective. My research contributes to the literature on migration by incorporating structural theories but not wholly relying upon them. While many Lithuanians do migrate because of a better job and life prospects in the UK, where they migrate - is greatly defined by agency. Network systems, such as an already-established Lithuanian community in the UK, provides migrants with initial resources to make their settlement in the UK as smooth and as efficient as possible.

The strength of my research is in contributing to the knowledge of Lithuanian migration studies. I identified and explored Lithuanian communities in East Anglia and the East Midlands, which are further expanded in this chapter. Furthermore, my research contributes to the migration literature as a whole, by providing an insight into what is happening to Lithuanian families during the migration process, including what challenges they experience during separation.
(loneliness, depression, sadness, emotional distress). It also shows those challenges during the reunification process and the impact if a new family member is introduced during the separation stage.

My research challenges current literature on migration that suggests that it results in divorce (Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007; Vladicesku, 2008). I found that despite the tension (that lengthy separation brings tension to family relationships), being open in one’s motivation, making a clear timeline for reunification and maintaining regular communication, meant this tension could be managed and overcome. Consequently, spousal relationships were stabilised. My research strongly emphasises the importance of communication in managing the migration process, especially during the transition stage.

My findings also contribute to the literature by illustrating that a long separation may affect children’s behaviour. It also reaffirms the importance of preparation and regular communication as the main tools/conditions to managing family separation while apart. In addition, I further add to Leliugiene’s (2005) findings that the children of families who keep their children informed before migration cope better. Informed behaviours included explaining the reasons and motivations for migration, while also making a clear timetable for reunification.

I built upon the current knowledge in terms of the importance of communication while families are apart. My findings support the literature of Grinkeviciute (2010), who found that communication was vital, especially for teenagers, while the family unit was apart.

My research does not support the findings of Grinberg and Grinberg, 1984; Bulik, 1987; Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000; Senberg, 2000 and Zilber et al., 2001. They all state that teenagers fill the gap of separation with other substances, such as drugs, food or alcohol. My research did not identify any of those issues among the research participants. However, it does agree with the migration literature that
proposes how separation affects teenagers’ self-esteem and behaviour. This could be mitigated through regular communication between the teenager and their parents, as well as an established support network for those left behind.

My findings contribute to the works of Papadopolous et al., 2004; Segal and Mayadas, 2005; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007, who found that migration had an effect on a migrant’s psychological wellbeing. However, the analysis of my findings indicate that the effect is the greatest at the beginning of settlement into the UK (or at the beginning of separation, if left-behind). Later, when people are acquainted with the UK system (finding a job and establishing support networks) the adaptation process takes place. It is challenging, but with the right support from family, friends, the Lithuanian community and Governmental organisations, it is more likely to be successfully managed (see the Recommendations section for a further discussion).

6.1.2. CONTRIBUTION TO LITHUANIAN MIGRATION LITERATURE

My research contributes to Lithuanian migration literature, specifically. At the time of writing, very few studies were conducted in the UK or, more accurately, included samples from the UK. For example, Kuznecoviene (2009) studied Lithuanian identity issues; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene (2007) studied the formation of transnational families and the process of adaptation to the demands of this new family life, and Pranckeviciene et al (2015) undertook a comparative study of the wellbeing of Lithuanians living in Lithuania compared to Lithuanians living abroad. However, the majority of scholars studying Lithuanian migration were based in Lithuania with respondents who were temporary workers, returning migrants, or the children who were left behind. My research contributes to Lithuanian migration literature by revealing the challenges that Lithuanian migrants face at the beginning of their settlement in the UK, especially during the transition stage when their families (mostly children) are left behind in Lithuania. It reveals the migration experience of
Lithuanians in the UK and how it affects their family relationships, how they cope, how they deal with a new situation and how they manage their separation.

Furthermore, this research contributes to migration knowledge by challenging the negative literature on migration experiences and consequences. It explores the complexity of the phenomenon discovering positive, not negative aspects of Lithuanian migration to the UK. These includes improved lifestyles and family relationships, challenges bringing families closer, working part-time allowing more time to spend with each other, new family gain, freedom of sexuality, personal growth and development, and increased self-esteem due to personal achievements in migration (Bremner, 2011). (See my conference presentation on Interplay of Life Styles and Culture. Lithuanian Migrants in the UK in Appendix 27).

In addition, my research adds a further dimension to Lithuanian migration literature by exploring the impact upon those children left behind. The works of (Uzkuraite, 2005; VTAKI, 2006; Garkauskas, 2007; Lukaityte, 2007; Malinauskas, 2006, 2007; Maslauskaite and Stankuniene, 2007; SADM, 2008; Eidukonis, 2011) highlighted the negative impact that parents’ migration has on children’s long-term emotional and physical wellbeing. My data reveals that, although migration is a life changing event, the negative impacts can be reduced if appropriate arrangements are made prior to migration. This includes families communicating regularly about their daily issues so that they feel listened to and appreciated. A clear time-scale for their family reunion is also instrumental in reducing the negative impact on children.

My research contributes to the Lithuanian migration literature by challenging some of the negative aspects studied by Rakauskiene and Ranceva (2012) who stated that migration weakened family ties. My data revealed the opposite. The challenges and obstacles of separation brings families closer together, provided there is regular communication between those leaving and those left behind. Furthermore, by collective decision making, overcoming obstacles together and,
by mentally and emotionally accepting the temporary separation for a better future, family bonds are strengthened.

6.1.3. CONTRIBUTION TO A BETTER UNDERSTANDING OF LITHUANIAN COMMUNITIES IN EAST ANGLIA AND THE EAST MIDLANDS

During my research period, there was a complete absence of studies on Lithuanian migration experiences in the East Midlands and East Anglia. Notably, both of these regions have attracted large numbers of Lithuanian migrants in recent years. My research shows that East Anglia is attractive for Lithuanian migrants who do not have language skills and are ready to do manual work on farms or in factories in this region. East Anglia has a flourishing informal Lithuanian (Eastern European) community, where people can find jobs and communicate in Lithuanian, Russian or Polish. There are plenty of Lithuanian shops, bakeries, hairdressers and beauty salons, bars and restaurants. There are Saturday schools and even Lithuanian banks.

By contrast, the East Midlands attracts skilled workers and people with higher qualifications who find themselves working in the Education or Service sectors. The East Midlands has a formal and very old Lithuanian community centre where a diaspora thrives on maintaining national heritage through cultural events, lectures, meetings, concerts and religious celebrations.

My research contributes to Lithuanian migration literature by exploring the different needs and aspirations of Lithuanian migrants moving to these two different regions. Indeed, it could be regarded as a class divide. The Lithuanians, who were seeking unskilled jobs (‘working class’), had no prior English language knowledge and enjoyed lower culture (pop music, basketball clubs, etc.) moved to East Anglia. Lithuanians with higher aspirations and qualifications (‘middle class’), who wanted “to make it”, aimed for academic, IT, and higher-paid professional jobs and appreciated higher culture (museums, classical music,
literature events, etc.). These migrants chose to relocate to the East Midlands. This research explored the aspirations and needs in those respective areas with particular emphasis on the types of support people need during the transition stage. In East Anglia, most respondents did not speak English and relied on other Lithuanians, family, friends, and the extended community to help with their adaptation. In the East Midlands, Lithuanians had a good command of English and sought official help at the beginning of their settlement, such as Governmental institutions and organisations. Therefore, my research contributes to a greater understanding of the type of social support needed in these respective areas. For instance, respondents in the East Midlands emphasised the demand for centralised Governmental information and support centres for newcomers, where they could access all information and support concerning housing, job seeking, childcare etc. Meanwhile, participants from East Anglia, relied on “informal support systems” where they could find a job, accommodation and communicate their needs through the help of other Lithuanians. These respondents regarded the official support system as a “waste of money”, since nobody had the time for the language courses or the other migration programmes and courses that the local Government tried to provide.

6.1.4. CONTRIBUTION TO METHODOLOGY

I added to the knowledge of Lithuanian migration by studying the Lithuanian migration experience in the UK using qualitative research methods. I also adopted methodological triangulation in my data collection, combining face-to-face interviews, Skype, focus groups, and remote discussions. For the data analysis, I adopted the grounded theory approach and interpreted my findings by applying the theory of social domains. All of those research methods and frameworks added credibility and validity to my research, making it a valuable addition to the existing migration literature.
I utilised Skype (particularly its instant messaging services) for data collection. Together with remote discussion, I found Skype an invaluable tool for data collection and involving people in discussion who would otherwise not be able to take part in the research due to logistics and personal circumstances (Bremner, 2015).

Upon reviewing the literature, I identified gaps in the existing knowledge that could benefit from the findings of my research. Although my research is about families in transition as opposed to transnational families, Mazukkato and Shans (2008), comment that “none of the studies collected data simultaneously from family members in different locations” (Mazzukato and Shans, 2008, p. 7). However, I have interviewed the same family members in both countries - country of origin (Lithuania), and the receiving country (the UK).

The fact that there is very little information on Lithuanian adolescent migrants in the UK makes my research original. I interviewed and analysed data gathered from Lithuanian migrant families and their teenage children, born in the UK and in Lithuania.

In terms of my methodological approach, I incorporated verification tools such as member check through focus groups and Word Frequency Query (WFQ). Although my research was qualitative in nature, by combining elements of quantitative research, (WFQ: counting the most frequent words within the main categories) it gave my research greater depth and rigour. Furthermore, by combining different methods for data collection and analysis, I provided an example of methodological pluralism, which can be used in further studies.
6.1.5. CONTRIBUTION TO SOCIAL THEORY

To date, the theory of social domains has not been applied to the Lithuanian migration experience in the UK. Thus, it is somewhat of a novelty. Therefore, rather than looking at the phenomenon from an Agency/Structure dualistic perspective, this research viewed it through the lens of four interconnected domains: psychobiography, situated activity, social settings and contextual resources. By applying Layder’s theory of social domains, I provided an insight into the depth of human motivation and the experiences amidst Lithuanian-UK migration and into the impact of these on family relationships. Complex, interweaved layers of the migration phenomenon were unfolded, which demonstrated that the migration process and its effect on the individual, family, community and society could not be explained by applying a singular theory. Furthermore, the findings illustrated that the micro and macro levels are interconnected and that a comprehensive understanding of the experiences and their effect can only be grasped (let alone understood and explained) by applying a multilayered approach, such as the theory of social domains.

The theory of social domains clearly identified that Lithuanian migrants’ experiences during the migration process are influenced by four distinct, yet closely related, social domains. First, from the agent’s perspective - psychobiography (people’s sociological and psychological state, background, values, norms and inner resources) and second - situated activity (people’s imminent relationships with their friends, family and partners). The Lithuanian migration experience to the UK is also influenced by structural constraints and can be analysed through the lens of two further social domains, namely contextual resources (accumulated cultural resources as well as distributional inequality), and social settings (school, work, community, i.e. locations, where the situated activity takes place).
It was evident that the migration process is a very complex experience. However, I found the theory of social domains a useful framework in disentangling and interpreting the findings of my data collection. By its very nature, the theory of social domains is attuned to the complexity of migration theories.

The theory of social domains showed that people, as well as the whole migration process, could not be explained in binary terms since it is multi layered and complex phenomena. Migrants’ experiences were defined by their individual background and inner and outer resources. This became more apparent by applying four, (psychobiography, situated activity, social settings and contextual resources) rather than two, of the most common sociological domains: agency and structure.

6.2. REFLECTION AND EVALUATION OF RESEARCH PROCESS

When I look back at the research process, I see a very exciting yet daunting and bumpy journey (at times). Before starting my academic journey, I thought I knew everything about conducting this type of research. I was confident that I had enough knowledge about research methods, data collection and analysis. I even asked my supervisors if it were reasonable to complete and submit my work a year or two before the actual deadline! Little did I know that having theoretical knowledge and putting it into practice were two completely different issues. I lost count of how many times I stumbled over organisational, methodological and ethical issues during the process. It is only thanks to the constant and persistent guidance of my immensely dedicated supervisors that I found my way through “the woods.”

Using Grounded Theory (GT) for my research was a constant learning curve. Although it was sometimes hard to know which of the GT “grands” to follow (Glaser, Strauss and Corbin, Charmaz), the common structures they all provided
to undertake data collection and analysis were invaluable for a “novice researcher. By applying GT, I realised that it was a very creative and flexible approach and, as such, it was not a prerequisite to follow one grand GT theorist in particular. This allowed me to adapt my research approach, providing I followed the main principles such as theoretical sampling, initial, intermediate, and advanced coding, core category identification, story line building, and generating theory from grounded results. I learned to step back and watch the story unfold through the data. The anticipation and the feeling of joy upon the discovery never left me throughout the whole GT process. However, along the way I kept questioning whether I followed the right “procedures.” Indeed, I was relieved to read Corbin’s interview which stated that during her PhD she did not completely grasp the methodology of GT, even though Strauss himself was supervising her. Her knowledge and skill developed later as she completed more projects and became more familiar with the GT approach.

6.2.1. GROUNDED (ACTION) THEORY

I found it fascinating reading about GT, from the classical or pure (Glaserian) objectivists/symbolic interactionists (Glaser and Corbin) to the constructivist GT approach (advocated by Charmaz). Although all of those approaches were very interesting and appealing for qualitative data analysis (QDA), I found myself more drawn to Glaser and Corbin’s philosophy about action research. I do believe in action and applicable research as a means to change, or at least to make an impact on the situation (helping to sustain Lithuanian families affected by migration to the UK). For this reason I chose the GT methodology for my research with my everlasting ideal of ‘changing the world’ for the better.

The results were grounded in the participants’ experiences and described in their own words, which enabled me to form a narrative about their experiences. This could help other Lithuanians considering migration to the UK. In this sense, this research not only contributes to a gap in the knowledge of Lithuanian migration
experiences to the UK and its effect on family relationships, but also offers advice to newcomers through the eyes of the research participants. This unique insight may enable them to overcome the challenges with less stress and turmoil.

It was my goal to create a body of robust research evidence that would influence Government and policy-makers. My research findings could further be presented at conferences, meetings and in the Lithuanian media in order for people to make an informed choice and take appropriate action before migrating. This way, it would continue to enable potential Lithuanian-UK migrants to weigh up the pros and cons before they decide to migrate and, if they do migrate, my research has provided them with the formula on how to succeed: ‘Communication’ and ‘Preparation’ are the key notions in the migration process. By learning about British culture and laws, learning the English language, finding a job and a place to live before migrating, and by arranging care for family members left behind, all this helps to ease the whole migration process.

6.2.2. DATA COLLECTION

I have learned many invaluable lessons throughout the data collection process, for example, how to conduct interviews, in terms of what to do when silence struck and when people feel upset walking down the “memory lane” of their migration experience. I have learned to embrace the silence which, in most cases, resulted in a more thoughtful answer since respondents had more time to consider their responses. In cases of visible distress, I learned to “take time off” and offer the respondents a break or even a termination of the interview. In all cases, respondents wished to continue with the interview.

I also learned a vital lesson about the importance of preparation for the focus groups. The following is an extract from my research diary:

_They say if things can go wrong – they will! With my focus group, it was the case. The projector stopped working minutes before the presentation and instead of a planned seven_
people, only four showed up. There is hope though that they will participate in an online forum (still need to learn a bit more how to conduct it more effectively).

Good preparation was key. I had a plan B, in case something happened to the projector! I printed slides and placed them in individual folders with all of the material needed for the group: Invitation, Consent form, Confidentiality agreement, Discussion plan, questions, “Tasks” and a pen. When the projector eventually gave up, it was very handy to have the slides printed for each participant to follow the presentation.

I practiced my presentation and checked the recording equipment, which malfunctioned during the FG – it was good that I had taken along two recorders at the same time! I also prepared a flipchart. I quickly learned that instead of holding the recording device in my hands, I should put it on a surface as this allowed me to take notes or look at my notes for prompts. In summary, I learned that one can never be too prepared – there is always room for improvement, such as timekeeping, moderation, debriefing after a meeting, note taking, etc.

Last but not least, regarding focus group “lessons”, I learned that if some participants pull out at the very last minute, it is still useful to proceed with the focus group and ask the initial respondent to later contribute to the discussion through remote techniques such as telephone, Skype or e-mail.

However, my biggest learning curve during the data collection was mastering Skype. After conducting Skype interviews for both the first and second stages of my research, I learned initially to allow respondents time to reflect on the question. According to Denscombe (2007), “The quality of their answers might be improved as a result of them having time to think through the issues” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 188). Secondly, I learnt that setting the time for the interview, to have a time span in which they could operate, was useful for both parties. It was difficult to keep a time span for the qualitative interview, especially when the “story flows” and respondents open up and are willing to share their story completely. At times I found myself “diving into the ocean of
overwhelmingly rich data” and I did not want to set any time limit. Instead, I allowed the whole process to be controlled by the respondent. In the future, I should set a time frame and let my respondents know that “an online interview may last up to an hour, but I would like to contact you in the future if I want to clarify some answers”. A key point I have learned is that, as a researcher, I should be in control of the interview process and should not get carried away in the pursuit of getting rich data at the expense of a respondent’s time and potentially, their wellbeing. I strongly believe that (in line with research ethics) a respondent’s wellbeing should come first and a researcher should never forget or abuse that.

Thirdly, I learned that it was important to build rapport during Skype communication. This is even more critical than in the case of face-to-face interviews, since instant messaging (IM) or Skype audio mode, has few visual cues, which makes the interviewing process less fluid. Building rapport is a very important part of successful data collection. As much as it is beneficial for the researcher it may also be helpful, even therapeutic, for the respondent. All of my Skype respondents thanked me at the end of our sessions and some of them even told me that they found it quite therapeutic to open-up and share their stories with a stranger. I quickly realised that I should not underestimate people’s feelings and privacy while trying to raise painful memories and “pull on their emotional strings”. It came after one of my respondents chose instant messaging (IM) rather than a video or audio mode. During our scheduled phone conversation, he hinted to me that he felt nervous about the interview. Therefore, building rapport was paramount. I also learned that starting an interview with general small talk such as “how are you?” helps people to warm-up and slowly get into the “story telling mood.” It also helps them to get used to this type of online interview. In addition, reminding respondents about confidentiality, anonymity and that the respondent’s contribution is invaluable for the research, makes online interviewing go much smoother.
Fourthly, I discovered that Skype’s tools are far more beneficial than a simple e-mail. I learned this when I tried to communicate with a prospective respondent using a range of online communication tools. Initially, they were sent a semi-structured questionnaire via e-mail to gain basic data as a means of checking whether the respondent fitted the sample set. This served its purpose, however the questions were very short and abrupt. When we finally communicated on Skype for the audio interview, the story flowed freely. Hearing the respondent’s voice not only helped to build rapport but also served in a therapeutic way (appreciation in being listened to, and “offloading”). However, I should warn anyone conducting online interviews on sensitive matters, not to play the role of therapist and in spite of the respondent’s vulnerability but to stay objective, professional and focus on the research aim and questions.

My final lesson during the Skype process was that while transcribing interviews, the use of capital letters to emphasise the tone of the respondent/s helped with coding and data analysis.

All the lessons that I have learned during the data collection and analysis process made me, as a scholar, much stronger, more knowledgeable, better experienced and better equipped for future academic work. I possibly could have avoided some of my mistakes, however, learning the hard way through personal experience - helped me to master and “own” it.

6.2.3. MAIN CHALLENGES

Data analysis took longer than initially expected. I did not expect to gather such vast amounts and did not expect the language aspect to play such a key role and be so time-consuming. Research was carried out within Lithuanian migrant communities in the UK in Lithuanian with subsequent translation into English. All of the documents (information pack, consent forms and provisional interview questions) had to be prepared and approved by supervisors in English and then
translated into Lithuanian. The interviews and focus group discussions conducted and transcribed in Lithuanian, then translated into English.

**Reflexivity in qualitative research**

Objectivity versus subjectivity has always been a great debate in Sociology and, in most cases, objectivity is at the forefront for the advocates of quantitative research. Sarantakos (2005) notes that reflexivity is one of the main features of qualitative research. He states that qualitative research “values the reflexivity – the self-awareness - of the researcher” (Sarantakos, 2005, p. 45). Flick (2009) also recognises researcher’s self in research as a part of the knowledge and argues that “Unlike quantitative research, qualitative methods take the researcher’s communication with the field and its members as an explicit part of knowledge instead of deeming it an intervening variable. The subjectivity of the researcher and of those being studied becomes part of the research process. Researcher’s reflection on their actions and observations in the field, their impressions, irritations, feelings, and so on, become data in their own right, forming part of the interpretation, and are documented in research diaries or context protocols” (Flick, 2009, p. 16). I extensively recorded my reflections on the research process in my research diaries.

Denscombe (2007) adds, “no research is ever free from the influence of those who conduct it. (…) The data do not exist ‘out there’ waiting to be discovered (…) but are produced by the way they are interpreted and used by researchers” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 300). He then explains that “The researcher’s identity, values and beliefs play a role in the production and analysis of qualitative data and therefore researchers should be on their guard to distance themselves from their normal, everyday beliefs and to suspend judgements on social issues for the duration of their research” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 300).
Although I tried to follow the GT guidance of impartiality, in practice it was impossible as subconsciously I brought my own understanding, knowledge, values, background and experiences as a Lithuanian migrant living in the UK. On the other hand, being embedded in the process of migration myself, having the same cultural background, speaking the same language and understanding current economic realities in Lithuania, all helped me to build rapport with my respondents. In turn, this rapport helped them to trust me, opening up with an “unedited” version of their stories. This provided quality and in-depth accounts of their migration experiences.

Denscombe (2010) maintains that, “achieving a complete stance on the social world is not possible” (Denscombe, 2010, p. 91). He further explains, “The means we have for constructing and interpreting our social world are the same as those for studying it. When we turn our attention to a particular phenomenon, the way we look at it, the sense we give to it, are part and parcel of the thing. And, for this reason, we cannot step outside our social world in order to gain an objective standpoint or standard measure that can act as an external referent point” (Denscombe, 2010, p. 91).

With my research I was both an insider and an outsider. My language and knowledge of the culture allowed me to better grasp the stories people told me. Despite being “one of them”, I was also an outsider. I was the one asking them research questions and I needed them to answer in order to understand the Lithuanian migration phenomenon in the UK. In most cases, we were sitting on opposite sides of a table, symbolising the divide of our roles in the research.

I was motivated to find out “the true story” of how Lithuanians feel in the migration process, rather than the ones I read about in Lithuanian papers. Being a Lithuanian helped me to comprehend and feel their pain, to relate to their struggle and most importantly to understand the reasons they had to leave their country. I was and am one of them. I believe that the fact that I am a Lithuanian
migrant in the UK has enriched my research by giving it more depth. Moreover, although my position could be read as a subjective view of the reality, Denscombe (2007) justifies relative subjectivity in research as long as there is transparency and a “reflexive account by the researcher concerning the researcher’s self and its impact on the research” (Denscombe, 2007, p. 301).

**Grounded theory (GT) rules regarding literature.** The principal of GT advocates the researcher to only seek relevant literature after theory has emerged. This avoids influencing the data with previous research findings. I found this very challenging. In a normal scenario I would conduct a literature review before starting my research as well as finding articles as my research progressed. In practice, this was impossible. I had to do some reading in order to orientate myself to this particular piece of research and its subject of migration – trends and patterns, family concepts and relationships.

**GT and reflexivity.** Despite not starting GT as a “tabula rasa” and using adapted methods of data collection I was drawn to the pure GT “Glaserian” way. However, with time, I discovered that my chosen method was not as rigid as Glaser’s (theory should emerge by constant comparison and should not be forced) or Strauss and Corbin’s (having a perspective and pre-defining categories to help develop them into theory). Rather, I veered towards the constructivist approach of Charmaz, who regards the whole process of GT as constructed by the researcher, and acknowledges that the researcher comes to the research with their own stance, knowledge and experience.

Charmaz argued that, “In the classic grounded theory works, Glaser and Strauss talk about discovering theory as emerging from data separate from the scientific observer. Unlike their position, I assume that neither data nor theories are discovered. Rather, we are part of the world we study and the data we collect. We **construct** our grounded theories through our past and present involvements and interactions with people, perspectives, and research practices” (Charmaz,
2009, p. 10). She further emphasized that her approach to GT, “explicitly assumes that any theoretical rendering offers an interpretative portrayal of the studied world, not an exact picture of it” (Charmaz, 2009, p. 10).

At the very end of my research, particularly during the data analysis process, I felt that I could not be impartial since I had very similar experiences to those of my respondents. I also realised that, despite being guided by the GT principals of stepping back to let data unfold and speak for itself, the interpretation of my findings may invariably become influenced by my own beliefs and values. While acknowledging my researcher “self” was inevitably present during data analysis and interpretation.

**Family matters.** Working while caring for my two young children and my mother, who moved in with us since being diagnosed with Alzheimer was challenging, to say the least.

**Social Theory** was an emerging tool, used at the end of the research period. I began to be aware of the linkage of social reality and domains and wished I had coded my data straight into related domains, rather than going through a lengthy process of applying GT. Having come to appreciate the value of the **theory of social domains**, and through further reading of Layder’s work, I felt that for future research I would like to use the Adaptive Theory approach. Layder provides tools to adjust my methodology and execute that theory.

Finally, **relationships with the respondents.** Not being able to develop relationships with my respondents was probably the most painful aspect of following research ethics as many of them would have remained friends for life. However, the ethical code of conduct does not allow the formation of friendships with participants.
6.2.3.1. CONCLUSION OF CHALLENGES

Improvements to this study would include a larger sample, with greater numbers of both male participants and more family members. I would expand my research to wider regions of the UK in order to be more representative. The sample could also include comparison with other Eastern Europeans (e.g. Latvians and Polish) in order to discern specific needs or common ones that are applicable to a wider population of migrants. I would also enlarge my focus groups up to ten people.

My first interviews were conducted five years ago and, as one of the respondents explained, “we have passed all adaptation stages and now all is good” [Jurga]. This was unavoidable due to the time constraints of my PhD. However, many qualitative long and mid-term studies risk losing relevance because people have moved on from their initial experience and tend to forget the details. Problems and issues they faced at the beginning of migration no longer seem to be as important. Therefore, I propose longitudinal study in order to really understand the depth of the Lithuanian migration experience in the UK and its effect on families over time.

6.3. RECOMMENDATIONS

6.3.1. RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING RESEARCH AND SOCIAL THEORY

The aim of my research was to find out how Lithuanian-UK migration affects family relationships. However, during the data collection and analysis, a number of themes and questions emerged that would be interesting to explore in order to better understand Lithuanian migration, or the migration phenomenon in general.

Antman (2012) states that “The impact of international migration on spouses may again come down to a question of a short- and long-term effects” (Antman, 2012,
Therefore, in order to find out what was happening to the families and their relationships after 5 – 10 years of settlement in the UK, longitudinal studies could be conducted.

**Studies on adaptation/assimilation issues.** By means of longitudinal and comparative studies, important questions could be answered, such as: do adult migrants go through complete adaptation and assimilation or do they still have strong ties with their homeland? Do they settle in the UK (or any other European country) at the same integration level as their children?

**Studies on elderly migrants.** It would be interesting to study elderly migrants both in the UK and in Lithuania. Many of my respondents represented “the sandwich generation” (the adults who had looked after their children as well as their parents) and were worried about their left-behind elderly parents. I agree with Antman (2012), that it is important for policymakers to understand the impact of adult migration on their left-behind parents. What do they think and how do they feel being left to “grow old” on their own? Can financial support make up for the psychological and physical separation? What do they think of not seeing their grandchildren growing-up or, are they active members of an ever-growing modern virtual family unit? What happens when they finally decide to follow their children abroad?

There are a number of published research studies focusing on the older migrants’ experience in migration (Slonim–Nevo, 1999, 1995; Fitzpatrick and Freed, 2000; Segal and Mayadas, 2005). These focus on their health issues, particularly mental health, however none have studied the Lithuanian elderly migrants’ experiences. It would be valuable to see if their coping mechanisms and support networks differ from other migrants, both during the migration process and back in Lithuania. It is assumed their adaptation would be harder since the older generation tends to have very strong ties with their country and culture. For example, many of them have a “duty” to look after their family graves. If they
decided to stay in Lithuania how do they cope with loneliness, isolation, lack of care and support. Antman (2010c) offers some evidence about the negative impact of children’s migration on the mental health of other family members (parents, grandparents). She suggests it may be responsible for deteriorating physical health of other members. This raises the possibility that the social isolation of elderly parents when their children migrate could be an important mediating factor (Antman, 2010c, p. 22).

**Studies on psychological effect on families and carers.** Mazzukato and Shans (2008) notes that most migration studies focus on how it affects families’ economic situations rather than on any psychological wellbeing. Antman (2012) suggests studying migration from a *gender perspective*, namely in terms of whether gender plays a role on left-behind families. Are the impacts different when a mother migrates, or a father migrates to the UK? Migration literature could also benefit from studies on how migration affects elderly family members or carers who are looking after left-behind children. How do they manage their role? What are the arrangements? What are the benefits and drawbacks? Is there a difference if a child is left with a close family member or a friend?

**Studies on existing social services and official help for the migrants.** My research did not focus on studying existing support systems. It would be highly useful to undertake such research in order to analyse the existing services available to migrants. It would also be useful to do a comparative study in order to compare those of services in different regions.

**Different theoretical and data analysis** could be used to either verify the findings, or look for more themes in Lithuanian and European migration to the UK. For example, Layder’s Adaptive theory and Narrative, Ethnographic or Phenomenological approaches.
6.3.2. RECOMMENDATIONS REGARDING POLICY AND PRACTICE

Based on my research findings I agree with the participants’ recommendations regarding ‘official and unofficial support systems’ and a feedback system to learn about their needs and the types of support required.

Cooperation among official institutions - with regards to ‘official support’, participants suggested that Lithuanian community centres could work together with local councils to provide English courses. In the respondents’ opinion, a lack of English language is the main obstacle to succeed in migration.

Participants provided the following potential solutions, which would involve official processes to help Lithuanian families manage their situation during migration:

Libraries could provide access to the internet and social media, which would help Lithuanian families to maintain their relationships through regular communication, especially crucial at the beginning of their settlement in the UK. Internet services could also be used to help new migrants orientate themselves to their new locale, find a job or accommodation, learn English, educate themselves about the British social, health and education systems and, learn about existing services.

An official centralised information bank, this would enable migrants to access information on existing social services, psychological support, and undertake induction courses. Official information centres could be created in collaboration with the Lithuanian embassy, the Lithuanian community centres and the local councils and Jobcentres.

A feedback system should be introduced in order to learn about the needs of Lithuanian migrant families and to create relevant support systems and services. By providing forms and asking about migrants’ “imminent needs”, the most
urgent help needed could be identified on a case-by-case basis. (Similarly when these needs changed over time for the entire group both money and resources would not be squandered). They could be distributed through the Lithuanian Embassy, Jobcentres, libraries, local councils, housing associations and, employers.

In order for recent Lithuanian migrants to adapt more easily into a new culture and environment, the **Lithuanian Embassy in the UK**, in cooperation with existing social services, should organise cultural and information activities, community projects, meetings, lectures, publications and English courses. Currently (2017) the Embassy’s services are limited to providing information about traveling to Lithuania and promoting its culture.

### 6.3.3. ADVICE FOR THE NEW MIGRANTS

Below are a list of suggestions provided by the research participants to help newcomers have an easier transition and integration into the UK. Some of those suggestions are quoted verbatim.

- “Before migrating – consider all pros and cons”;
- “If decided to migrate – take responsibility for it”;
- “Be well prepared before migrating:
  - Gather information about the UK system, location and culture,
  - Learn about customs and traditions,
  - Learn about your rights in the UK,
  - Learn the English language,
  - Be prepared to embrace difficulties,
- Be open minded regarding race,
- Be prepared for the challenges and not to have illusions that money grows on trees,
- Be ready to embrace cultural changes and multicultural society”.

Despite agreeing upon all of the above suggestions, participants were divided on what is the best for the family:

- “Migrate with the whole family” or
- “To migrate together or only one of them finally finds a job and settles down”;  

However, they all agreed, that if it is not possible for a family to move together, they should make a clear reunification deadline, arrange care for any left-behind family and stay in constant touch with them.

- “Find new friends”;
- “Seek out help”;

And, last but not least, “Be happy!!! Enjoy the ride!” (Sandra, EA FG).

### 6.4. FINAL THOUGHTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The dominant findings are, providing that family relationships were strong before the migration process, spouses could continue a loving relationship. However, if there was any discord between a couple before one spouse migrated, (and moving away was used as a means to resolve the conflict) my results show that the family unit might not survive intact. Further research is needed to find out what happens to a family unit during separation and whether it is exacerbated by the increased lengths of time.
I should also mention ‘Brexit’, which emerged at the very last stage of my research. Uncertainties and challenges will change the landscape of Lithuanian migration to the UK. However, migration as a process, and any associated emotional turmoil during the separation process, will remain, as will the challenges that migrants endure.

I believe that the research findings could be applied to a wider migrant population, globally. European migrants to the USA might have different migration experiences due to differing circumstances and motivations for relocating, and due to restricted freedom of movement. Nevertheless, I see the findings being successfully applied to European migrants throughout Europe. Members of the European Union (still including the UK) have free movement in Europe and all would have to face the first adaptation challenge - language barriers and a different culture. This would be as true for a Latvian moving to Norway, as it would for a Romanian moving to Germany. Similarly, British nationals might struggle in Spain or Sweden. Different cultures, languages, and social systems, combined with the separation from loved ones, might have an impact on an individual’s well-being and their family relationships. My research indicates that these challenges will pass. If people seek help, if they have a support network, and if they learn the language of the country they migrate to, then the migration process has the potential to enrich their lives (despite temporary emotional and psychological turmoil).
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FURTHER READING


[Online documentary] Available from: [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MHplEjgevQM](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=MHplEjgevQM) [accessed 08/06/17].


Impact of Migration to the UK on Lithuanian Migrant Family Relationships

Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment for the award of Doctor of Philosophy

Ausra Bremner

De Montfort University

Volume II: Appendices

June 2017
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Appendix 1: Participant information leaflet for children aged 8-12 years

My name is Ausra and I am a student at De Montfort University in Leicester. I would like to invite you to take part in my research study. But before you decide if you want to join in - it is important to understand why the study is being done and what it will involve for you. So, please, read this leaflet carefully and take time to talk to your family.

Why am I doing this study?

I am doing this research because I want to find out how moving from Lithuanian to the UK affects Lithuanian families. What is it like for children to leave Lithuania and to start a new life in the UK? Maybe, you stayed behind in Lithuania for a while when your mom or dad moved to the UK? In that case, I would like to know how did you feel, how did you stay in contact with them, and what happened when you finally have met all together in the UK?

What happens if I would like to take part?

First, if you agree to talk to me about how you felt when your family and (later) you left Lithuania - I will need your parents to sign the agreement that they do not mind you being part of the study. Then we will read the information leaflet again and talk through anything that is not clear to you. If, afterwards, you still want to take part in the research we will sign an agreement (consent) form.

After you sign the form we will agree about the time where we could meet for our interview /discussion. It could happen in your home or any other place you feel comfortable such as café, Lithuanian school, or church.

You can also decide if you want to have your parents or brother, or sister, or a friend present during our conversation, or you would rather talk to me on your own.
What will happen during our conversation?
Before the interview I will ask you if I can record our conversation. I would like to do it because your thoughts and experience is important to me and I don’t want forget or miss anything. I may also ask to have another discussion with you after some time, but just because you took part in our first discussion doesn’t mean you have to do it again.
The discussion can be as short or as long as you want. But it is never longer than one hour. If, during the interview, you feel upset or unhappy - we can immediately stop it.

What are the possible disadvantages or risks from taking part in the study?
It is possible that some questions about your past experience might be upsetting sometimes. If that happens - we can stop the interview straight away.

I will give you an information sheet with contact numbers of people and organizations you may wish to contact for emotional support in case of need.

Is there any advantage for me taking part in the study?
There are no obvious benefits to you for taking part in the study. But the study itself would greatly benefit from your thoughts and migration to the UK experience. I hope, that after writing my final report, it will be easier to the families and children like you to understand how leaving Lithuania for another country effect their lives and their families.

Will my taking part in this study be kept private?
All information will be kept private. Your name and address will not be used in the study. The recordings will be kept in a draw of a locked file cabinet and only I will have the key to it.

Your signed agreement form will be kept in a cabinet separately from the recordings.

Research information on my computer will be protected by password, which only I know.

I will not tell your parents what you have said (if they are not present at the interview with you, of course), unless you tell me I can. But I will tell you about something that somebody has done that was wrong, or harmed you in any way, I will need to tell someone else about it. That is required by law.

If you ever mention any names - it will be changed to different ones, so no one could be able to find out who you were talking about.

What will happen to the results of the study?
I will be writing a very long report about my findings from the discussions with you, your self, your mom and dad, and other families. This report is called theses. The teachers at university will read my report and decide if I passed it.

Part of my report story will also be sent to the magazine, so other people can read what I have found out. As I have mentioned before, your name will never be mentioned.

I may also come to your town and share the results of my research with the

Lithuanian community there. But we may keep a secret and pretend that we don’t know each other.

I may also give presentations to people interested in the subject: other students, scientists, politicians, social workers, etc.

If you want to know more
If you wish to know more about me or my research, or you have already decided to take part in it, please ask your parents to contact me by e-mail ausra.bremner@dmu.ac.uk

What if something goes wrong?
If you are not happy about the whole interview process - you can ask your parents to contact and express their complaints to my supervisors: Mrs. Jennifer Fleming or Prof. David Ward.

Researcher contact details
Prof Dave Ward: dward@dmu.ac.uk
Jennifer Fleming: jfleming@dmu.ac.uk
Ausra Bremner: ausra.bremner@dmu.ac.uk

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Hawthorn Building
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Loughborough LE1 9BH

Please keep this information leaflet for future reference.

Thank you very much for your time reading this.
Appendix 2: Dalyvio informacinis bukletas (8-12 metu)
skaitys mano ataskaitą ir nuspręs, ar aš išlaikiau ežerą.

Dalsi mano ataskaitos taip pat bus išaugusiu į mokslinius žurnalus, kad ir kiti žmonės galėtų susipažinti su mano straipsniu. Kaip aš jau priežiūra mane, Tavo vardas niekada nebus minimas.

Aš taip pat į galiu apsilankyti Tavo maiste ir pasidalinti savo žinomis su tavo gyvenamojo lytavio bendruomenė.

Tačiau mes galime laikyti viską paslaptingu ir apimtini, kad vienas iš to nesuprastume:

Aš taip pat galiu pristatyti tyrimo rezultatus žmonėms, kurie domisi šiau klausimui: lietuvių studentams, mokslininkams, politikams, socialiniam darbuotojams ir taip toliau.

Jeigu Tu nori daugiau sužinoti

Jeigu Tu nori daugiau sužinoti apie mane, manęs tuvinę arba Tu jau apsiprašęs jam dalyvaut, paprašyk savo tėvelių, kad susisiekę su manimi ekronominiame paštu: ausra.bremner@email.dmu.ac.uk

Jeigu viskas vyks ne taip, kaip aš tikėjau?

Jeigu intervju vyko ne taip, kaip mes buvome sutarta, ir Tave nustatome visas intervju procesas - Tu gali paprašyti savo tėvelių pasakyti ir išreikšti savo neapsakomybės vardo vadovavams: Mrs. Jennifer Fleming arba Prof. David Ward.

Tyrimo kontaktai
Prof Dave Ward: dward@duo.ac.uk
Jennifer Fleming; jfleming@duo.ac.uk
Ausra Bremner:
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Prasidėjusiųjų informaciją bukėtė atleidė.
Labai dekoju už Tavo demesę ir laiką skaitant tų bukėtė.
Appendix 3: Participant information leaflet for teenagers aged 13 - 15 years

Participant Information Leaflet
For children 13 -15 years old

Impact of emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Immigrant Family Relationships

My name is Ausra and I am a PhD student at De Montfort University in Leicester. I would like to invite you to take part in my research study. But before you decide if you want to join in, it is important to understand why the study is being done and what it will involve for you. So, please, read this information leaflet carefully and take time to talk to your friends, and family.

Why am I doing this study?
I am doing this research because I want to find out how moving to the UK affects Lithuanian families. What is it like for young people to leave Lithuania and to start a new life in the UK? Maybe you stayed behind in Lithuania for a while when your parents moved to the UK? In that case, I would like to know how did you feel, how did you stay in contact with them, and what happened when you finally have met all together in the UK?

What happens if I would like to take part in this study?
First, if you agree to talk to me about how you felt when your family and (later) you left Lithuania - I will need your parents to sign the agreement that they do not mind you being part of the study.
Then we will read the information leaflet again and talk through anything that is not clear to you. If, afterwards, you still want to take part in the research we will sign an agreement (consent) form.

After you sign the form we will agree about the time where we could meet for our interview /discussion.
It could happen in your home or any other place you feel comfortable, such as cafe, Lithuanian school, or church.
You can also decide if you want to have your parents or brother, or sister, or a friend present during our conversation, or you would rather talk to me on your own.
What will happen during the interview?
Before the interview I will ask you if I can record our conversation. I would like to do it because your thoughts and experience is important to me and I don’t want forget or miss anything. If you feel upset or unhappy, I can immediately stop it.

What are the possible disadvantages or risks from taking part in the study?
Some questions about your past experience might be upsetting sometimes. If that happens, we will stop the interview straight away. I will give you an information sheet with contact numbers of people and organizations you may wish to contact for emotional support in case of need.

Part of my report story will also be sent to the magazne, so other people can read what I have found out.

I may also come to your town and share the results of my research with the Lithuanian community there.

I may also give presentations to people interested in the subject: other students, scientists, politicians, social workers etc.

If you want to know more
If you wish to know more about me or my research, or you have already decided to take part in it, please ask your parents to contact me by e-mail ausra.bremner@email.dmu.ac.uk

What if something goes wrong?
If you are not happy about the whole interview process – you can ask your parents to contact and express their complaints to my supervisors: Mrs. Jennifer Fleming or Prof. David Ward.

Is there any advantage for me taking part in the study?
There are no obvious benefits to you for taking part in the study. But the study itself would greatly benefit from your thoughts and experiences which may be shared with other researchers and the Lithuanian community.

Will my taking part in this study be kept private?
All information will be kept private. Your name and address will not be used in the study. The recordings will be kept in a draw of a locked file cabinet and only I will have the key to it.

Your signed agreement form will be kept in a cabinet separately from the recordings.

Researcher contact details
Prof Dave Ward: dward@dmu.ac.uk
Jennifer Fleming: jfleming@dmu.ac.uk
Ausra Bremner: ausra.bremner@email.dmu.ac.uk
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Leicester, LE1 9BH

Please keep this information leaflet for future reference.
Thank you very much for your time reading this.
Appendix 4: Dalyvio informacinis bukletas (13-15 metu)


**Kodel aš darau šį tyrimą?**


**Kas bus, jei aš sutinku dalyvauti tyrimu?**

Jeigu Tu sutinku dalyvauti tyrimu ir pasikalbėti su manimi apie tai, kaip jaučiši, kai Tavo tevės, o Velius ir tu išvykot iš Lietuvos - tai visi pirmiau aš turėsiu gauti Tavo tėvelių sutikimą. Kaip jie neprilygins Tavo dalyvavimui tyrimui. Tačiau mes kiek vėl perskaitysimės informaciją bukletą ir aptarsime viską, kas jums bus laiminga situacija. Jei po to, tu vis dar norėsi dalyvauti tyrimu, tuomet mes pasikalbėsime susitarimo formą.

**Paskaitos formą, mes nustatyme dėl mano pokalbio/intervu vietas ir laiko. Tai gali būti Tavo namai arba kita taus gerai žinomia vieta, pavyzdžiui, kavinė, jėmų ir tokių atvejų.**

Tu tai pat gali apsinęti, ar su tavim pokalbio/intervu dalyvaujama kiek vienugio tevės, brolio, sesė, drąsės/-

**Kaip vaikštinasi mūsų pokalbių?**
Ar rūktinga dalyvauti tyrimui?

Visaiški įmanoma, kad kai kurie klausiniai apie šiuos gali Tave nusijuokti. Žinoma, kad kai kurie klausiniai gali būti sunkūs arba šilti. Tačiau, jei jums jokios neapdorojimosi galimybės nėra, galite pasiūlyti savo nuomones, ir Tavo nuomones gali išsamiai pasidžiaugti ir diskutuoti.

Jeigu Tavo nuomones gali išsamiai pasiūlyti, galite pateikti savo nuomones aiškiai. Žinoma, kad Tavo nuomones gali išlaikyti ir diskutuoti, tačiau, jei jums reikia išsamiai pasiūlyti savo nuomones, galite pateikti savo nuomones aiškiai.

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Appendix 5: Participant information leaflet for young adults aged 16+

Participant Information Leaflet
For participants 16+

My name is Ausra and I am a PhD student at De Montfort University in Leicester. I would like to invite you to take part in my research study. But before you decide if you want to join in... it is important you understand why the study is being done and what it will involve for you. So, please, read this information leaflet carefully and take time to talk to your friends and family. If you have any questions, please call or email me. All contact details are given at the end of this leaflet.

Why am I doing this study?
I am doing this research because I want to find out how immigration to the UK affects Lithuanian family relationships. What is it like for young adults to leave Lithuania and start a new life in the UK? Maybe you have stayed behind in Lithuania for a while when your parents moved to the UK? In that case, I would like to know how did you feel, how did you stay in contact with them, and what happened when you finally met all together in the UK?

What happens if I would like to take part in this study?
First, if you agree to talk to me about your emigration experience - I will need your parents to sign the agreement that they do not mind you being part of the study. Then we will send you the information leaflet again and talk through anything that is not clear to you. If, afterwards, you still want to take part in the research - we will sign an agreement (consent) form.

After you sign the form we will agree about the time where we could meet for our interview / discussion. It could happen in your home or any other place you feel comfortable, such as cafe, Lithuanian school, or church.
What will happen during the interview?
Before the interview, I will ask you if I can record our conversation. I would like to do it because your thoughts and experience are important to me and I don't want you to forget or miss anything. I may also ask to have another discussion with you after some time, but just because you took part in our first discussion doesn't mean you have to do it again.
The interview can be as short or as long as you want it to be. But it is never longer than one hour. If, during the interview, you suddenly feel upset or unhappy, we can immediately stop it.

What are the possible disadvantages or risks taking part in the study?
Some questions about your past experience might be upsetting sometimes. If that happens - we will stop the interview straight away. I will give you an information sheet with contact numbers of people and organizations you may wish to contact for emotional support in case of need.

Is there any advantage for me taking part in the study?
There are no obvious benefits to you from taking part in the study. But the study itself would greatly benefit from your thoughts on your experience of immigrating to the UK. I hope, that after writing my thesis, it will be easier for Lithuanian families to understand how emigrating from Lithuania to another country effect their lives and their family relationships.

Will my taking part in this study be kept private?
All information will be kept private. Your name and address will not be used in the study. The recordings will be kept in a locked file cabinet and only I will have the key to it.
Your signed consent form will be kept in a cabinet separately from the recordings.
Research information on my computer will be protected by password, which only I know.

I will not tell your parents what you have said unless you tell me I can. But if you tell me about something that somebody has done that was wrong or harmed you in any way, I must tell someone else about it. That is required by law.

If you ever mention any names - it will be changed to different ones, so no one could be able to find out who you were talking about.

What will happen to the results of the study?
I will be writing a very long study report about my finding from the discussions with you, your and other families. The information from these discussions will be the base of my PhD thesis.
The professors at university will read my thesis and decide if I passed it.
Part of my report may also be published, so other people may read what I have found out.


I may also come to your town and share the results of my research with the Lithuanian community there.

I may also give presentations to people interested in the subject: other students, scientists, politicians, social workers, etc.

If you want to know more
If you wish to know more about me or my research, or you have already decided to take part in it, please ask your parents to contact me by e-mail ausra.bremner@dmu.ac.uk

What if something goes wrong?
If you are not happy about the whole interview process - you can ask your parents to contact and express their complaints to my supervisors: Mrs. Jennifer Fleming or Prof. David Ward.

Researcher contact details
Prof. Dave Ward:
dward@dmu.ac.uk
Jennifer Fleming:
jl Fleming@dmu.ac.uk
Ausra Bremner:
ausra.bremner@email.dmu.ac.uk

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Havethorn Building
De Montfort University
Leicester, LE1 9BH

Please keep this information leaflet for future reference.

Thank you very much for your time reading this.

Thank you
Appendix 6: Dalyvio informacinis bukletas (16+ metu)


Jei kils kokių Klausimų, paskambinkite arba atsakykite elektroninėje žinute man. Visus kontaktavimą adresus ir nurodymus rasite šio bukletą galė.

Kodel aš darau šį tyrimą?
Aš darau šį tyrimą, nes noriu išsinuoti kaip emigracija iš Lietuvos į Jungtinę Karalystę parūpina lietuvių laisvą tarpusavio santykims. Kaip rodo įvairių politikų literatūra ir prodieta naujų gyvenimų Jungtineje Karalystėje, gal Tu kurį laiką buvai pasiekėte Lietuvą, kol Tavo tėvai teikė JK? Tikslu atviro, aš norečiau sužinoti kaip Tu jaute, kokiu būdu su jais bendravai ir kaip viskas klestėt, kai jūs visi pagalau apsigyvenote JK?

Kas bus, jei Tu sutinkis dalyvauti tyrimo?
Vėl pirma, jeigu Tu sutinkis padalinti su manimi Tavo emigracijos patirtimi, aš turėtų gauti Tavo ir Tavo sutikimą, kad jie nepnestaisia Tavo dalyvavimui tyrimo.

Tuomet mes kartu vėl perskaitytumėte informacijos bukletą ir aptarime viską, kas jums buvo Tavo reakcija. Jei po to Tu vis dar nori dalyvauti tyrimo, tuomet mes pasirašyti susitarimo formą.

Pasirašius formą, mes susitarime dėl mūsų pokalbio ir intervju ir laiko. Tai gali būti Tavo namuose arba kita Tavo geriausios vieta, pavyzdžiui, kavinėje, lietuvių mokykla ar baltistu.

Kai vėl mūsų pokalbio?
Pries pradėdami intervju aš Tate atsiskausiu ar gali mūsų pokalbio įvykti. Tavo mintys ir patyrimas man labai svarbūs, todėl
Ar tai turėtų kokios asmeninės naudos iš dalyvavimo tyrimo?

Dalyvavimas tyrimui neįvertės, jei jis neatsižvelgs į jūsų patirties ir išminties, besimokymo įmonės tikslus. Tai būtų paaiškina, kad jūsų patirtis yra labai svarbus mūsų tyrimui.

Ar mano dalyvavimas tyrimui bus laikomas pašalintoje?

Visa mokslinė informacija bus laikomai pašalintoje. Tai reiškia, kad informacija bus naudota tik mokslinėje kontekste. Taigi, jei jūsų tyrimas bus naudojamas turinio studijose, tai bus naudotas tik mokslinėje kontekste.

Jeigu Tu nori daugiau sužinoti

Jeigu Tu nori daugiau sužinoti apie mane, mano tyrimą arba Tu jau apsipriešinėte jmei dalyvavimui, pripažįstę savo tėvą, kad susisiekėte su manimi elektroniniu paštu:

ausra.bremner@dmu.ac.uk

Jeigu viskas vyks ne taip, kaip aš tikižiast, jeigu interviu vyko ne taip, kaip mes buvome sutaryti, ir Tavo moksliniuose studijose - mes gali paprašyti savo tėvą parasyti ir išleisti savo nepasitenkinimą mano tyrimo vadovams: Mrs. Jennifer Fleming arba Prof. David Ward.

Tyrimo kontaktais

Prof. Dave Ward:
dward@dmu.ac.uk

Jennifer Fleming:
fleming@dmu.ac.uk

Ausra Bremner:
ausra.bremner@dmu.ac.uk

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De Montfort University
Leicester, LE1 9BH

Prisiau pasiūlyti šį informaciją bukdu ašciui.
Labai dėkoju už Tavo demeir ir laišką skaitant šį bukdu.

Thank you.
Appendix 7: Participant information leaflet for adults

PARTICIPANT INFORMATION LEAFLET

Research on Impact of Emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Immigrant Family Relationships

My name is Ausra and I am a PhD student at De Montfort University in Leicester. Through my study I am trying to find out how immigration to the UK affects Lithuanian family relationships. I am interested in talking to people who initially came to the UK and left their partner/children in Lithuania and whether their family came to join them or not yet.

If this is you - I would very much appreciate your assistance by participating in this research. Your participation would be entirely voluntary. Before you decide if you want to join in - it is important to understand why the study is being done and what it will involve for you. So, please, consider the information leaflet carefully and take time to talk to your friends, and family. If you have additional questions – please contact me, or my supervisors through the details given at the end of this leaflet.

Thank you for your help,

Ausra BREMNER
This information leaflet may contain words that are new to you. If you read any words that are not clear, please ask me to explain them to you.

1. What is the purpose of this study?

So far, no studies have been done on the impact of immigration on the Lithuanian families in the UK. With my research I aim:
1. To find out how Lithuanian emigration affects family relationships.
2. To identify issues that face families when one of their members emigrates on his/her own.
3. To help the Lithuanian immigrants sustain their families by informing them about the research results.

I am really interested in the views and opinions of people like you, who have had experience of immigrating to the UK. I would like to come and talk with you about it. I will have some questions, but I am very interested in what ever you might have to say about your immigrant family’s situation.

2. What will be involved if I decided to take part in this study?

If you choose to participate, I would like to talk with you about your immigration experience. I am interested in your experiences of life in the UK: challenges, obstacles, opportunities, joys and disappointments, etc. The interviews/conversations will take place at the familiar to you surrounding – for example, a Lithuanian Community Centre (Peterborough or Nottingham). This should not take longer than an hour of your time. There are no ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ answers to any of my questions and you should not worry that what comes to mind is not important to mention. I may ask to come back to interview/talk to you again if I need more information but just because you have taken part in one interview does not mean you are obliged to take part in the further ones. With your permission I will record our discussion and then write it up into what is called a transcript. This will allow me to read what you have said again. I really do not want to miss anything you say. Your opinion, thoughts and experiences are very important to me. However, you may turn the tape off at any point in the conversation.
While the interview is being conducted, if for any reason you wish to stop you may do so. These measures are in place to ensure your safety and that of the interviewer during your participation in this study.

3. What will happen with the information?

The information from these discussions will be the basis of my PhD thesis, which will be assessed in order for me to gain the PhD degree. The results of the study will be analysed and a report written, this report may be published. I would be happy to share results with the Lithuanian community at the community’s invitation, this may be through a written report, a talk or workshop. The summary of the results will also be available at Lithuanian community centre.

The transcripts might also be used to write and publish articles in academic journals. I may also give presentations to people interested in the subject.

4. Will information I provide for the study be confidential (i.e. private)?

Any information obtained for the study will be dealt with in the usual degree of confidentiality under the Data Protection Act (a UK Government law). This means that the information you give is anonymous i.e. your name will not be mentioned in any documents relating to the study and will not be given to a third party. The information collected will only be used for research purposes, and will be kept private and will not be released without your consent except as required by law. If your individual results are discussed, your identity will be protected by using a study code number rather than your name or other identifying information. The digital records will be transcribed without any information that could identify you. The recordings will be stored in a secure location in a locked file cabinet and only I will have an access to it. Your signed consent form will be stored in a cabinet separate from the data.
5. Will I benefit for participation in the study?

There may be no direct benefit to you by your participation in this research study but your participation will definitely help in our understanding of the Lithuanian immigrant family’s situation in the UK. For example, we may learn:

- How individuals cope, or manage the situation when one of their members emigrates abroad;
- About the changes (if any) of family dynamic when the whole family emigrates;
- If there are any social services available to meet the Lithuanian immigrant family needs and to help them sustain their families through the hard time of changes

I am quite confident that thanks to your time and your valuable information - the research will be a significant contribution to the knowledge, because, so far, no studies have been done on impact of immigration on the Lithuanian families.

After publishing my thesis, I hope that the analysis and conclusions may raise the awareness among decision-makers and anyone who wants to understand immigration especially about the strains that immigration has on family relationships.

6. Are there any risks involved?

It is possible that answering the questions may cause you think about feelings that make you sad or upset. It may affect both you and your children when you have to discuss how separation affects your relationship, for example.

If it happens, I would encourage you to contact your best friend, mom/close family member, a priest you know well, local support group or a social worker. I will also give you an information sheet with contact numbers of people and organizations you may wish to contact for emotional support in case of need.

If at any stage of our conversation/interview you feel uncomfortable or upset - we will stop the interview straight away.
7. What happens if I wish to withdraw from the study?

If you initially agree, but later you wish to withdraw you may do so at anytime before, during or after the study by contacting one of the named researchers at De Montfort University. Please also keep the Participation Information Leaflet as this contains information about the project and the contact details of the researcher involved.

8. What happens if I would like to take part in this study?

If you wish to participate in the study contact me, please, by phone or an e-mail, and leave your contact details (phone is always the best). Then it will be my turn to contact you. I will call you and we will discuss the most convenient time for us to meet. During our meeting we will go through the information leaflet again and you will be able to ask any questions regarding the research and your participation in it. If you are still happy to participate – I will ask you to sign the informed consent form. Afterwards we can discuss the time for the interview or proceed straight away if it suits you.

9. Complaints procedure

If you wish to complain about any aspects of the study then nature of the complaint should be submitted along with the full name and address of the interviewee and the researcher. This information should be submitted to Prof Dave Ward, Faculty of Health and life Science, De Montfort University, LE1 9BH. 0116 2577797.

* You may wish to discuss this with others before you agree to take part in this study. If you have any questions about the research now or during the study contact the numbers below. I would like to finish by saying thank you for taking the time to read this information leaflet, and if you do agree to take part in this study — thank you for your involvement!
Researcher contact details:

Prof Dave Ward: dward@dmu.ac.uk

Jennifer Fleming: jfleming@dmu.ac.uk

Ausra Bremner: ausra.bremner@email.dmu.ac.uk

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Hawthorn Building
De Montfort University
Leicester, LE1 9BH
Appendix 8: Informacinis bukletas suaugusiems

DALYVIO INFORMACINIS BUKLETAS

Tyrimas: Migracijos į Jungtinę Karalystę įtaka lietuvių migrantų šeimos narių tarpusavio santykiams

Mano vardas Ausra ir aš studijuojau De Montfort Universitete, Leicester. Savo tyrimui aš stengiuosi išsiaiškinti kaip imigracija (atvykimas nuolat gyventi) į Jungtinę Karalystę (JK) paveikia lietuvių šeimos narių tarpusavio santykius. Norėčiau pasikalbėti su žmonėmis, kurie iš pat pradžių vieni atvyko į JK palikę partnerį/vaikus Lietuvoje ir vėliau jų šeima prie jų prisijunge, arba tai planuoj pači atėtis.


Dėkoju!

Pagarbiai,

Ausra Bremner
Jei skaitydami šį bukletą rasite jums nesuprantamų žodžių ar frazių nesidrovėkite manęs paprašyti juos paaškinti.

1. Koks šio tyrimo tikslas?

Kalbant labai mažai tyrinį yra padaryta apie tai kaip imigracija į Jungtinę Karalystę veikia lietuvas šeimos. Savo tyrimo aš siekiu:
1. Issiaiškinti kaip lietuvių emigracija atsiliepia šeimos tarpusavio santykiais.
2. Įvardinti problemas su kuriomis susiduria šeimos, kai vienas iš jos narių emigruoja.
3. Padėti lietuvių imigrantams išsaugoti šeimos informaciją jų apie tyrimo rezultatą.

Mane išties labai domina tokį kaip jūs žmorių turinčių emigracijos patirtį iš JK, požiūris ir nuomonė. Norėčiau su jumis susitikti ir apie tai pasiūrėkite. Atsirėsiu pasiruošusi keletą klausimų, tačiau mane domina viskas ką jūs galite papasakoti apie migrantų šeimos situaciją.

2. Ką aš turėsiu daryti, jei sutiksite dalyvauti tyrime?

Jei jús sutiksite dalyvauti tyrimo, aš norėčiau su jumis pasikalbėti apie jūsų migracijos patirtį. Mane domina jūsų gyvenimas JK: išbandymai, kliūtys, galimybės, džiaugsmas ir nusipynimas į Interviu/pokalbis vyks gerai jūsų žinomujų vietojų, pavyzdžiu, Lietuvių Bendruomenės Centre (Peterborough ar Nottingham), kavineje ar bažnyčioje. Tai neturėtų užtrukti ilgiau nei valandą. Nėra "teisingų" ar "nuteisinę" atsakymų į mano klausimus ir jūs neturetemėte jaudintis dėl to, kad tai kas ateina į jūsų galvą nėra prasminga paminėti. Aš galiu jūsų paprašyti dalyvauti ir kitame intervjuų/pokalbyje su jumis, jei man pritiks informacijos, tačiau vien todėl, kad dalyvavote pirmajame mūsų interviu, visiškai nereiškia, kad turite vėl sutikti.

Jums sutikus, aš įrašysiu pokalbį į diktofoną ir po to "išversiu" jo savo užrašus. Tai leis man vėl prisiminti mūsų pokalbį. Aš labai nenorėčiau ką nors praleisti ar užmiršti iš to ką jūs man papasakojote: Jūsų nuomonė, mintys ir patirtis man yra labai svarbus.

Tačiau, aš bet kuriuo metu galuosiųjų diktofoną, jei jūs to manęs paprašysite.
Jusu taip pat bet kuriamo metu galite nutraukti mūsų pokalbi, jei pajautos, kad viskas vyksta netai, kaip jūs tikejotės. Šios priemones reikalingos tam, kad užtikrintų tik jūsų tiki mano saugumą tyrimo metu.

3. Kas bus daroma su surinkta informacija?


Tyrimo užrašais naudojusios mokslinio straipsnio rašymai. Aš taip pat galiu surengti tyrimo rezultatų pristatymą šia sritimi bendraudantis žmonėms, pvz.: studentams, mokslininkams, politikams, socialiniams darbuotojams ir t.t.

4. Ar mano suteikta informacija tyrimui bus laikoma paslaptųje?


Mūsų pasirašytas susitarimas bus laikomas atskirame mano visų įrašų seifėje.

Visa tyrimo informacija mano kompiuterelyje bus saugoma tik man vienai žinomu slaptazodžiu.
5. Ar aš turėsiu kokios asmeninės naudos iš dalyvavimo tyrimo?

Dalyvavimas tyrimo greičiausiai nesuteiks Jums jokios akivaizdžios naudos, tačiau jūsų mintys ir patyrimas be jokios abejonių padės mums geriau suprasti lietuvių migrantų šeimos situaciją JK. Pavyzdžiui, mes galėsime sužinoti:

- Kaip žmonės susidoroja su situacija vienam iš šeimos narių emigravus.
- Kaip pasikeičia šeimos dinamika šeimai perkelius į kitą šalį.
- Ar egzistuoja socialine parama, tenkinant lietuvių migrantų poreikius ir padedant jiemus išsaugoti savo šeimas nelengvų pokyčių metu.

Aš tvirtai įsitikinu, kad įsižyvėjus ir suteiktos vertingos informacijos dėka - tyrimas tapa ženklingai indeliu į šios šeimos mokslinę sferą, kadangi ši šiuolaikinės mokslinės darbų yra atliktas apie emigracijos įtaką lietuvių emigrantų šeimos santykiams.

Aš viliuosi, kad po disertacijos išspaudinimo, jos analize ir išvados pakels daugelio politikų ir žmonių, dirbančių emigracijos srityje, sąmoningumą apie tai, su kokiais išbandymais tenka susidurti emigrantų šeimoms.

6. Ar rizikina dalyvauti tyrimo?

Visiškai įmanoma, kad kurių klausimų apie praeitį gali Jūs nuliūdinti, pavyzdžiui, paprašius jūsų papasakoti apie tai, kaip išsiskyrimas atnaujino jūsų šeimos santykiams.

Jei taip atsitiks, aš paprašysiu/paprastai jūs susisiekti su artimu asmeniu, pavyzdžiui, geriausi draugu, mama/arimui šeimos nariu, parįstamu kunigu, vietoje savitarpio pagalbos grupėje, ar socialiniu darbuotoju. Aš jums taip pat pateiksiu įvairių žmonių ir organizacijų sąrašą su jų kontaktiniais adresais ir telefonų numeriais, kad galėtumete į juos kreiptis, jei pajustėte, kad jums reikia profesionalios emocines paramos.

Jei pokalbio metu pajustėte, kad apima liūdnos mintys ir jums nebesinori toliau kalbėtis - tuomet mes iš kart nutraukiname pokalbį.
7. Kas bus, jei aš nutarsiu nutraukti savo dalyvavimą tyrime?

Jei iš pradžių jūs sutikote dalyvauti tyrime, bet vėliau pakeitėte savo nuomónę - jūs galite nutraukti savo dalyvavimą bet kuriu metu, apie tai informuodami vieną iš tyrėjų De Montfort Universitete (visi kontaktiniai duomenys šio bukleto pabaigoje). Prašau taip pat pasilankyti Dalyvio Informacinį Bukletą, kadangi jamie yra visa su tyrimu susijusi informacija ir visų tyrėjų kontaktinės detalės.

8. Kas bus, jei aš sutiksiu dalyvauti tyrime?

Jei jūs sutinkate dalyvauti tyrime, prašau susisiekti su manimi ir palikti savo kontaktinius duomenis. Tuomet bus mano eilė su Jums susisiekti. Man paskambinimus, mes aptarsime patogų jums laiką ir vietą mūsų susitikimui. Susitikimo metu mes dar kartą peržvelgsime Informacinį bukletą ir aš pasistengsiu atsakyti į visus Jums iškilusus klausimus, susijusius tiek su pačiu tyrimu, tiek su jusų dalyvavimu jame. Jei po to jūs vis dar norėsite dalyvauti tyrime, aš paprašysiu jus pašrauti sutartį. Po to, mes galesime apiešti kito susitikimo laika, arba, jei Jums tai patogu, iškart pradėsime interviu.

9. Nepasienkinimo procedūra

Jei Jūsų netenka kuris nors tyrimo eigos aspektas, tuomet savo skundą, kartu su pilnu savo vardu, pavarde, adresu, bei tyrėjos vardu pateikite Prof. Dave Ward, Faculty of Health and life Science, De Montfort University, LE1 9BH. 0116 2377797.

* Patarimas pasitarti su artimaisiais prieš sutinkant dalyvauti šiam tyrime. Jei turite kokią nuomonę aliejaus savo su tyrimu susijusių klausimų - skambinkite žemaiu nurodytais telefonų numerais.

Norečiau būgti nuoširdžiai padekodama už jūsų laiką skaitant šį informacijos bukletą, ir, jei jūs sutinkate dalyvauti mano tyrime - už jūsų vertingą indėlį!
Tyrimo kontaktinė informacija:

Prof. Dave Ward: dward@dmu.ac.uk

Jennifer Fleming: jfleming@dmu.ac.uk

Aušra Bremner: ausra.bremner@email.dmu.ac.uk

Faculty of Health and Life Sciences
Hawthorn Building
De Montfort University
Leicester, LE1 9BH
Appendix 9: Forms of Consent for children and parental

CONSENT FORM

TO BE COMPLETED BY YOUNG PERSON AND PARENT/GUARDIAN

PART A TO BE COMPLETED BY THE YOUNG PERSON

I have read and understood the information leaflet and had the opportunity to ask any questions.

☐

I agree to take part in the study on Impact of Emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Family Relationships.

☐

I would like to take part in (please tick one or more of the following) an individual interview

☐

joint interview with one of my parents

☐

I agree to allow interview to be audio-taped.

☐

Name ______________________________

Signature __________________________

Age _________

Date ____________________________
CONSENT FORM

TO BE COMPLETED BY YOUNG PERSON AND PARENT/GUARDIAN

PART 3 TO BE COMPLETED BY THE PARENT/GUARDIAN

I have read and understood the accompanying letter and information leaflet.  

I have an opportunity to ask any questions.  

I give permission for the child to be included in the research.

Name ___________________________

Relationship to child ____________________

Signature ___________________________

Date __________________

THIS FORM MUST BE COMPLETED AND RETURNED TO THE RESEARCHER FOR THE NAMED YOUNG PERSON TO BE INCLUDED IN THIS STUDY. A STAMPED, Addressed, ENVELOPE HAS BEEN PROVIDED.
Appendix 10: Vaiku ir tevu sutikimo formos

SUTIKIMO FORMA

PILDOMA VAIKO

As perskaiciau informacini bukletą ir nusejau galinęje uždarytų klases

As sutinku dalyvauti teise Migracijos ir Jungtinas Karalystė Itakak
Listavimų Migrantų Sienos Tarpasavio Santykiams sąs

As sutinku dalyvauti (prasau pavyzdį viena ar kelis langelius):

individualiai interviu

interviu, dalyvaujant viena iš mano tevų

As sutinku, kad interviu bus raštinėjas

Vardas

Pavardas

Amzius

Data
TEVŲ SUTIKIMO FORMA del vaiko dalyvavimo tyrimo Migracijos į Jungtinę Karalystę Itaką Lietuvą Migrantų Seimos Tarptautinio Sanitarijos II-ajame etape

PIELO TĖVAI/GLOBĖJAI

Aš perskaiciu tyrimo informaciją bukdavą
Man buvo suteikta galimybę užduoti klausimus
Aš sutinku, kad mano vaikas dalyvautu II-ajame tyrimo etape, jei iš jį jis to norės

Vardas ______________________________________

Ryšys su vaiku ______________________________

Parasas ______________________________________

Data ________________________________________

ŠI FORMA, LEIDŽIANTĮ VAIKUI DALYVAUTI TYRIME, TURI BŪTI UŽPILDYTA IR GRAŽINTA TŶREJAI
Appendix 11: Consent form for adults and 16+

CONSENT FORM for taking part in a research on Impact of Emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Family Relationships

16+ and adults

I have read an information leaflet of the study and had the opportunity to ask any questions □

I agree to take part in the study: Impact of Emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Family Relationships □

I agree to allow the interview to be audio-taped and data used for the research □

Name ________________________________

Signature __________________________

Date ____________________________
Appendix 12: Sutikimo forma suaugusiems ir 16+

SUTIKIMO FORMA
16 + suaugusiems

Aš sprožiakacija tyrimo informacini bukletu ir tyrėjui galimybę užduoti klausimus.

☐

Aš sutinku dalyvauti tyrine - Migracijos į Jungtinę Karalystę įtaka lietuvui migrantų šeimos tarpusavio santykiams

☐

Aš sutinku, kad interviju būtų įrašinėjamas ir duomenys naudojami tyrine

☐

Vardas


Parašas


Data
Appendix 13: Invitation for participation – web poster

INVITATION TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH

Impact of emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Immigrant Family Relationships

My name is Ausra Bremner and I am a PhD student at De Montfort University in Leicester. Through my research I am trying to find out how immigration to the UK affects Lithuanian family relationships. I am interested in talking to people who came to the UK and left their partner/children in Lithuania and are either here alone or have been joined by their family.

If this is you - I would very much appreciate your assistance in taking part in this research. Your participation would be entirely voluntary. Before you decide if you want to join in, it is important to understand why the study is being done and what it will involve for you. So, please, read the information leaflet carefully and take time to talk to your friends, and family.

If you wish to participate in the research, please contact me: ausra.bremner@email.dmu.ac.uk

Thank you for your cooperation!

Ausra Bremner
KVIETIMAS DALYVAUTI TYRIME

Emigracijos į Jungtinę Karalystę Italai Lietuvių Imigrantų Šeimos Santykiams


Jei tai Jūsų situacija - būčiau labai dėkinga, jei sutiktumėte dalyvauti mano tyроме. Jūsų dalyvavimas būtų visiškai savanoriškas. Prieš priimant sprendimą - dalyvauti ar ne, labai svarbu suprasti kokie šio tyrimo tikslai ir koki iš Jūsų pareikalaus. Todėl, prašau, atidžiai susipažinti su informacijos lankstimu ir pasiūrėti savo šeimos nariais ar bučuliais. Jei apsipręste dalyvauti tyроме,atsuskite man e-mail adresu: austra.bremner@email.dmu.ac.uk

Dėkui už Jūsų bendradarbiavimą!

Ašra Bremner
Appendix 15: Outline of a focus group (FG)

OUTLINE OF A FOCUS GROUP

1. Tea. Small talk - 10 min

2. Welcome, introduction to the group and its structure. Guidelines and Confidentiality pact - 5 min

3. Power Point presentation on Interim findings -10-15 min

4. Discussion about findings – 20 min
   - Does it make any sense?
   - Any thoughts?

5. Coffee break – 10 min

6. Discussion on Transition stage – 50 min

7. Final thoughts and closure 10 min
Appendix 16: Detailed plan of FG and group tasks

Detailed plan of FG and group tasks

I part of Focus group:

1. presentation of Interim findings
2. discussion of interim findings

II part of Focus Group discussion on TRANSITION STAGE - time before all immediate family got reunited/migrated to the UK.

Aim: 1. I would like people to reflect on general experience during Transition stage and give me some thoughts on what is happening, in their opinion, in other cases of people in similar situation, and elaborate on

2. what kind of help is needed and what can be done to help Lithuanian families to sustain their families in migration.

What do I hope to learn? - about support systems/networks and possibly social work intervention particularly during transition stage in order to help Lithuanian migrants to sustain their families and better cope during migration to the UK process.

Proposed plan for the Focus Group

The first question should be one that "breaks the ice" and encourages everyone to talk.

“Since my research about Lithuanian migrant family relationships” – I need to define what is a family in your understanding?
I. Group exercise on a flipchart: FAMILY – 5 min

WHO IS YOUR/Lithuanian FAMILY?
Who is your/Lithuanian immediate family?
Who is your/Lithuanian extended family?

FAMILY

NUCLEAR/IMMEDIATE EXTENDED

After we define Family we should move on to a general Transition stage topic:

II. “TRANSITION STAGE “ DISCUSSION

DISCUSSION: What do you think what are the main issues during Transition stage that affects families and their relationships? – 10 min

( My aim is to find out - WHAT IS HAPPENING TO FAMILY DURING THAT PERIOD?)
III. SUPPORT SYSTEMS *(Questions on the chart) – 20 min.*

What kind of help is needed during Transition stage? Or
What can be done to make Transition stage easier to cope?

**SUPPORT SYSTEMS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OFFICIAL/FORMAL SUPPORT/HELP</th>
<th>UNNOFICIAL/INFORMAL SUPPORT/HELP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>WHO?</strong></td>
<td><strong>WHO?</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>HOW?</strong></td>
<td><strong>HOW?</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Library
- Internet connection
- Friends
- Family
- Lithuanian community
- Lithuanian community

*(Who are they? And How can they help?)*
Proms: Where would Lithuanian community fit: Official – Unofficial support? Both? How could it help Lithuanian families in the UK?

IV. FINAL THOUGHTS - DISCUSSION

Looking back what you went through –what would you advice other Lithuanian families who are planning to migrate to the UK?

Individual thoughts are written on individual sheets of paper before reporting it to the group and having a discussion on the issue.
Appendix 17: Initial interview Aide memoir

Initial interview aide memoir

1. Name
2. Age
3. Gender
4. Family situation:
   - Number of family members
   - ages of family members
   - where are they at the moment?
   - who are they with?
5. Where did you live in Lithuania?
6. What kind of job did you have?
7. When did you come to the UK?
8. Tell me your story, please. How did you decide to migrate? What were the reasons? (Tell me how did you come to live in the UK? / What were the reasons for you immigrate to the UK)?
9. How is your life different from the one you had in Lithuania?
10. What was like it back?
11. How do you think you’ve been changed by the experience?
12. What is life like for you as a Lithuanian immigrant in the UK?

13. How are you managing the situation? What helps you to cope? What are your coping mechanisms?

14. Which of your dreams have been fulfilled?

15. What do you miss most about Lithuania?

16. What was the biggest challenge of immigration?

17. What are the main obstacles not to having your family together? (How did you cope and what did you do?)

18. How has your family dynamics changed? (What kind of relationships with your family have you had in Lithuania? How has it changed since your migration?)
Appendix 18: List of initial codes

List of initial codes

Adaptation
Adaptation problems
Adaptation problems for children
Unfamiliar environment

Challenges of migration
Children
Adaptation problems with children
Children’s education
Children’s faith
Children's reaction to parent's migration
Decisions regarding children
Problems with children

Different cultures
Language

Work
Work arrangements
Work in Lithuania
Work in UK
Work relationships

Boss
Colleagues

Children
Children’s acceptance
Adaptation problems with children
Children’s education
Children’s faith
Children’s reaction to parent’s migration
Decisions regarding children
Problems with children
Relationship with children
Missing children
Worries about children

**Choices**

Choices in England
Difficult choices

**Communication**

Communication tools

  - Facebook
  - Internet
  - Phoning
  - Skype
  - Visiting Lithuania
  - Writing letters

Communication with children
Communication with friends
Communication with parents
Secrets from the family members
Coping mechanisms

Exercising

Care of oneself

Most difficult things to cope

- Missing children
- Missing mom
- Missing family
- Missing friends

Decisions

Decision to migrate

Good decisions

Hard decision to leave LT

Decisions regarding children

Divorce

Children’s acceptance

Reasons to divorce

Self-blame for divorce

Dreams

Dreams in Lithuania

Dreams in the UK

  - Fulfilled dreams in the UK

Education

Education problems in the UK

Education problems in Lithuania

Emotions
Anger
Joys

**Faith**
God’s punishment
God’s test
Church influence

**Family**
Sustained families
Family values
Togetherness
“Brought closer”
Efforts to sustain family
Family’s (not) support
Families left behind
Family’s location
Family’s accommodation
Family decision
Family dynamics
Family history
Family members in the UK
Family support
Family’s welfare

**Friends**
Friends in migration
Ways to find new friends
Friendships in migration
Making new friends in UK
Meeting friends
New Lithuanian friends in the UK

**Future plans**
Plans in the UK
Plans in Lithuania
Returning to Lithuania

**Help**
Help to migrate
Help in migration

**Here (UK)**
Compensations
Life in the UK
English neighbourhood
English language
English people
Indians in UK
Lithuanians and English
English towards foreigners
Lithuanians about English
Choices in England
Shopping in UK
Making new friends in UK
Time in the UK
Positive experiences in the UK
   Joys
      “Brought closer”
Lithuanian community in the UK
Lithuanians at school
Lithuanians in England
Managing the situation
Making new friends in the UK
Situation control
Help in migration

Marriage
Migration
Help to migrate
Help in migration
Aim to migrate
Inspiration to migrate
Courage to migrate
Decision to migrate
Time in the UK
Doubts

Excitement

Migration as a positive experience
  Learning new things
  Learning to drive
  Learning to fly

Consequences of migration
  Isolation
  Loneliness

Pain

Physical pain

Emotional pain

Obstacles to migrate together

Children’s education

Material basis in the UK

Reasons to migrate

Change environment
  Divorce

Family situation
  Alcoholic husband

Financial situation
  Earn money

Following mother
  Parents’ divorce

Gain work experience
Job offer

Moral side

Personal degradation

**Relationships**

Making new friends in the UK

Pair pressure

With children

“Brought closer”

Lithuanians and English

English towards foreigners

Lithuanians about English

Relationships with Lithuanians at school

Relationships among family members

Relationships before migrating

Relationships with family

**Support network**

Boyfriend

Family members

Husband

Mom

Sister

Lithuanian priest

Old friends in migration

Virtual friends

**Ties with Lithuania**
No ties

Strong attachment

“My Lithuania”

UK job market

Professional collaboration

Professional hunting

Work

Work arrangements

Work in Lithuania

Work in UK

Illegal work

Work relationships

Boss

Colleagues
### Intermediate Coding Example

#### Tree Nodes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Parent</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Node A</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Node B</td>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Node C</td>
<td>B</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Node D</td>
<td>C</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Node E</td>
<td>D</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>E</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: This table illustrates the structure of nodes in a tree diagram, showing the parent-child relationships and counts for each node.
CONSENT FORM for taking part in a research on Impact of Emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Family Relationships

16 + and adults

I have read an information leaflet and interim findings of the study and had the opportunity to ask any questions

☐

I agree to take part in the II stage of the study - Impact of Emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Family Relationships

☐

I agree to allow the interview to be audio-taped and data used for the research

☐

Name ________________________________

Signature _______________________

Date _______________________

|
CONSENT FORM for taking part in a research on Impact of Emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Family Relationships

TO BE COMPLETED BY YOUNG PERSON AND PARENT/GUARDIAN

PART A TO BE COMPLETED BY THE YOUNG PERSON

I have read and understood the information leaflet as well as interim findings of the research ☐

I had an opportunity to ask any questions ☐

I agree to take part in II stage of the study on Impact of Emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Family Relationships ☐

I would like to take part in (please tick one or more of the following)

an individual interview ☐

joint interview with one of my parents ☐

I agree to allow interview to be audio-taped. ☐

Name __________________________________________

Signature _________________________________

Age _________

Date ____________________________
CONSENT FORM for taking part in a research on Impact of Emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Family Relationships

TO BE COMPLETED BY YOUNG PERSON AND PARENT/GUARDIAN

PART B TO BE COMPLETED BY THE PARENT/GUARDIAN

I have read and understood the accompanying letter and information leaflet as well as interim findings of the research

I had an opportunity to ask any questions

I give permission for the child to be included in the second stage of the research

Name ________________________________

Relationship to child ____________________

Signature ______________________________

Date ________________________________

THIS FORM MUST BE COMPLETED AND RETURNED TO THE RESEARCHER FOR THE NAMED YOUNG PERSON TO BE INCLUDED IN THIS STUDY. A STAMPED ADDRESSED ENVELOPE HAS BEEN PROVIDED.
**FG worksheets**

“Since my research about Lithuanian migrant family relationships” – I need to define what is a family in your understanding?

I. Group exercise on a flipchart: FAMILY

WHO IS YOUR/Lithuanian FAMILY?

Who is your/Lithuanian immediate family?

Who is your/Lithuanian extended family?

**FAMILY**

**NUCLEAR/IMMEDIATE**:

**EXTENDED**:

II. “TRANSITION STAGE

Interim findings show that that TRANSITION STAGE is the most painful part of all participant’s migrant life: whether they were left behind or they were the ones who left to the UK. This is the period that affects family relationships the most.

**DISCUSSION**: What do you think, what are the main issues during Transition stage that affects families and their relationships?

III. SUPPORT SYSTEMS

What kind of help is needed during Transition stage? Or
What can be done to make Transition stage easier to cope?

## SUPPORT SYSTEMS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OFFICIAL/FORMAL SUPPORT/HELP</th>
<th>UNOFFICIAL/INFORMAL SUPPORT/HELP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>HOW?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Library | Internet connection | Friends | Internet connection | Lithuanian community
--- | --- | --- | --- | ---
Family |
Lithuanian community | Lithuanian community |

*(Who are they? And How can they help?)*

Proms: Where would Lithuanian community fit: Official – Unofficial support? Both? How could it help Lithuanian families in the UK?

### IV. FINAL THOUGHTS – DISCUSSION

Looking back what you went through – what would you advice other Lithuanian families who are planning to migrate to the UK?
Interim findings

MIGRATION

Statement: Majority of Lithuanian people migrate from to the UK to enhance their material or personal conditions and improve the prospect for themselves or their family.

1.1. REASONS TO MIGRATE

Difficult Family situation and financial situation are two main reasons for people to migrate to the UK. Motivation to improve their lives play a major role in making the decision to migrate.

1.2. OBSTACLES TO MIGRATE TOGETHER

Many families didn’t migrate all together at the same time. For most families children’s education was the biggest obstacle why they all did not migrate together.

1.3. CHALLENGES OF MIGRATION

The major challenges to settling in the UK were respondents and their children’s adaptation, language, missing family and friends and work.

Other challenges include being discriminated as a foreigner.

1.4. TRANSITION STAGE

Transition stage is very painful for both sides – the ones who are leaving and the ones who are left behind.

Data reveals that during transition stage - people’s relationships intensifies. Uncertain/indefinite time of reunion brings tension to family relationships: children feel abandoned and feel angry for being left behind, partners – become suspicious about their partner’s real intentions in migration. Jealousy and anger are leading emotions during that period.
1.5. CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION

Findings show that all respondents experience positive and negative consequences of migration. Most people realise that migration is not only about gains but also about loses. Although they are doing much better financially everyone feels acutely the price they had to pay: young people miss their friends and family left behind, adults – miss their life back home in LT. Some people change in migration: become more distant, sensitive, more reserved.

Positive experience

Positive experiences include both social and financial benefits: learning English, integration in a community, appreciation for ones sexuality, personal achievements: learning to drive, fly, English; learning about the UK system and managing to benefit from it. As for financial benefits – it is the main reason for people to stay in the UK: financial and social security in the UK, financial welfare, quality life, opportunities, and children’s education.

Negative experiences

My finding show that respondents have various negative experiences in the UK. Just to mention a few: discrimination a foreigner, unfriendly neighbourhood, negative NHS experience; being bullied at school. However, results show, that positive experiences outweigh ones negative experiences in the UK.

Different people have different experience regarding help in migration. Some of them say that social services and job centres work very well and are a great help, others are disappointed with those services and had to rely on their “survival” instincts or help of friends and relatives.

1.6. FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS IN MIGRATION

Relationships are very important and my findings show that where relationships between parents were good in Lithuania they remained good and even improved in the UK. However many people seemed to be migrating to get away from troublesome or difficult relationships.
Data shows that for most of the respondents—relationships between family members have not changed and even improved since migrating to the UK (provided family was already close in Lithuania). Especially the ones who moved together, or soon after one of their family members moved to the UK.

On the other hand, the ones who left their families behind for quite a long time—found that time and distance had impact of their relationships—it became strained and distant after family’s reunification in the UK.

My findings show that new family in migration causes strains in family relationships.

Data also reveals that some Lithuanians live in artificial/pretend families: having a partner or a family in the UK while at the same time keeping relationship and supporting their real family in LT.

Young people have various relationships with their mothers. Some respondents found that they relationships improved, since, now, in the UK, they have more time to spend together, while others found their relationships falling apart due to parents’ new partners.

Relationships with parents – in – law.

Respondents either do not mention their relationship with their parents-in-law or admit that relationship was not good with their mothers’ in-law (especially the ones who got divorced and were blamed for failure of the family by their mother’s in law).

Relationship with parents

Relationship with father. Adults perspective.

Not all respondents mentioned their relationship with father, but the ones who did did not talk of them well. Either they were controlling and abusive in childhood or still controlling in their adult’s life.
Relationship with father. From Childs perspective.

All children, whose dads are left behind in Lithuania, miss their dads left behind and wish to stay in constant touch.

Relationship with mother. From Childs perspective.

Data reveals that almost all adults have close relationship with their mothers in Lithuania, unlike teenagers, whose relationship with their mothers have fallen apart since they move to the UK (mainly because of mother’s new partner).

Relationship with children

Data analysis reveals that most respondents have very close relationships with their children. In most cases, after migration, relationships improved because parents have more time to spend with their children. However, most parents in migration, found decline in parent–child relationship when children reach the adolescents stage. Parents also found it difficult to mend the broken relationships if they left their children behind for a long time.

Difficult relationships

(Many people told me that they were in difficult relationships and those necessarily improved by migration). My finding show that abuse is /was present in some family relationships in the UK (new family in migration). There is also tendency for the person, who was abused by a partner in Lithuania, to have a relationship with another abusive partner in the UK.

1.7. PRIORITIES AND PLANS IN MIGRATION.

My findings show that at first, it is about survival in a new country and a new culture. Surviving without a job, surviving living conditions, surviving longing for friends and family left behind. Latter, it is about finding a job and heaving a steady income to support and provide for the family; Looking for a “better” neighbourhood to live, and improving living conditions for all family.
CHOISES AND DECISIONS & MANAGING THE SITUATION -

the type and role of coping mechanisms, self-help and support network in migration process.

Coping mechanisms

Findings show that the most difficult things to cope were: missing family and friends left behind.
Respondents’ coping mechanisms were about seeking connections (after migration), trust, keeping oneself busy and faith

Self-help

Respondents expressed their self-help as: care of oneself (accepting the situation; attending gym and pampering oneself), controlling the situation (time management, setting priorities, learning about how UK system works, staying in touch with friends and family in Lithuania and UK, subletting place, etc).

Some respondents admitted that they tried to get emotionally detached from their left behind families, because it helped them to cope better with a complicated situation in migration.

Support network

My findings show that support network plays a big role in how people manage their situation. The biggest group is Friends, then Family members, and then Others (social services, job centres, media, church).

MENTAL & PHYSICAL STATE

Your well being: Emotions, Feelings, Pain and Depression, increase /decrease of Self –esteem before, during and after migration.

Respondents experience a wide range of feelings and emotions both positive and negative throughout their life prior to migration, during transition period and after migration. Most frequent positive feelings and emotions are: Joy, Happiness, Contentment and Excitement. Most frequent negative emotions are:
Anger, Sadness, Fear and Anxiety, Frustration, Confusion, Regrets, Distress, Worries and Insecurities.

**POSITIVE FEELINGS & EMOTIONS**

Data analysis shows that all positive feelings and emotions are associated with migration and a new life in the UK. Joy, Happiness, Contentment and Excitement are the most frequent respondents’ experiences.

**NEGATIVE FEELINGS AND EMOTIONS**

**Anger.** My findings show that Anger is a leading negative feeling for most respondents. From adult’s perspective - it is mostly related to life/relationships in Lithuania, or relationships during transition stage when tension was rising between separated partners due to uncertainty in the future. However Anger was related to experience in the UK while talking about work experiences in a factory and relationships/communication with English doctors; Anger at a teenager not listening to parents (UK). From child’s perspective – a teenager is angry at a parent for leaving her behind, then - for bringing her over to the UK, and then - feels angry for a parent having a new family in migration.

**SELF-ESTEEM**

**Low self-esteem** – mainly reflects people’s stories/experiences from their life in Lithuania: abuse at home, difficult childhood. (Low self-esteem is mentioned as a mark of the past (childhood, marriage in LT) – nothing mentioned as the present occurrence).

**Increased self-esteem** – people’s self-esteem increases after they manage to find a job in the UK, and succeed in it /be appreciated by the colleagues. It is also increases starting doing something new like learning to drive or fly; learning the language and succeeding academically. All this associated with life in the UK.

**EMOTIONAL PAIN** - People describe it as suffering or Lithuanian word **skausmas** – pain. It is to describe both physical and emotional pain. It is mainly about pain of separation and loss.

It is obvious that Missing parents and Separation (missing children) are most prominent regarding emotional pain overtaking all other emotional
disturbances: being bullied at school in the UK, having cruel childhood, tense relationship with parents and siblings back in Lithuania.

**Emotional pain** was especially acute during illegal times when people were not able to go back to Lithuania whenever they wanted.

**Emotional pain** or “bleeding hard” has different “shades”. One of them was feeling pain and **guilt** for leaving children with an irresponsible partner or a family member who is not **Trusted** enough to look and provide for the children left behind.

**Emotional pain** is also a *driving force* to make a **decision to migrate**

In other cases - people experienced **emotional pain** for not being able to provide a quality life for their families in Lithuania. Thus encouraged them to migrate and look for better opportunities abroad. *(Financial reasons).*

From children’s perspective - **Emotional pain** is a daily companion. Left behind children experience **emotional pain** of missing closeness with their parents or failing to get along with their carers. In migration- they suffer from missing family members and friends that are left behind.

**Depression** occurs both in Lithuania and the UK. In Lithuania - Depression/Suicidal thoughts is more about not seeing perspectives and being down by hopelessness of financial situation as well as finding it hard to cope while being left behind. In the UK -it is caused by crushed dreams about brighter future in migration.

**WORK** - Work in Lithuania and the UK: job market; challenges and benefits.

**WORK IN LITHUANIA** - all respondents admit having a negative work experiences in Lithuania. That includes: overload of work; very hard/slavery work and no money and no appreciation for ones skills and knowledge. For many of them it was a reason to migrate and find a country where their professional skills would be appreciated and financially rewarded.

**WORK IN THE UK**

People are highly motivated to succeed in the UK. Some people have high
professional ambitions, others - just want to have a steady job and be able to support their families.

All respondents emphasise **New Experiences** in regards of improved communication/language skills and increased financial security (salary would always be paid on time – which was not taken for granted in Lithuania) due to a new job.

Most respondents talk about their **social status**: some of them were humiliated because of their low language and trade skills (low paid jobs) – others, on the other hand, who knew the language and aimed for better paid jobs (GP, IT specialist, shop management), were highly appreciated and valued for their work.

**LIFE IN LITHUANIA** - Life experiences, financial situation, communication and family relationships before and during transition stage of migration.

Most **Financial situation**, **Life experiences** and **Family relationships** can also be called **REASONS TO MIGRATE**. It is either personal or financial reason. Sometimes it is both.

Under **Financial situation** there are two equally big subcategories: **Economical crisis** and **Living conditions**. Economic crisis is about financial and employment insecurities, seeing no perspective, having no trust in Lithuanian social security system and economy, and no hope that things would get better. It is also about poor household/living conditions and struggling in daily lives. And, although, people were determined (**firmness of purpose**) to survive in Lithuania, but, when things did not work/improve – they became highly motivated to migrate and look for a better life abroad (UK).

**Family relationships**

For half of the respondents - poor family relationships was one of the reasons to migrate.

Data analysis suggests that the families who had close relationships with their families in Lithuania–took decision to migrate **together**. Those people either moved to the UK together or they were reunited soon after one of the parents/partners settled down in the UK.
Communication about decision to migrate

Findings show that Communication is Lithuania was mainly about communicating news to the family about decision to migrate. Data shows that in half of the cases, children and other family members were informed about the “inevitable” decision. The other half of respondents took a joint decision, discussing challenges and consequences of migration, with their families.

**LIFE IN THE UK** – Positive and negative experiences; reasons to stay; family relationships and communication; future plans in the UK.

**COMMUNICATION**= **MANAGING THE SITUATION**

Results show that communication plays a major role in managing the situation and sustaining relationships in migration.

My findings/interpretations of data show that communication has a great impact on family’s relationships. In migration most families spend more time together that leads to better communication and eventually resulting in improvement of relationships.

However, data shows, that communication between children and parents who have **new families** in migration is different/complicated/tense.
Possible questions for the second stage of data collection

Open/main questions// prompt/secondary questions// not sure if they have to be there or asked in reflection part at the end of the interview

FAMILY - Encarta Dictionary: English (U.K)

1. **Group of relatives** (group of people who are closely related by birth, marriage, or adoption)

2. **People living together** (a group of people living together and functioning as a single household, usually consisting of parents and their children)

Extended family (the family as a unit embracing parents and children together with grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, and sometimes more distant relatives)

Nuclear family (a social unit that consists of a mother, a father, and their children)

**WHO IS YOUR FAMILY?**

**MIGRATION**

1.1. **REASONS TO MIGRATE**

What were your reasons to migrate? // Were family relationships part of the reason to migrate?

1.2. **OBSTACLES TO MIGRATE TOGETHER AS A FAMILY**

What was your biggest obstacle to migrate together? // Was children’s education one of your biggest obstacle to migrate together? // Has it effected family relationships somehow?
1.3. CHALLENGES OF MIGRATION
What were the biggest challenges of migration? Where these: children’s adaptation, language, work, missing family and friends also your biggest challenges in Migration? How did it affect your extended (the family as a unit embracing parents and children together with grandparents, aunts, uncles, cousins, and sometimes more distant relatives) and nuclear (a social unit that consists of a mother, a father, and their children) relationships?

1.4. BENEFITS OF MIGRATION
What are your benefits of Migration? How did it affect your nuclear family relationships?

1.5. TRANSITION STAGE - time before all nuclear family got reunited/migrated to the UK

What is your experience? Did your nuclear family have sufficient/extended support in Lithuania? Did you have a regular communication and a clear date for the reunion? How did it affect your family relationships?

1.5. CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION
What is your experience? What were your negative and positive consequences of migration? What is your experience regarding official help in the UK?

1.7 WISHES
What are your wishes? Was having your family reunited also one of your biggest dreams? What were your feelings about reuniting your family?
CHOICES AND DECISIONS & MANAGING THE SITUATION ONCE IN THE UK

1. What kind of choices and decisions made an impact on your coping strategies? // Were you struggling to make a choice: to go back or to stay in the UK? // Has it affected your family relationships? How?

2. How did you manage migration process: prior, transition and post stage of migration? // Was self-help / relying on yourself / caring of yourself, controlling the situation, (time management, setting priorities, learning about how UK system works, staying in touch with friends and family in Lithuania and UK, subletting place, etc) one of your ways to manage the situation? In what way?

3. What are your coping mechanisms? // What was/is your support network? // What would be your order (e.g. 1. Family, 2. Others, 3. Friends in the UK/Lithuania)?

BEING LEFT BEHIND

1. What was your support network? // What would be your order (e.g. 1. Family, 2. Others, 3. Friends)? // How did you cope and managed the situation?

MENTAL & PHYSICAL STATE

1. What are your positive feelings and emotions regarding all migration process? // What are they associated with? // Would joy, happiness, contentment, optimism, excitement, would be some of your positive feelings? When do/did you experience them?

2. What are your negative feelings and emotions regarding all migration process? // What are they associated with? // Would anger, sadness, emptiness, fear and anxiety, frustration, confusion, regrets, insecurities, distress, depression, worries and disappointment be some of your negative feelings and emotions? ? When do/did you experience them? Before, during or after migration? During all migration stages?

3. Can you tell me about your self esteem at the moment, please? What has had the major impact on it? How has your self-esteem changed since migrating to the UK?
4. How can you describe Emotional Pain?// Have you experienced it during migration process? Before, during transition period or after migration? What did you feel? Who or what caused it?

WORK

WORK IN LITHUANIA

Was experience of work in Lithuania one of the reasons to migrate to the UK?// Was it specifically because of work?// Has your work experience in Lithuania had any impact on your family relationships?

WORK IN THE UK

What were you looking for in finding your job in the UK?// Has your work experience in the UK had any impact on your family relationships?

LIFE IN LITHUANIA

Financial situation

How do your financial situation affect your motivation to migrate?// Was financial situation one of your reasons to migrate to the UK? //Tell me more.

Family relationships

How would you describe your family relationships in Lithuania? // Tell me more.

Communication

How did you communicate your intention to migrate to the family?// Were they “informed” about your decision to migrate or was it a joined decision by the whole family?// How was your family involved in decision making process? // What impact did it have on your family relationships?

Transition stage

Can you tell me, please, about the impact of transition period on your family relationships? // Has your relationship with a family intensified during
transition stage? Has anger and jealousy were leading emotions in your case during transition period? //How important is trust (firm reliance on a person ) while family is separated?

LIFE IN THE UK

COMMUNICATION

Tell me, please, how you maintain your communication with your family in Lithuania? // Has it helped or hindered your relationship?

FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS IN MIGRATION

1. What has happened to your relationship with your partner since you came to the UK? // Did you come separately? Together? Are you still about to be reunited? Has your relationship with your partner improved?

2. How has your relationship with the family members changed since migration to the UK? // Improved? Became complicated? // (Would you agree that spending more time, as well as overcoming challenges together, bring families closer and strengthen their relationships? )

3. How distance and time apart affected your family relationships? // Tell me more/Explain, please.

4. How has new family in migration affected family’s dynamic and relationships? // Do you know about any cases of pretend families among Lithuanians?

5. What is your relationship with your parents? // Has your relationship changed since migrating to the UK?

6. What is your relationship with your parents – in-law? // How migration affected your relationships?

7. How has leaving your children behind affected your relationship with them now? // Has it had a significant impact on your relationships?
DIFFICULT RELATIONSHIPS - closed question in order to find out if they had any difficult relationships

Do you have any experience of difficult relationships? // Was it in Lithuania? UK? Both countries?

POSITIVE EXPERIENCES

What are your positive experiences in the UK? // Which are the most important of those: financial and social security in the UK, financial welfare, quality life, opportunities, and children’s education. Learning English, integration in a community, appreciation for ones sexuality, personal achievements? // How did positive experiences in the UK affect your family relationships?

NEGATIVE EXPERIENCES

Have you had any negative experiences in the UK? // Tell me more, please. // How did negative experiences in the UK affect your family relationships?

PRIORITIES AND PLANS IN MIGRATION – REFLECTION

1. Looking back how do you view your decision to migrate? Are there things you would do differently to sustain your family relationships? // Would you use any of those words: motivation (desire to do well/succeed), responsibility (obligation to benefit family) and determination (firmness of purpose) in describing your plans and priorities in the UK? // How did your plans developed?

2. What do you think of trust (firm reliance on a person – your partner) and its role in migration process? // How important is it for family relationships?

3. Could you explain role of responsibility (moral, legal, or mental accountability/obligation to benefit family) in your family relationships? // Is sense of responsibility important to your relationship with a family? // Has it played one of the major roles in sustaining your family during migration process?

4. Has responsibility (moral, legal, or mental accountability/obligation to benefit family) trust (firm reliance on a person), motivation (desire to do well) played any role in your coping and managing your situation? // How?
COMPARISON OF TRANSITION STAGE & SUPPORT SYSTEMS FINDINGS WITH WORD FREQUENCY RESULTS

Word Frequency Query (WFQ) of Transition stage and Support Systems categories support my interim and Focus group (FG) findings: Transition stage is very painful for both sides – the ones who are leaving and the ones who are left behind. Anxiety, anger for the situation, worries, sadness, lonesomeness, constant nightmares - are just a few major emotions that people experience during transition period.

Regular communication and clear time set for the reunion makes transition period easier to cope and manage.

Having no sufficient support at home after parents’ migration – leave children vulnerable. Young people feel insecure and some of them even have suicidal thoughts.

It is very important to set the support network for the ones left behind. Children who had the whole extended family and family friends looking after them were coping easier during the transition stage than the ones who were left just with their grandmothers.

Better arrangements of care for their left behind children - also made parents during transition period in migration feel and cope better.

Main coping mechanism in migration – hard work (trying not to think about the situation). Keeping busy and constant communication with the left ones – are two main coping strategies during transition period for parents in migration.

The hardest thing for parents in migration, during “illegal” times (before LT became part of EU), was the uncertainty about the future reunion with their children and the fear of being deported.

Young people matured faster after being left behind and being made responsible for their younger siblings. They manage the household, school work and care of their siblings provided there is a constant communication with parents in migration and support network of family and friends to rely/count on.
Coping involves:

Support network - UK+LT

Constant communication with parents UK+LT

Visiting

Going to the mountains - UK

Communicating in Lithuanian - UK

Work

TRANSITION STAGE (TS) and SUPPORT SYSTEMS (SS)

MAIN ISSUES DURING TS mentioned at FOCUS GROUP:
• Anger
• Decision making
• Different understandings about life abroad
• Distance
• Doubts
• Fair of failure
• Feeling of guilt
• Hard to figure our culture and traditions
• Lack of language
• Lack of self-fulfilment
• Separation
• Social insecurity
• Trust
• Uncertainty

After merging all MAIN ISSUES that affects family relationships the most during TS, and running word frequency query - the results were the following:

The biggest “cloud” is FAMILY = home

Length – 5; Count -59 Weighted percentage WP -2.45%

Then as follow: MAKE – 6/56. WP 2.32% = PREPARATION, REALIZATION, WORK
TRANSITION 10/51. WP – 2.28%

UNCERTAINTY = DOUBTS 11/46. WP -1.82%

LEARN = CONDITIONS = DETERMINATION = STUDY

UNITED = TOGETHER = JOIN

LANGUAGE

MIGRATION

PROCESS = WORK

HELP = SUPPORT

ADAPTATION

FACE = ASPECTS

CULTURE

THINK = IMAGING = THINKING

BACK = SUPORT

TRIED = STRESS

DECISION = DETERMINATION

COMMUNITY = COMMUNICATION

PROBLEMS = JOB

SYSTEM

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join, together, united, whole

language

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different

migrate, migration

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adaptation

aspects, face, look

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culture, cultures

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difficult, hard

Information

lots, much

integrate, integrating, mixed, whole

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achieve, completely, manage, realization, see, understand, understanding

relationship, relationships
PRIORITIES

PRIORITIES AND PLANS IN MIGRATION.

My findings show that at first, it is about survival in a new country and a new culture. Surviving without a job, surviving living conditions, surviving longing for friends and family left behind. Latter, it is about finding a job and heaving a steady income to support and provide for the family; Looking for a “better” neighbourhood to live, and improving living conditions for all family.

After FG discussion - 3 main priorities emerged:

• Looking after elderly parents left behind
• Reunification
• To succeed

WFQ identifies to following words in Priority category
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Memo: WFQ identified the following most frequently used words that are corresponding to interim and FG findings: Priorities is about the **family**, **new beginning**, **finding a job**, **earning money**, **making a decision**, **communication**, **help**, **relationships**.

### BEING LEFT BEHIND

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3 | 1 | 11 | 0.49 | 3, three
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often | 5 | 14 | 0.49 | much, often
leave | 5 | 23 | 0.48 | allow, allowed, give, leave, leaving
story | 5 | 13 | 0.46 | celebrate, celebration, celebrations, floor, story
buy | 3 | 10 | 0.45 | buy
cope | 4 | 11 | 0.45 | cope, coping, manage

Memo: It seems that lots of **thoughts/thinking** going on in this category. Communication, Mom, grandma, time, missing, hard/difficult/anger. Then goes sadness and feelings. Support and Coping, however, are not the most frequently used words. Anger and family are somewhere in the middle.

**LEAVING BEHIND**

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family | 6 | 48 | 1.81 | families, family, home, house
just | 4 | 45 | 1.52 | exactly, good, hard.
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MEMO: Already the first word (and the ones related to it) in this category means a life transformation: arrival, new beginning, wish of bringing family over, finding a job and a place to stay; leaving mother behind and suffering as a result of a process. Then another big word FAMILY. Unlike Being Left Behind - money and motivation are quite often used. Hard is as big as in Being Left Behind, then it comes lots of thinking and believing. Then Needs and Communication (tell, say). Help, however comes in a very middle of the list as if people don’t really look for it.

COPING

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The table above lists terms and their associated frequency, recurrence, and similarity scores. Terms with higher similarity scores are more likely to be important or relevant to the context of the text.
Memo: This category is all about expressing emotions (crying) and survival. It is also about finding means to cope with separation: work, constant communication, personal items: teddy; friends.

According to WFQ – this category is about “crying for support and help”.
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Memo: Most of the words in this category are action oriented and encouraging: **start**, **move**, **migrate**, and **look for support**, **become**, **break**, **learn** and **experience**. It is also about **making a decision** and **determination** to make it work. It involves lots of **thinking** and **consideration**. It is also encouragement to look for **help** and **support**. It is also about **planning** (**learning**, **educating** oneself about the system and being prepared for a challenges ahead: **separation**, search for **job** and **accommodation; new culture**).

**SOLUTIONS AFTER FG DISCUSSION:**
## RESPONSIBILITY

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Memo: From just looking at the “cloud” - it becomes obvious that people feel responsible for their families, lives and their future.

They also feel responsible to help them and either look for the house or look after their house.

**POSITIVE OUTCOMES**

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It is also about integration - as a huge achievement in the end (that takes lots of learning and adaptation).

**SUPPORT SYSTEMS**

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Memo: I decided to look only at the very first (frequent) 20-30 words in the categories and here they indicated that help/support, people, knowledge, family, friends and information are the most frequent ones.
OFFICIAL SUPPORT

OFFICIAL SUPPORT (FG)

Centralised support center

Collaboration among social agencies

Duty of the system to protect families

Employer

Existing support systems

Housing association

Information on how system works

Library

Lithuanian community

Lithuanian embassy

Not accepting official support in Peterborough

Schools for foreigners

Social services. Job Center. Social authorities.

Web sites

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UNOFFICIAL SUPPORT

UNOFFICIAL SUPPORT – (FG)

Family members
Friends & Acquaintances
Lithuanian community
Church
Social websites
Lithuanian social media
Lithuanian schools
American studies on Lithuanian migration
Self initiated community centers
Self-help
Illegal support services
English people
Established unofficial Lithuanian community
No trust in authorities

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<td>Meetings</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sharing</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Memo: In this category it is obvious that the main help is provided by Lithuanian people/community: friends and family. They provide information about services and official help. They help to find a job, stay in touch with each other, help with English, money, etc. they help with adaptation and look after left behind family/children. At the very bottom of the list– Lithuanian news.
Appendix 22: Table of differences between Emotions and Feelings (Pettinelli (2009))

**Table of differences between Emotions and Feelings** (Pettinelli, 2009). Article is available from: http://cnx.org/contents/kwEQ6igA@7/Emotions-and-Feelings-and-the- [Accessed 06/06/17].

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotions</th>
<th>Feelings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unconscious thought – more similar to conscious thought</td>
<td>Unconscious thought</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions are slower, but deeper</td>
<td>Feelings are more like sensations, when you touch something you get a feeling. Therefore feelings are faster</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion is a deeper, more unconscious experience similar to unconscious thought, but emotions are also more similar to conscious thought because thought is a deep experience.</td>
<td>While feelings are intense or shallow, but not deep) -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotion can be &quot;any strong feeling&quot;</td>
<td>Feelings can be described in more detail than emotions (because you can have a specific feeling for anything, each feeling is unique and might not have a name).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>But if you are depressed that isn't a feeling it is more like an emotion</td>
<td>You can recognize any feeling that is what makes it a feeling. If you are sad that is a feeling, -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You can't identify why you are depressed -</td>
<td>but you can usually identify why you are sad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>However, if something happened a long time ago, you are going to think about it unconsciously and that is going to bring up unconscious feelings. Otherwise known as emotion. So emotions are unconscious feelings that are the result of unconscious thoughts.</td>
<td>Feelings are more immediate, if something happens or is happening, it is going to result in a feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Another aspect of unconscious thought, emotion, or unconscious feeling (all three are the same) is that it tends to be mixed into the rest of your system because it is unconscious</td>
<td>If it was conscious then it remains as an individual feeling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In its unconscious form you confuse it with the other emotions and feelings and it affects <strong>your entire system</strong>.</td>
<td>Feelings are easier to identify (because you can feel them easier).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An emotion might be a deeper experience because it might affect more of you, but that is only because it is mixed into the rest of your system. That is, a depression affects more of you than just an isolated feeling of sadness.

Feelings are easier to identify because they are faster, a feeling is something you are feeling right then.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>An emotion might be a deeper experience because it might affect more of you, but that is only because it is mixed into the rest of your system. That is, a depression affects more of you than just an isolated feeling of sadness.</th>
<th>Feelings are easier to identify because they are faster, a feeling is something you are feeling right then.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>But they can have many emotions at the same time</strong></td>
<td>People can only have a few feelings at a time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Emotions are mixed in,</strong></td>
<td>But to feel something you have to be able to identify what it is, or it is going to be so intense that you would be able to identify what it is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotions just feel deeper because it is all your feelings being affected at once. Therefore emotions are <strong>stronger</strong> than feelings.</td>
<td>Feelings however are a more directed focus. When you feel something you can always identify what that one thing is.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When you have an emotion, the emotion is more distant, but stronger. All your feelings must feel a certain way about whatever is causing the emotion. So that one thing is affecting your entire system.</td>
<td>Feelings can then be defined as immediate unconscious thought -</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>And emotions as unconscious thought.</strong></td>
<td><strong>And emotions as unconscious thought.</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 23: Expressing emotions cloud and WFQ

Expressing emotions ‘cloud’ and WFQ

04 05 10 12 13 14 15 16 29 33 8 abroad acute aggressive ago almost also ask attention back behind call came close communication conditions
crying confident cope english
daddy daughter day
divorced emigrated environment evening every everything fall
family feel get girls go got granddaughter hair happy
hard heart help hug importance juggling know later learn leave left
like living long look lot mentions mom niece
nothing now ok pause please pm react read real room sad silence
since sometimes soon started stay stressing talking teddy tell thing
think time uk upset wanted well without writing yeah

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>EXPRESSING EMOTIONS (MENTAL)</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Weighted Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Similar Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5.20</td>
<td>get, getting, go, going, leave, leaves, leaving, live, living, moved, started, work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crying</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>call, calling, calls, cried, cry, crying, tears</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mom</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>mom, mummy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>Type Frequency</td>
<td>Type Coefficient</td>
<td>Example Words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>come, father, get, getting, mother, started, take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feel</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>feel, look, looks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>imagine, mean, remember, think, thought, thoughtful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>correspond, like, liked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>long</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>long</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lot</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1.47</td>
<td>lot, much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>back</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>back, second, supports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>know</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>bed, know, learn, learned, letter, letters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>call, calling, calls, names, phone, rings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cope</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>cope, coping</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>family</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>family, home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>living</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>keep, know, live, living, supports</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tell</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1.11</td>
<td>order, tell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>left</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>left</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ok</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>alright, fine, ok</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pause</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>pause</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sad</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>sad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wanted</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>miss, missed, wanted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leave</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>forget, leave, leaves, leaving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>silence</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>silence, still</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>english</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>english</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>word</td>
<td>n1</td>
<td>n2</td>
<td>score</td>
<td>explanation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>----</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>heart</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>eyes, heart</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hug</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>hug, hugged</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>now</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.74</td>
<td>immediately, now</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 24: Determination WFQ

### DETERMINATION WFQ

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Weighted Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>539</td>
<td>3.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>get</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>305</td>
<td>1.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>home</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>1.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lithuania</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>1.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>life</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>158</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>see</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>194</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>233</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miss</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>live</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>205</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>think</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>year</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>even</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>0.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>job</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>just</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>time</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feel</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>0.79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>also</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trying</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>know</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>0.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>0.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most FW: Go=Break, get=arrived=come=develop, like=care, home, Lithuania, see=determination=experience, job, time and feel. **Determination** category has the biggest count of references (unlike Depression that has only a few) and proves that is one of the main themes that goes throughout the whole migration process.
**Appendix 25: Presentation of Interim findings – FG**

**FG DISCUSSION PLAN**

- Introduction
- I. Presentation of interim findings and discussion
- Coffee break
- ‘Family’ definition

- II. ‘Transition stage’ discussion
- Support systems
- ‘Advice bureau’
- Final thoughts and closure
Impact of Emigration to the UK on Lithuanian Immigrant Family Relationships

Statement: Majority of Lithuanian people migrate from to the UK to enhance their material or personal conditions and improve the prospect for themselves or their family.
LIFE IN LITHUANIA

REASONS TO MIGRATE

- Difficult Family situation
- Financial situation

MAIN OBSTACLE TO MIGRATE TOGETHER
- Children’s education
COMMUNICATION WITH A FAMILY ABOUT DECISION TO MIGRATE

- 50% - were informed about the “inevitable” decision.

- 50% took a joint decision, discussing challenges and consequences of migration.
TRANSITION STAGE

Very painful for both sides

- People's relationships intensifies - indefinite time of reunion brings tension to family relationships:
  - children feel abandoned and feel angry for being left behind;
  - partners become suspicious about their partner's real intentions in migration.

- Jealousy and anger are leading emotions during that period.

DEPRESSION

occurs both in Lithuania and the UK.

- **In Lithuania** - Depression/Suicidal thoughts is more about not seeing perspectives and being down by hopelessness of financial situation as well as finding it hard to cope while being left behind.

- **In the UK** - it is caused by crushed dreams about brighter future in migration.
MANAGING THE SITUATION

The most difficult things to cope: missing family and friends left behind.

- **Main coping mechanisms:**
  - Seeking connections
  - Seeping oneself busy
  - Faith
  - Self-help (controlling the situation, emotional detachment)

- **Support network:** Friends, family, others (social services, job centres, media, church)

- **Communication** plays a major role in managing the situation and sustaining relationships in migration.
OFFICIAL HELP IN MIGRATION

Different people have different experience regarding help in migration:

• social services and job centres work very well and are a great help;

• others - are disappointed with those services and had to rely on their “survival” instincts or help of friends and relatives.

CHALLENGES OF MIGRATION

Main challenges
• adaptation,
• language,
• missing family and friends
• work.

Other challenges
• being discriminated as a foreigner.
CONSEQUENCES OF MIGRATION

All respondents experience positive and negative consequences of migration.

Most people realise that migration is not only about gains but also about loses.
## Positive experiences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Social benefits</th>
<th>Financial Benefits</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>learning English,</td>
<td>financial and social security in the UK,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>integration in a community,</td>
<td>financial welfare,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appreciation for ones sexuality,</td>
<td>quality life,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>personal achievements,</td>
<td>opportunities,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>learning about the UK system and managing to benefit from it.</td>
<td>children’s education.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Negative experiences

- discrimination as a foreigner
- unfriendly neighbourhood
- negative NHS experience
- being bullied at school.
PRIORITIES AND PLANS IN MIGRATION

- **First**, it is about survival in a new country and a new culture.

- **Latter**, it is about finding a job and having a steady income to support and provide for the family;

- **Finally** - looking for a “**better**” neighbourhood to live, and improving living conditions for all family

WORK

WORK IN LITHUANIA

Negative work experiences in Lithuania:

- overload of work;
- very hard/slavery work and no money
- and no appreciation for ones skills and knowledge

WORK IN THE UK

- People are highly motivated to succeed in the UK.
- All respondents emphasise **New Experiences**: improved communication/language skills and increased financial security.
- Most respondents talk about their **social status** (positive and negative)
FAMILY RELATIONSHIPS IN MIGRATION

- Relationships are very important and findings show that where relationships between parents were good in Lithuania they remained good and even improved in the UK.

- However, many people seemed to be migrating to get away from troublesome or difficult relationships.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN FAMILY MEMBERS

- The ones who moved together, or got reunited relatively soon - relationships have not changed and even improved since migrating to the UK.

- The ones who left their families behind for a long time – found that their relationships became strained and distant after family’s reunification in the UK.

- New family in migration causes strains in family relationships
DIFFICULT RELATIONSHIPS

- Some people were in difficult relationships in Lithuania and those necessarily improved by migration.

- Abuse is /was present in some family relationships in the UK (new family in migration).

- There is also tendency for the person, who was abused by a partner in Lithuania, to have a relationship with another abusive partner in the UK.

MENTAL & PHYSICAL STATE

POSITIVE FEELINGS & EMOTIONS

- Joy,
- Happiness,
- Contentment
- Excitement

- All positive feelings and emotions are associated with migration and a new life in the UK

NEGATIVE FEELINGS AND EMOTIONS

- Anger,
- Sadness,
- Fear and Anxiety,
- Frustration,
- Confusion,
- Regrets,
- Distress,
- Worries
- Insecurities
SELF-ESTEEM

Low self-esteem

- mainly reflects people's stories/experiences from their life in Lithuania: abuse at home, difficult childhood.
- nothing mentioned as the present occurrence.

Increased self-esteem

- All this associated with life in the UK:
- finding a job
- being appreciated by colleagues.
- Doing something new: learning to drive or fly; learning English, and succeeding academically.

WHAT DO YOU MAKE OF IT?
MY FAMILY

- WHO IS YOUR/Lithuanian FAMILY?
- Who is your/Lithuanian immediate family?
- Who is your/Lithuanian extended family?

NUCLEAR/IMMEDIATE          EXTENDED
II. ‘TRANSITION STAGE’ DISCUSSION

What are the main issues during Transition stage that affect families and their relationships?

III. SUPPORT SYSTEMS

• What kind of help is needed during Transition stage?

• What can be done to make Transition stage easier to cope?
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OFFICIAL/FORMAL SUPPORT/HELP</th>
<th>UNOFFICIAL/INFORMAL SUPPORT/HELP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>WHO?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HOW?</td>
<td>HOW?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Library</th>
<th>Internet connection</th>
<th>Friends</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuanian community</td>
<td>Lithuanian community</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**IV. FINAL THOUGHTS - DISCUSSION**

Looking back what you went through –what would you advice other Lithuanian families who are planning to migrate to the UK?
THANK YOU!
Official support

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OFFICIAL/FORMAL</th>
<th>SUPPORT/HELP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WHO?</td>
<td>HOW?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Library</td>
<td>Internet connection; Information about available services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social services, job centres, housing association</td>
<td>1. Feedback/questionnaires about migrants’ needs; 2. Information about available services.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuanian community/Embassy</td>
<td>1. Feedback/questionnaires about migrants’ needs 2. Cooperation with social services: activities, projects, meetings, lectures, publications, English courses; 3. Mass during holidays/national celebrations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employer</td>
<td>1. Feedback/questionnaires about migrants’ needs;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Impact of Migration to the UK on Lithuanian Migrant Family Relationships

Interplay of Life Styles and Culture
Lithuanian Migrants in the UK

Supervisors: Prof. Dave Ward and Jennie Fleming
Ausrine Bremner  26/04/2012
Lithuania and EU

A core principle of the EU is “freedom of movement,” meaning that an EU national may travel to another EU member state and live, study, or work on an equal basis with native-born residents” (Martin and Zurcher, 2008, p.11).

STATISTICS

› In 2011 - 53,900 residents emigrated from Lithuania.
› During last ten years 204,700 people emigrated from Lithuania.
› In 2008–2009, every fourth emigrant left for the UK, while in the following years – half of emigrants.
› 3000 children left Lithuania in 2009.

Statistics Lithuania (2010, 2012)
LITERATURE

- Stachura (2004)
- Pflegerl, J & Trnkó, S (2005)
- VTAT (2006)
- Darbo ir Socialiniu Tyrimu Institutas (2008)

Grounded theory

Fig.1. Dick. B (2005)
WHAT HAS BEEN DONE

- Theoretical sampling

- Interviewed 16 people from Peterborough, Nottingham, Leicester, Birmingham, Surrey, Cambridge and Kaunas

- 8 women, 3 men, 4 teenagers and 1 child

FINDINGS AND THEMES

What is life like for you as a Lithuanian immigrant in the UK?

How are you managing the situation?

What of your dreams have been fulfilled?
LIST OF THEMES

Financial benefits:
- Financial freedom
- Part time job and benefits
- Financial security

Psychological benefits:
- Entertainment
- Personal achievements and boost of self-esteem
  - learning to drive
  - learning to fly
- Improved relationships
- Personal freedom

FINANCIAL BENEFITS IN THE UK

Financial freedom with part time job and benefits

Asta (18): Life is much easier in the UK. I am never short of money and there's always spare to spend. I can buy everything I want, and it's easier to pursue my career here.
FINANCIAL BENEFITS IN THE UK

Financial freedom with part time job and benefits

Rasa (37): *In Lithuania I didn’t have a hold of money. I’d spend them on the bills – absolutely everything! Here, I’m working part-time, and also getting money for my daughter – so, I can allow myself everything! Totally! We buy any food we like. (...). We can also afford to go travelling with my partner.*

Life in Lithuania

Sandra (46): *(...) when your household is so poor – as an individual you start to degrade. I couldn’t think of any amusement or entertainment, I couldn’t afford anything in Lithuania at all. (...) sometimes I’d have some thoughts like to switch on the gas, so that the three of us would never have to wake up again (...).*
Financial security

Sandra (46): One thing is definitely different here from my life in Lithuania – I found peace in my soul. (...). I was living in constant fear and anxiety. Now, for example, on 28th of each month I get my salary and I don’t need to worry that till 28th of next month I won’t have anything to eat. I pay my rent and I can afford to go to the shop and buy some clothes if I need it. (...) I could also afford to buy something for my boys (...).

PSYCHOLOGICAL BENEFITS IN THE UK

Entertainment

Sandra (46): (...) We were extremely happy that we managed to buy a car here. (...). So, then we went to Stanford by car (...). We were happy to see the beauty of that town (...) every little thing brings joy to us, because before, in Lithuania, we couldn’t afford to do absolutely anything. Doing things together and having fun also brought us closer.
Personal achievements and boost of self-esteem

**Sandra (46):** *I wanted to start respecting myself again, to feel human, and to become stronger.*

---

Learning to drive

**Sandra (46):** *I’ve learned to drive here on the other side of the road. (…). Step by step I gained my confidence. Now, I can even give someone a lift to Stansted airport if is it needed.*
Learning to fly

Jonas (40): *In Cambridge there’s an airport and there are lots of piloting training centres. These are one-engine planes. I had a few lessons... ah... and I really liked it. It was right after my divorce - probably I needed it.*

Fulfilled dreams

- **Sandra (46):** I had only tiny dreams. (...) for example, to buy a better toothpaste. (...) Now, all my dreams have fulfilled, more so, it surpassed all expectations.

- **Rasa (37):** I’ve got a harmonious and peaceful life I was always longing for.
Fulfilled dreams

› Rokas (45) - GP: *Here I am free from 6 pm. You also have a security, normal holidays and life of real value - I didn’t have that in Lithuania. (...) there’s nothing missing: family is with me, I like my job, only 2 hours flight to Lithuania.*

› Milda (44) - shop assistant. (...) *I think, here I have all I wanted: have a job, have a daughter with me, I can speak English, and drive a car. (…)*

Improved relationships

Rasa (37): *I didn’t have any time for her in Lithuania. I used to work for 12-14 hours a day. (…). Here, I only work on Saturdays and Sundays, so, for the rest of the week, we are together. That makes a huge difference. She returns home, we talk, go somewhere, and do things together.*
Improved relationships

- Rokas (45) – GP: We were a strong family in Lithuania, and now I think we became even stronger because we had to overcome so many challenges together.

- Jurga (45) – unemployed: I think that relationship even improved, because we spend more time together, solving problems, making food together, travelling.

Improved relationships

- Saulius (40) - restaurant manager: I think that migration hasn’t changed our relationship much (...). Challenges only brought us closer.

- Barbora (39) – hotel manager: (...) when we came over here - the whole situation and experience brought us closer. Together we tried to create a new life in a new country, in a new environment (...).
Personal freedom

Rasa (37): Now we can live our lives freely (...). We can hold our hands while walking, because we know that people are, more or less, tolerant here. They are definitely more tolerant than people in Lithuania.

GAINS AND LOSES

- Jurga (45): In Lithuania we dedicated most of our time to work. (...). On the other hand, everything was comprehensible there. Back there we left our family, brothers and friends, who we are missing dearly. Here - we can spend more time reading and travelling though.

- Goda (17): It feels like here’s more freedom. (...) Financially it’s much easier – I have everything I want. Everything seems easier to achieve. But I became more sensitive, distant and reserved. I miss my life in Lithuania badly... mainly my friends and school there.
GAINS AND LOSES

- Barbora (39): Compared with (...) the English, for example, we live quite well: we have a huge house....if you compare money wise...we have everything we need, we can buy anything we want without thinking too much. If we think in those terms...Now, if we think about spiritual/mental values – we, obviously, miss Lithuania, communication with Lithuanians, the fact of being accepted in the society...

CONCLUSION/DISCUSSION

**Positive experiences:**

- Life styles improve both financially and psychologically
- Financial safety and security
- New quality life happiness
CONCLUSION/DISCUSSION

Negative experiences:

› Dissatisfaction of a low migrant/social status

› Divorce

› Worsen relationship with children due to parents’ remarriage

› Unbearable pain and yearning for their own culture, friends and family

› Raising anxiety about the future

WHAT IS NEXT

› Second stage of data collection and further analysis.

› I anticipate that implications for intervention, policies and services, concerning immigrant families will be revealed at the end of my research.
AUSRA BREMNER
DMU 2017

References


THANK YOU

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METHODOLOGY

Grounded theory:

- Developed by Glaser and Strauss in the 1960s during the course of a field observational study of how hospital staff dealt with dying patients (1965, 1968).
- The methodology of this type of research does not test a hypothesis - but sets out to find what theory accounts for the researched situation as it is.
- Read (and re-read) a textual database and "discover" or label categories and their interrelationships.
- It begins with a research situation.
- Researcher's role - is to understand what is happening there, and how the 'players' manage their roles.
- Constant comparison is the heart of the process, at first comparing interview to interview (or other data). When theory emerges - I should compare data to theory.

Stages of Grounded theory

- Data collection
- Note taking
- Coding
  - Constant comparison
  - Categories and properties
  - Core category
- Saturation
- Sampling
- Memoing
- Sorting
- Writing
Appendix 28: Conference presentation – Using Skype for Qualitative Interview (DMU, 2015):

Using Skype for a Qualitative Interview:

Pros and Cons

[Image of Skype logo]
According to Wikipedia (last accessed 10/05/15)

“Skype /ˈskæpt/ is a telecommunications application software product that specializes in providing video chat and voice calls from computers, tablets, and mobile devices via the Internet to other devices or telephones/smartphones.[12] Users can also send instant messages, exchange files and images, send video messages, and create conference calls. Skype is available to download onto computers running Microsoft Windows, Mac, or Linux, as well as Android, Blackberry, iOS, and Windows Phone smartphones and tablets. Much of the service is free, but users require Skype Credit or a subscription to call landline or mobile numbers. Skype is based on a freemium model[13].
SKYPE ESTONIAN CO FOUNDAERS

Toivo Anus, Ahti Heinla, Prit Kasesal, Jaan Tallin

Sky peer- to- peer
Skyper
Skype
SKYPE FEATURES

• Instant messaging
• Voice chat
• Conference calling
• Emoticons

* Storing chat history
* Editing of previous messages
* User profile
* Status indicators
**PROS/OPPORTUNITIES**

- Geographical flexibility
- Inexpensiveness
- User-friendliness
- Instant messaging
- Easy audio/video recording
- Less labour intensive than other methods (Sarantakos, 2005)
- Allows the study of relatively large samples (Sarantakos, 2005)
- Reduction of interviewer effect (Denscombe, 2008)

**MORE PROS/OPPORTUNITIES**

- Useful to study online learning environment and dynamics
- Great for the international research (King & Horrocks, 2010)
- Realistic presence of a person in ‘video full screen’ (King & Horrocks, 2010)
Managing IM interview process and its resulting data (King and Horrocks, 2010)

- Scrolling back
- “Typing indicator”
- Enables to highlight text and copy in a word-processing or rich text file (rtf) format (p. 96 - 97).

CONS/CHALLENGES

- Time lags in the conversation
- Non-verbal cues are lost
- If connection fails – it may cause data loss
- Establishing identities (King and Horrocks, 2010)
- Multitasking when engaged in IM conversations
- Relative inability to control the interview fully (Sarantakos, 2005)
PhD RESEARCH

Impact of Migration to the UK on Lithuanian Migrant Family Relationships

GOOD READING

Interviews in Qualitative Research

Interviewing as Qualitative Research

InterViews: Learning the Craft of Qualitative Research Interviewing

INTERVIEWS: A GUIDE FOR RESEARCHER IN EDUCATION & THE SOCIAL SCIENCES
USE OF SKYPE IN MY RESEARCH

- **I STAGE** – online interview – audio/video/IM
- **II STAGE** – e-mail/telephone/IM
- Scheduling FG
- Member check on interim findings
- Remote discussion/reflection

FIRST STAGE OF DATA COLLECTION

- Theoretical sampling
- 17 Interviews (16 in the UK – 1 in Lithuania)
- 8 women, 3 men, 4 teenagers, and 2 children
- 5 of 17 using SKYPE
- 4 of 5 – IM, 1 – audio
- 1 video pilot – (did not fit the sample)
SECOND STAGE OF DATA COLLECTION

- 2 Focus groups (Nottingham (N) and Peterborough (PE))
- Initially 5 remote discussions (on interim findings and reflection on FG discussion)
- 1 non-responsive (PE)
- 1 e-mail communication followed by further face-to-face interview (PE)
- 1 e-mail communication on interim findings and reflection on (N) FG discussion
- 1 e-mail communication with the couple on interim findings and (N) FG discussion, followed by further SKYPE IM interview.

OBSTACLES

22 September’10 - Extract from research diary

“Complication with using Skype or any other means of interviewing but face to face: if you agree the time with an interviewee - it may not necessarily be taken for granted. If person doesn’t “appear” on a screen, you are not sure if that’s because of a lost connection, or any other unknown reasons (or they just simply pulled out). - Uncertainty

Another drawback - I cannot check the participant’s reactions and “defuse” it, in case s/he feels upset. - No cues of changing mood or emotions.”
MORE OBSTACLES

30 September’10

“Today, at supervision Jennie pointed out that during my first Skype interview I did not probe and explore questions fully. In my defence, I had to say that it is very hard to control interview online, especially, when someone else sets the time. You want to ask everything you have planned, and you probably miss the most important aspects by rushing through the possible themes: friendships, work, relationships with parents, church, friends in the UK, school, etc.”

EVEN MORE OBSTACLES

- “Another “distracting” activity while someone is typing their answers - is browsing through all possible questions. Sometimes I would type it without waiting for the respondent’s previous answer. In that way –I’m losing coherence, flow and in depth conversation - I should be careful next time.
- Another drawback while someone is typing - trying “fill” the time by copying and pasting conversation text into word (although it is possible to do that at the end of the interview), but I am always too cautious to lose it by accident, therefore I always copy and paste as soon as it appears on the screen.”
MORE OBSTACLES 3

- "Second Skype interview revealed different challenges. First of all, at agreed time, respondent didn’t show up. Next day, when we tried to reschedule the time - respondent decided that she wanted to have a conversation at that very moment (at 10 pm). I do believe that because of a late night - we both were not as sharp and focused as we could have been if we decided to have it next day. That particular interview ended up 4 min before midnight. Once again, having pluses being conducted in ones house at any time, it also has a big minus - any time might turn into a very late hour (in that instance it was from 10pm – 11.56 pm). Consequences of last minute scheduling".

WOULD I RECOMMEND AND DO IT AGAIN?

YES YES YES YES YES YES YES YES YES YES YES YES YES YES YES YES

- No transcribing
- Exact timing
- Long distance interviews
- Sensitive topic interviews

Provided there is decent planning in regards of scheduling and tackling ethical issues
ETHICAL ISSUES IN ONLINE INTERVIEWING

Confidentiality and anonymity

- Removing potentially identifying headers and tags
- Changing users' ID and pseudonym to project pseudonym in reporting files
- Storing any non-anonymised 'raw' data securely and separately from anonymised material

Protection from harm

- Set the boundaries
- Consider setting a separate e-mail and IM/Skype accounts
- If research is purely online – meeting face to face may not be a good idea (Kings and Horrocks, 2010)

1. Interview through Skype with Goda from Surrey (name is changed)

[7:39:54 PM] Ausrine Bremner: Hello, Goda!
[7:54:03 PM] Goda: hello :)  
[7:55:13 PM] Ausrine Bremner: shall we start in a minute? :) 
[7:56:14 PM] Ausrine Bremner: Before starting the interview I have to ask if you read the information leaflet.
[7:56:58 PM] Ausrine Bremner: Was everything clear in there? Do you have any questions?

7:57:44 PM] Goda: No, I don’t have any questions.

[7:57:51 PM] Ausrine Bremner: ok then : )
2. [8:19:16 PM] Ausrine Bremner: How did you cope? What did you do to feel better? Who or what helped you to manage the separation?

[8:20:29 PM] Goda: I didn’t have a big choice. I used to write letters, but most often I wouldn’t finish or send them. It was very hard. Sometimes I would leave a house, go for a walk, and cry a lot.

[8:21:12 PM] Ausrine Bremner: Goda, just want to remind you, that if at any time you feel uncomfortable and wish to stop the interview — we will stop immediately.


3. [8:35:14 PM] Ausrine Bremner: Goda, would you like a 5 min coffee break?

[8:35:39 PM] Goda: ok, how many questions are left? :)

[8:36:46 PM] Ausrine Bremner: I don’t have them numbered... but while having your coffee, would you like to think what to say about your support network? Who or what helps you to cope here? What gives your strength? And also if you had any dreams before moving to the UK and if they came true?
RAPPORT BUILDING

THERAPEUTICAL EFFECT OF AN INTERVIEW

4. [8:43:04 PM] Goda: If honestly, I try to avoid conversations about this matter - I feel somehow reserved especially talking about those issues. But yet it is interesting to talk about it with a complete stranger :) Feels good, in a way:)

[8:44:19 PM] Ausrine Bremner: I'm glad to hear that.

[8:59:27 PM] Ausrine Bremner: would you agree to talk to me again if I have any further questions?


[9:00:04 PM] Ausrine Bremner: Thank you!!!!

[9:00:45 PM] Goda: Thank you, it is nice to help someone. You also helped me :)

[9:03:13 PM] Ausrine Bremner: Thank you once again!
5. 10:24:46 PM] Ausrine Bremner: anyway....thank you very very much, indeed!

[10:26:33 PM] aukse: We enjoyed talking to you, will be nice to meet you again in Nottingham

[10:28:00 PM] Ausrine Bremner: THANK YOU!!!!! And good night! : )

[10:28:58 PM] aukse: See you, and if you have any further questions - you are welcome


[10:29:27 PM] aukse: Good night
6. [10:45:50 PM] Ausrine Bremner: What do you miss most about Lithuania?

[10:46:24 PM] Elvyra: as I said - my past:) When longings hits me, I start thinking why and what’s that

[10:47:28 PM] Elvyra: I would love to go back to the good time ( you do forget bad things). I would love to sit in THAT particular cafe, walk through THOSE particular streets, to be with THOSE particular people....

[10:47:34 PM] Elvyra: but it’s not there now...


[9:17:41 PM] Ausrine Bremner: Ok... let’s start then:) Don’t expect a smooth conversation...Skype is Skype...For the first stage of data collection, it is important for me to learn individual people’s stories about their migration experience...

[9:18:14 PM] Ausrine Bremner: so let’s start with the basic facts: )
CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

- “(...) think about the likely duration of the interview, and make sure participants are clearly aware of how much time they need to keep free for it. (You may find it helpful to carry one or two ‘pilot interviews (...)’" (King and Horrocks, 2010, p.81).
- Encourage respondents to participate in the interview “in as private location as possible” (to ensure confidentiality and avoid interruptions”) (King and Horrocks, 2010, p.82).
- To avoid further interruptions seek the time that suits the respondent the most and they are free of other commitments (King and Horrocks, 2010).

REFERENCES

- Wikipedia http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Skype (last accessed 10.05.15)
THANK YOU!

ausrinev@yahoo.com
Impact of Migration to the UK on Lithuanian Migrant Family Relationships

APPENDIX 24  Ausra Bremner
De Montfort University, Leicester

INTRODUCTION
Since the opening of Europe’s borders to new EU member states, a large number of immigrant families continue to arrive in the UK and spread across the East Midlands and East Anglia. To date, little or no research has been conducted to understand their experience and adjustment in this part of the country. With my research I was aiming to find out how Lithuanian emigration affects family relationships and identify issues that face families whose one or their migration experience on him/her own.

FINDINGS
Reasons to migrate
Majority of Lithuanian people migrate to the UK to enhance their economic or personal conditions and improve the prospects for themselves and their families.

Family relationships
Findings revealed that transition stage when families live apart: one is most painful for both sides: the one who was leaving and one who was left behind. Family researchers that during transition stage - parental relationships intensify. Unhealthy/illiberal ties of various kinship remain in family relationships; children feel abandoned and their identity; for being left behind parent - becomes suspicious about their partner’s real intentions in migration.

However, final results show that separation does not lead to or cause parents’ break-up (provided family was a close and prior migration). Findings support emerging theory that if a family had good relationships before the migration - all challenges of migration would not break that bond – on the contrary, it would bring them closer.

Most difficult things to cope: missing family and friends.

Coping mechanisms
- building connections
- keeping wrapped busy
- faith

Support networks
1. Family
2. Friends
3. Other (social services, job centres, church, charities)

Managing the situation
Communication plays a major role in managing the situation and maintaining family relationship in migration.

CONCLUSIONS
Findings answer the initial research question whether migration to the UK affects Lithuanian family relationships by suggesting that it does not affect more than any other big and stressful life events, e.g. deaths, childbirths, job loss, illness, house move, etc.

According to the findings – migration is one of those life events, where in order to succeed – people need to take serious decisions and make the necessary arrangements to overcome future challenges, and turn this in other life events - communication is a key issue.

Findings suggest, that, if families discuss matters and look for the solutions together – the negative impact of migration might be avoided or lessen.

Further information

References

Acknowledgements
Special thanks to my supervisors for their guidance, encouragement and support: practitioners.

Prof. David Watts, Associate Professor and Dr. Victoria Keates

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DMU 2017

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Appendix 30: Conference presentation on research findings (UPPEN, Philadelphia, 2016).

Impact of Migration to the UK on Lithuanian Migrant Family Relationships

Ausrine Bremner
5/28/2016

Global migration. Trends and patterns

The Article 13 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights states, that:

- (1) Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state.
- (2) Everyone has the right to leave any country, including his own, and to return to his country.

(www.un.org/Overview/rights.html).
### Net Migration by Region (Migration Watch, 2013)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Citizenship</th>
<th>All Citizens</th>
<th>British</th>
<th>Non-British</th>
<th>EU</th>
<th>Non-EU</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Immigration</td>
<td>560,000</td>
<td>81,000</td>
<td>479,000</td>
<td>214,000</td>
<td>265,000</td>
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<tr>
<td>Emigration</td>
<td>316,000</td>
<td>131,000</td>
<td>186,000</td>
<td>83,000</td>
<td>103,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Net Migration</td>
<td>243,000</td>
<td>-50,000</td>
<td>293,000</td>
<td>131,000</td>
<td>142,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Net Migration of EU, Non-EU and British Citizens, 1991-2013, thousands.

![Net Migration Chart](Image)

**Table 4.1. United Kingdom (K02000001)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>726</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of Ireland</td>
<td>329</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistan</td>
<td>191</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.3. East Midlands (E12000004)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Poland</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>India</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latvia</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lithuania</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Republic of Ireland</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

How does migration to the UK affect family relationships?
Methodology

**SAMPLING:** theoretical

**I STAGE**
17 respondents (8 women, 3 men, 6 children).
14 Interviews in the UK and 3 in Lithuania. 12 – face to face; 5 – SKYPE.

**II STAGE** - 2 Focus groups Nottingham and Peterborough + 5 individual remote discussions.
14 respondents. Member check on interim findings and further discussion.

**CODING:** NVivo 8

**ANALYSIS:** Grounded theory

---

McFadzean (2007) model of Strauss and Corbin’s coding methodology

1. Gathering qualitative data
2. Organising the data
3. Fragmenting the data
4. Categorising the data
5. Linking the data
6. Generating Theory

- e.g. semi-structured interviews
- Interview data is transcribed
- Open coding
- Axial Coding
- Selective Coding
- Developing Theory

5/26/2014

AUSRA BREMNER
Grounded theory model by Dick (2005)

Results
Challenges of migration

- “Hrm...Because parents reaching their old age now. You start realising that will never get younger and you anticipate something to happen to them someday. Knowing that you can’t be with them – it’s the hardest thing of all. Your mom and dad...getting older, and you know that you cannot be near them...to help them by being there” [Saulius, male].

- “Since I didn’t know the language, I couldn’t look for anything that would meet my qualifications” [Rasa, female].
Emotional – Psychological impact of Transition stage

- “I would have very bad dreams as if I was saving her [daughter] from water or fire. I thought I’d rather drown myself but I have to save her. After she [daughter] came over here – I stopped having those nightmares” [Milda, female].

- “When mom left for England - everything was alright I didn’t even notice that, but after a while I started missing her badly. I was only 10 years old (…)…all I wanted was to hold my mom and cry on her shoulder” [Vesta, left behind teenager].

- “I was quite scared at that moment, but my grandma or auntie, would come on the weekends, she would stay with us or would take brother to her place and I would stay on my own – to have a rest” [Migle, left behind teenager].
Vesta (19) found it very hard to live without her mother and was even considering committing suicide.

(...) things with school got worse too. I didn’t want to study, was very nervous and impatient. Once, when my doctor prescribed me medicine for depression (...) I took 4 tablets at school (when supposed to take it only 1 or maximum 2!). (...) Soon grandma registered me to the mental health clinic where I had to talk to woman about my temper and the reasons for that. (...) that session didn’t help me at all. (...) I told my friend that I’d jump down from the window, that I couldn’t live like that anymore, but she told me something that changed my thoughts about life - she told me that I should wait till my mom is back from England and then she would take me for the better life! (...)

(Images of a mind map with various nodes and connections, illustrating coping mechanisms and managing the situation.)
Coping while being left behind

- “As soon as mom left I immediately started writing a diary (...) I keep waiting for her return or getting reunited with her over there” [Migle, left behind teenager].

- “I used to write letters, but most often I wouldn’t finish or send them. It was very hard. Sometimes I would leave a house, go for a walk, and cry a lot” [Goda, left behind teenager].

Coping mechanisms after leaving family behind

- “I couldn’t forget about them [children] for a second. I had a toy teddy, so I would hug that teddy [crying]” [Ruta, female].

- It was very very hard, (...) I worked hard to forget it all. (Long pause). It was really really hard, and I would spend lots of money on phone calls to Lithuania” [Barbora, female].

- “Every day we would speak on the phone or through Skype” [Jurga, female].

- “I’m doing crafts – that’s my coping mechanism. It helps me to disconnect from everything that’s happening around me” [Elvyra, female].
Family relationships

Ruta also explains her relationship with her left behind husband as tense:

“It all started when I started working at the hotel [UK]. There were arguments at home. I used to dash home to be at the computer on time in order to avoid any unnecessary reproaching and arguments. I had to be on SKYPE at certain times and not a minute later. If I got stuck in a shop on the way home - I had to think for an excuse how to explain it all, because he’d think that I found a boyfriend and had an affair, and so on” [Ruta, female].

Family relationships during Transition stage

Teenager Goda, is angry at her mother for both – leaving her in Lithuania for an indefinite time, and also angry at her for eventually bringing her over and “forcing to like mum’s new partner”:

“I am angry because she left me alone in Lithuania, and also that she brought me over. I’m also angry at her boyfriend, not because he lives with us, but because our relationship with him is cold. We just don’t have anything to talk about – that’s all. She is cross with me because she thinks that I purposely ignore or avoid him, and I am angry because she forces us to become closer” [Goda, teenager].
Conclusion

Findings answer the initial research question whether migration to the UK affects Lithuanian family relationships by suggesting that it does not affect more than any other big and stressful life’s events, e.g. death, childbirth, job loss, illness, house move, etc.

According to the findings - migration is one of those life events, where in order to succeed people need to take a conscious decision and make the necessary arrangements to overcome future obstacles, and here, like in other life events - communication is a key issue.

Findings suggest, that, if families discuss matters and look for the solutions together - the negative impact of migration might be avoided or lessen.

THANK YOU

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