



## Eesti üldandmed

**Ametlik nimetus:**

Eesti Vabariik.

**Lühivorm:**

Eesti.

**Pindala:**

45 227 km<sup>2</sup>.

**Pealinn:**

Tallinn, elanikke 398 434 (01.01.2002).

**Asend:**

Eesti asub Läänemere idakaldal. Eesti paikneb Ida-Euroopa platvormi loodeosas, kus kõrguste vahed on väikesed. Kagu- ja Ida-Eestis on maapind kõrgem kui Lääne-Eestis. Kõrgeim paik (Suur Munamägi) on 318 meetrit merepinnast kõrgemal. Eestis on üle 1500 saare ja rohkem kui 1400 järve.

**Elanikkond:**

1 361 242 (01.01.2002).

**Rahvuslik koosseis:**

eestlasi 67,9%, venelasi 25,6%, ukrainlasi 2,1%, valgevenelasi 1,3%, soomlasi 0,9%, muid rahvusi 2,2% (31.03.2000).

**Usundid:**

luterlus, õigeusk, baptistid ja teised.

**Keeled:**

eesti (riigikeel), vene ja teised.

**Riikliku iseseisvuse taastamine:**

20. august 1991.

**Vabariigi aastapäev:**

24. veebruar.

**Põhiseadus:**

võetud vastu referendumil 28. juunil 1992.

**Riigikorraldus:**

Põhiseadusega on kehtestatud õigusriigi põhimõtted. Põhiseadus tunnistab võimude lahusust ja tasakaalu, kohtute sõltumatust ja tagab põhilised inimõigused ja -vabadused vastavalt üldtunnustatud põhimõtetele ja normidele. Eesti on demokraatlik parlamentaarne vabariik, kus kõrgeima võimu kandja on rahvas. Rahvas rakendab kõrgeimat võimu valimisõiguslike kodanike poolt valitud Riigikogu kaudu ja referendumitel osalemise teel. Riigikogu koosneb 101 liikmest ja talle kuulub seadusandlik võim. Täidesaatev võim kuulub valitsusele. Eesti riigipea on Vabariigi President.

**Administratiivne jaotus:**

Seisuga 25.10.2002 oli Eestis 15 maakonda, 39 linna ja 202 valda.

**Valuta:**

Rahvuslik valuuta on Eesti kroon (1 kroon = 100 senti). Kroon võeti kasutusse 20. juunil 1992. aastal ja on nüüd seotud euroga. 1 EUR = 15,64 EEK.

**Ühinenud Rahvaste Organisatsiooni** liige 17. septembrist 1991.

**Euroopa Nõukogu** liige alates maist 1993.

## General information about Estonia

**Legal name:**

conventional long form	Republic of Estonia
conventional short form	Estonia
local long form	Eesti Vabariik
local short form	Eesti

**Area:**

45,227 sq km.

**Capital:**

Tallinn, population 398,434 (01.01.2002).

**Location:**

Estonia lies on the eastern shores of the Baltic Sea. Estonia is situated on the level north-western part of the East European platform, on which there are only slight variations in elevation. The elevation in south-eastern and eastern Estonia is higher than in western Estonia. The highest point (Suur Munamägi) is 318 m above sea level. Estonia has over 1,500 islands and more than 1,400 lakes.

**Population:**

1,361,242 (01.01.2002).

**Ethnic divisions:**

Estonian 67.9%, Russian 25.6%, Ukrainian 2.1%, Belarusian 1.3%, Finnish 0.9%, other 2.2% (03.31.2000)

**Religious denominations:**

Lutheran, Orthodox, Baptist, and others.

**Languages:**

Estonian (official), Russian, and others.

**State independence regained:**

August 20, 1991.

**Independence Day:**

February 24.

**Constitution, adopted by referendum:**

June 28, 1992.

**State system:**

The Constitution established the principles of the rule of law. It recognises the principle of separate and balanced powers, the independence of the courts, and guarantees of fundamental human rights and liberties according to universally recognised principles and norms. Estonia is a democratic parliamentary republic wherein the supreme power is vested in the people. The people exercise the supreme power, through citizens who have the right to vote by electing the Riigikogu – State Assembly (parliament) and by participating in referendums. The Riigikogu is comprised of one hundred and one members. Executive power rests with the Government. The head of State of Estonia is the President of the Republic.

**Administrative divisions:**

Estonia is divided into 15 counties, 202 rural municipalities, and 39 towns.

**Currency:**

National currency is the Estonian kroon (1 kroon = 100 senti). The kroon was issued on June 20, 1992 and is now pegged to the euro. 1 EUR = 15,64 EEK.

**Member of United Nations:** September 17, 1991.

**Member of the Council of Europe:** May, 1993.

## Introduction to the Estonian Human Development Report 2002: Human development and policy making

The Estonian Human Development Report 2002 has been compiled with the financial assistance of the Open Estonia Foundation and the Estonian Ministry of Education. In common with previous years, the aim of the Report is to analyze the most important of the current human development problems in Estonia and to stimulate public debate on these topics. In contrast to previous years, the general theme of this year's Report is the formation of policy regarding human development — a vital resource in the promotion of human development. How well is this resource used in Estonia today? What are the mechanisms for good governance and responsibility? To what extent do various social groups have the opportunity to influence the respective policies?

The structure of the Report presumes that during the last ten years Estonia has completed an important stage in its development — the creation of democratic political institutions and market economy. Now it is time to move on to a new development phase — where the aim is to achieve effectiveness in policy making, based on responsibility, social justice and the other fundamental concepts of human development. The authors of the Report have proceeded from the concept of 'good governance', with the basic elements of decentralization, transparency, lawfulness and participation. The Report analyzes the

extent to which these principles are followed in policy making in Estonia.

The problem with Estonia's development model — with its strong emphasis on competition — is the very large number of people who have been excluded from the normal processes of society. Calculations show that Estonia has an average annual human resource loss of 120 000 people (taken over the previous five years) — and this figure covers only those who are unemployed, underutilized or who have dropped out.

As Estonia's economy and labour market have become open and dynamic, one would expect that the state would work on reducing labour market risks. But the Estonian system of labour market measures is still in its initial stages, where the roles are vague and the level of uncertainty high. Current approaches are often characterized by limited inter-institutional cooperation.

The Report devotes a separate chapter to issues associated with the family. Despite generally family-friendly public attitudes, it must be admitted that the economic situation of families with children has remained the same, or even worsened, over the last decade. Policy making, therefore, has not responded to the expectations of society.

The subject of separate analysis in the Report is the issue of women and gender

relations. The increasing employment rate for women means that there is a need for policies encouraging the compatibility of work and family life, but this issue has not received sufficient attention. The way women are portrayed in the media is still based on patriarchal concepts — women have a considerably smaller role in all media channels compared to men, and they are presented from a primarily biological viewpoint, and not, for example, as professionals. A completely ignored problem in Estonia, however, is violence against women, which generally receives no official attention, let alone punishment.

Several analyses in the Report concentrate on the adaptation difficulties experienced by non-Estonians in the new Estonia — and this is manifested in their low competitiveness on the labour market, the more frequent incidence of early school leaving, and the spread of crime, drug addiction and other forms of non-social behavior.

An important characteristic of the formation of democratic policies is cooperation between the state and citizen initiatives. The Report analyzes this issue regarding the educational strategy process and the formation of local policies. The Report as a whole emphasizes the association between various sectors of society, and the need to take this into account more often in the policy making.

## Global Human Development Index 2002

The Human Development Index is based on three components: health (average life expectancy at birth), education (adult literacy plus school attendance opportunities) and economic well-being (GDP per person in comparative prices). The advantage of the index is its simplicity and the information it holds. It could be said that it demonstrates how successfully a country uses its eco-

nomical wealth in developing health and education. According to the Global Human Development Report 2002, Estonia has risen to 42nd position in the ranking of world states according to the human development index (from 44th place last year, and 46th place the year before last). The engine of Estonia's recent rise in the human development index ranking has been an almost

twofold GDP growth in parity prices over the last four years, based on World Bank calculations. But the question should be posed as to whether this high macro-economic indicator has not perhaps been achieved at the cost of social development? This danger is indicated, for example, by the Gini coefficient measuring stratification in society — in Estonia this stands at 0.37.

# 1 The State

## 1.1. Mechanisms and indicators for sustainable policies

This article attempts to apply the concept of sustainability developed in the framework of ecology disciplines to the analysis of policymaking process in Estonia during the period of transition. For this reason, sustainability has been interpreted in the terms of modern systems theory which has simultaneously been the basis of the theory of democratic governance. Three sets of indicators were used to assess the sustainability of the policy process: *governability*, *consistency* and *legitimacy*. But here these concepts have a much wider scope than in conventional use. *Governability* presumes the installation of specific devices that enable the balance of governing capacity and the needs of society in the policy process. Estonian fiscal and taxation policy are examples where these devices were

introduced at the outset. Whereas the local government reform that relied heavily on the values of local democracy and autonomy faced a serious conflict between the capacity of local units on the one hand and the needs of local inhabitants in the majority of local communities on the other hand. *Consistency* presumes the adoption of strategically based and politically calculated policy decisions that would not become the subject of frequent revisions due to changes in coalition government or to unforeseen restraints at the implementation stage. At the same time intentional changes that were planned in advance might bear testimony to high consistency and sustainability. The consistency of policy would increase substantially if draft laws emanated from strategies already legitimised as Parlia-

mentary acts. *Legitimacy* as an indicator of sustainability reflects first of all the extent to which policy concepts and policy tools would fit into a wider institutional context, i.e. to the extent the policy solution offered and the policy tools applied are considered by those who implement policy, as well as by target groups, as understandable and appropriate, and thus acceptable. The highly politicised majoritarian and thus rather elitist policymaking style that has been widespread in Estonia in the 1990s did not fit in with the dominant expectation of the population in consultative and pragmatic policy. The involvement of various constituents in the policy process, i.e. also civil servants at various stages, is a precondition for all three considered dimensions of sustainability.

## 1.2. Models of public administration in Estonia and elsewhere in Europe

In the organization of public administration, Estonia has *formally* tried to follow the European *new* experience characterized by a reduction in hierarchy and an increase in cooperative decision-making and partnership. Studies, however, have also indicated that, in Estonian public administration, the influence of the Soviet *autocratic* model persists.

In 1989, local government reform was started in Estonia, and by 1995 a single-level local government had been created. In 1996,

two main public administration laws were enacted — the Public Service Act and the Government of the Republic Act. However, the organization of Estonian public administration lacks a clear conceptual basis. One of the tendencies has been in fact an increase in administrative *discretion*. The European Commission, in its 1997–2001 opinions, has criticized Estonia's insufficient administrative capacity and has recommended radical public administration reform.

In 2000, a Public Information Act was adopted aimed at keeping the citizens better informed. Citizens are now being referred to as cooperation partners. A civil society development concept is under discussion. Participatory democracy, better provision of information to citizens and their associations, and an increase in their role in the assessment of *civil service* all help in reducing the alienation of the people regarding government.

## 1.3. Public administration reform from the citizen initiative angle

The article provides an overview of cooperation between citizen initiative and local government, together with the related problems, using the Saue municipality as an example, as well as of the possible solutions through public administration reform. The first part of the article describes the legislative possibilities, including those due to various European charters, in organizing local life. Thereafter, the basic development directions of Saue municipality are described, which according to the development plan,

follow the principles of sustainable development. Cooperation between citizen initiative and local government is described using the planning of a regional waste treatment enterprise, which is, however, not a part of the development plan. In the opinion of citizen initiative the actual planning of development on a local level has not followed the principles of sustainable development, according to which the interests of economic profit-making, preserving the environment and the well-being on people need to be simultaneously

and equitably taken into account. At the end of the article some proposals are made regarding how public administration reform can be used to promote cooperation between citizen initiative and local government. A prerequisite of successful reform is spreading the needed information, carrying out a proper analysis of the situation, and motivating the participants. Public administration reform cannot be carried out from above, but only in cooperation between citizen initiative, local government and central government.

## 2 Society

### 2.1. Valuing human resources in Estonia

Estonia is a small open society, which has set itself the goal of joining the European Union and choosing a sustainable development strategy, which would result in Estonia attaining the level of Europe's developed welfare societies. One of the most important "motors" of a society's sustainable development is human resources. This article attempts to find answers to the following questions. Does our human resource have sufficient lifeblood to support Estonia's sustainability — to survive as a nation, to ensure the development and survival of Estonia's cultural space, and to preserve its unique natural environment?

The political decisions which have been made in Estonia over the last decade

have been relatively modest as regards the need to preserve and value human resources. Unfortunately, there has also not been the required attention paid to areas which support human development such as the economic coping of the population, employment, healthcare, education, housing, etc. Estonia's rapid development has placed additional obligations on the members of its society, and these are borne mainly by the ordinary citizens. In Estonia, there are problems due to an aging and diminishing population, difficulties faced by many population groups (children in families with coping problems, adults living in remote areas) in realizing their educational strategies, and high unemployment.

Over the last decade, Estonia's population has borne an overly heavy burden in supporting the changes which have taken place in society, and in implementing the development strategies awaiting Estonia. Worsening health, premature death, poverty and exclusion — these are manifestations which have achieved widespread distribution in Estonia's small population. Resolving these problems will take years and cost considerable amounts of money. Caring for people and valuing them must become a normal part of life in Estonia, and this not only in strategies and plans, but also through actual and successful activities which support improvement in the well-being of all members of society.

### 2.2. Estonian labour market policy on the way back to Europe

We are on our way back to Europe, and this is also the case with labour market policies. In this context, it is important to emphasize that one of the recommendations made to their member states by the OECD and the European Union in the field of labour policy in the 1990s has been to devote more attention to active measures (i.e. practical assistance for people to help them keep their jobs or for the unemployed in finding a new job) instead of passive measures (paying unemployment benefits). Due to restricted resources there has been constant emphasis on the need for efficient utilization of these resources, including tightening up conditions for support benefits, shortening the period that benefits are paid and reducing benefits.

Experience shows that western countries have generally not been able to keep to these recommendations — this is particularly apparent when analyzing the relationship between developments occurring on the countries' labour markets (primarily the decrease in economic activity and the rise in unemployment) and expenditures on active and passive labour policies. The same must be said about Estonia. Estonia has also not been able to abide by the recommendations of the OECD and the European Union — expenditures on passive measures have increased much faster than on active measures. However, it should be taken into account that labour market policy is just one part of the complex system of official and unofficial effects, which

influence the choices made by those active on the labour market. The one and the same goals are achievable through various measures (e.g. ensuring employment through either legislation by limiting layoffs, or through active labour market measures by supporting the finding of new jobs). It therefore can be concluded that the implementation of single measures may not necessarily change the system, and the result may be quite different to the one expected. The Estonian system has not yet fully developed, the roles are indistinct, and there is a lack of clarity. This means that we are sorely in need of the active participation of all the players, both in setting the goals and in the choice of the means of their realization.

### 2.3. Flexible workers in a flexible labour market?

Both the Estonian economy and the labour market have become substantially more open and dynamic, which presumes greater flexibility in order to achieve both higher productivity and efficiency, as well as to provide a balance for increasing labour mar-

ket risk and instability. Previous studies have shown that Estonia, compared to other post-socialist countries, is characterized as having a dynamic economy and a high level of flexibility. Employees, however, are not particularly keen on risks: the flexi-

bility of the employees is more inclined towards the preservation of stability than towards taking risks. This becomes apparent in the preponderance of such labour market fluctuations which have not been due to the will of the employer but rather

to outside pressures. It can therefore be stated that the labour market risks are being increasingly borne by the employees, but flexibility is more often dependent on the employers.

The domination of numerical flexibility may be accompanied in the long term by lack of trust and cooperation, insufficient long-term investment in human resources, but also a general resistance to technological and organizational change. However, the prerequisites of functional flexibility — long-

term agreements, the strong association of the employee with the job, etc — reduce the employer's wages and employment flexibility. As can be seen, there is a certain conflict between the various flexibilities, i.e. in concentrating on achieving one, it is not possible to achieve the other. From the social policy viewpoint, it would certainly be better to have a framework which ensures protection against the loss of jobs as well as income. In simultaneously keeping in mind the interests of both employers and emp-

loyees, it is vital to achieve a compromise between numerical and wages flexibility on the one hand, and functional and temporary flexibility on the other. In Estonia today it could be stated that there is generally more a dominance of numerical flexibility, but there is also low efficiency in the institutions which should be encouraging its more effective operation. Functional flexibility — balancing numerical flexibility — is currently more the preserve of employees with higher qualifications.

## 2.4. The emergence of Estonian drug policy

Before the restoration of Estonian statehood in 1991 drug issues were regulated by all-soviet institutions. The necessity for developing Estonia's own drug policy was partially due to an increase in consumption. Interest in this field was shown very early by Estonia's northern and western neighboring states and various international organizations. A high official from the Finnish Ministry of Social Affairs and Health was seconded to Estonia's Ministry of Social Affairs from June to October in 1993, and he delivered a number of detailed recommendations for the development of Estonian alcohol and drug poli-

cies. However, these were only partially followed, and basically only when the cost to Estonia was low. In 1997 the Riigikogu approved the Narcotic and Psychotropic Substances Act, after which the government enacted an Alcoholism and Drug Addiction Prevention Program for 1997–2007. The implementation of the program was coordinated until 2001 by the Estonian Drug Prevention Foundation. In practice, its activity consisted of financing one-off projects submitted by non-governmental organizations. The projects were mainly about primary prevention, and only very few other activities were

financed. However, the rapid spread of AIDS and HIV, which started in 2000, requires greater attention to be paid to the treatment and rehabilitation of problematic drug users. This is being done in the new drug policy strategy currently under development. The state-centeredness of the drug policy and the present lack of cooperation between different official bodies dealing with drug issues are problematic. In Estonia a comprehensive drug policy is still in its initial stages, and it is too early to make an assessment of its direction towards either a repressive or a harm reduction policy model.

## 2.5. Social and age-related risks of suicide, and possibilities for (self) help

In Estonia after the re-establishment of independence, many human development issues — previously ignored during the Soviet period — have been brought to public attention. One of these issues is the high risk of suicide. There is now awareness of the need to avoid suicides, to view suicide as a preventable cause of death, and to ask how the will to live of the population can be supported with state provided measures.

Suicide statistics during the transition period confirm the social effect on suicide risk. In the age groups at the start and end of a working career, the suicide rate is stable. In the age groups of working

age one can see clear changes, with the changes being more distinct for men than women: a drop just before the transition period, a rise until the second half of the 1990s, and then another drop. The reason for this could be due to changes in the work sphere during the transition period, which made it more difficult to cope financially. The inability to relax away from work, as well as the lack of vacation opportunities, also contributes to stress. In employment, the primary sector has contracted and the tertiary sector has expanded, and the share of non-manual workers, and those in the communication field, has increased. Work intensity has

also increased. Changes in work style require new skills in order to restore the ability to work, and this is one area where the state could aim to reduce stress due to work fatigue.

According to the thesis of social effect on suicide risk, we see the tasks of preventative action in a wider context — as analysis of parallel life processes, and not just as direct emergency aid. In addition to an improvement in the quality of life, information provision and the existence of consensus in national goals are also important, because the basis of prevention is readiness for self-help on part of the individual.

## 2.6. The criminal careers of Estonians and non-Estonians

The article discusses the differences between the criminal behavior and social adaptation of Estonians and non-Estonians, based on the results of a longitudinal study. The study of criminal careers started in 1985 when the initial survey of all male inmates of the reformatory school and juvenile prison in Estonia was carried out. The study initially covered 317 individuals and four waves (stages) of gathering data were arranged — in 1985, 1990, 1995, and 1999.

By 1999, 18 individuals had left Estonia, 17 of whom were non-Estonians. 20 individuals had died by 1999. Those

who died were predominantly non-Estonians (14, i.e. 70%). There was no information in the registers about 15 individuals (approximately 5% of the sample). Most missing individuals were non-Estonians (9 persons).

Throughout the period, Estonians had a higher proportion of those working or studying, and they were more likely to live in rural areas than non-Estonians. These differences between Estonians and non-Estonians increased during the study.

The final sample (264) was divided into four subgroups: quitters (5.7%), occasional criminals (16.4%), repeating

criminals (34.7%) and habitual criminals (26.2%). The share of Estonians was higher in first two subgroups, the share of non-Estonians was higher among repeating criminals. Habitual criminals category included equal proportion of Estonians and non-Estonians. The study showed that all former inmates of special institutions for juveniles were characterized by having difficulties in social adaptation. In addition to general adaptation problems non-Estonians more than Estonians had problems with integration into society, which has increased their marginalization.

## 2.7. Russians and cultural trauma

The cultural trauma (the unexpected collapse of old values and lifestyles) brought about by the collapse of the Soviet system affected all the ethnic groups living in Estonia, but for the Russian-speaking population it came as a particularly big shock. In addition to the transition to a market economy and democratization, they were also substantially affected by the third dimension of the transformation — the change in national identity, which was essentially a change of status from being a large nation to becoming a national minority cut off from the motherland.

In the interviews carried out with the Russian educated class and retired military personnel living in Estonia it was demonstrated that the cultural trauma in 1988–1991 was experienced as:

- a) a stark discord between the present, the past and the future
- b) a radical change in lifestyle
- c) an excessively painful realization of the existence of Estonians and their statehood.

In Estonia the aim should not be the speedy linguistic-cultural assimilation of the large Russian-speaking community. A sensible solution would be integration as a

dialog between cultures. One of the obstacles to this is segregation, as the holding fast to the norms and language of one's original culture, and undervaluing the culture of the land one lives in. This is manifested in the insufficient ability amongst non-Estonians to speak Estonian, being consumers of Russian mass media and Internet, taking Russian citizenship. Another obstacle is marginalization — the negation of the cultural norms of both the land of origin and the current homeland. This can be seen in dropping out from education, and the spread of criminality, drug addiction and other anti-social behavior.

## 3 Family

### 3.1. The aims of Estonian family policy, the actual situation and results 1993-2001

The aim of the article is to provide an overview of family policy in Estonia over the last ten years. The article describes the debates regarding Estonian family policy from the start of the 1990s until 2001, the primary indicators for state family policy and the effect of the policy on the target group — families with children. The main interest regarding family policy has been the state benefits associated with bringing up children. Various statistical material, public opinion and income surveys are used in the analysis.

The conclusion is reached that Estonian family policy has moved rapidly in the ten years towards a policy structure involving more complex measures and moving away from the pro-natal policy characteristic of Eastern Europe towards a policy which is aimed more at social and gender equality.

There are various processes which form public policy — policy makers, public opinion, interest groups, principles and pragmatic considerations. Estonian public

opinion and the demographic situation has encouraged more demanding family policy. Against the background of a generally family-friendly policy environment, the economic support provided by the state for families with children has remained relatively unchanged, or has even deteriorated. Due to the conflict between public opinion and the actual situation, the situation in family policies could be termed a public conflict between expectations and actual policy.

### 3.2. Should a workplace be family-friendly?

The increasing employment of women has brought about the need for measures to encourage reconciliation between work and family life. In EU countries concepts such as *family-friendly workplace* and *flexibility* have entered common usage. These essentially mean a new work culture and uncommon solutions regarding work hours and timetables. The first steps in the implementation of this new work culture have also been taken in Estonia (e.g. finding the Top 30 family-friendly companies started in 2001).

In 1990, the employment rate for Estonian women was one of the highest in

Europe. In the last decade women's employment in EU countries has increased, whereas it has fallen in Estonia. In combining work and family life today, women face a series of problems. The survey *Women, family and work 2000* showed that women in Estonia, especially mothers of small children, are in a relatively unfavorable situation whilst competing on the labour market. For this reason, women do not always dare to demand from the employer all the benefits prescribed by law. Women workers in the service industry and in small private companies are in the most difficult situation (fixed term or

trial period employment contracts, etc). Although women feel relatively insecure on the labour market, and their workdays are longer than in EU countries, only less than a quarter would prefer to stay at home if their financial situation improved. Women with small children would prefer to continue working but with shorter hours.

The authors of the article consider that it is time in Estonia to concentrate on the wider definition of family policy, and by following the example of the EU countries, to devote more attention to resolving the problems arising from the reconciliation of work and family life.

### 3.3. Violence against women - an unrecognized problem in Estonia

The article provides an overview of the spread of violence against women in Estonia, and the preparedness of the Estonian state to halt the violence. The study organized by the Estonian Open Society Institute in 2001 showed that there were 104 000 cases of physical or sexual violence against women in one year, and of these, 63% were committed by husbands or partners. There were 83 000 cases of violence against men,

and of these, 82% were in public places.

According to the study, only a small proportion of the cases of violence are reported to the police. Only 10% of women notified the police of the most serious cases. The study showed that although during the 12 months 44 000 women were injured due to violence, and of these, 6000 resulted in serious injuries, less than one-tenth of even the most serious incidents result in a criminal

charge or a guilty verdict in the court. In most of the cases, the perpetrator of the violence remains unpunished.

The Estonian state has done little to control the violence directed against women. This violence has been mostly hidden from the community and, as a consequence, the law is insufficient, as is the information available to lawyers (prosecutors, judges), police, media, etc, as well as their ability to handle the cases of violence adequately.

### 3.4. Role of family relationships in the formation of body image for teenagers

Studies show that over the last decade, the incidence of body image problems and eating disorders has increased. The critical period for body and weight dissatisfaction is considered to be the age between 12 and 25. A nationwide survey conducted in 2001 amongst school pupils (n = 871) showed that almost half of girls aged 13-18 are not satisfied with their body weight. 77% of those with normal body weight and 30% of those underweight wished they weighed even less, whereas 62% of the girls

surveyed had normal body weight, with 34% underweight. Boys who were dissatisfied with their body weight mostly wanted to put on weight. Background factors for eating disorder risk factors (body-weight dissatisfaction, drive for thinness, tendency to bulimia) were heightened trait anxiety, appearance related critical comments experienced in earlier childhood, and physical violence/punishment, and no opportunity to talk to someone about their intimate problems. The indicators for the listed risk

factors were substantially higher for teenagers who did not feel secure in their relations with their parents. Low security in relations with parents may make teenagers sensitive regarding society's standards, so insecurely attached individuals are therefore more likely to internalize and idealize the messages from society related to appearance. These messages may lead them to strive for unrealistic ideals (perfect body), with the aim of improving other people's opinions of them.

### 3.5. Forming child protection policies: problems and future visions

In order to clarify the conceptual points of departure for child protection policies, teaching staff from the Tallinn Pedagogical University initiated three interrelated studies, using an Estonian Science Fund grant and in cooperation with social work Master's students.

The study material provides a full picture of the problems faced by pupils (N=376), teachers (N=205), parents (N=284) and child protection workers (N=84), and the knowledge of these problems can help to find full or partial solutions.

The basis of the child protection concept is to operate in a network (family, official bodies, third sector), and this as a social work method requires development in the context of child protection. The quality of family work is guaranteed by new social work methods: empowerment, initial and rehabilitative prevention.

Growing pains in transitional societies become apparent in social problems, with poverty being the most dominant. Teachers and child protection workers are

increasingly having to deal with behavioral and learning problems, due to social stresses and problems with the children themselves or their families. More emphasis should be placed on teaching pupils social skills, including behavior in conflict situations, coping strategies, etc.

In order to support families with children, social protection means need to be extended, proceeding from the actual situation. Laws need to be updated by taking into account international child protection provisions.



## 4 Education and Culture

### 4.1. Educational strategy process in Estonia

In the article, the development of the Estonian educational system and of the educational policy over the last decade are analyzed — in the light of the two global changes in educational strategy: a) transition to a knowledge-based society, and b) transition to a lifelong learning paradigm. The development of educational strategy thinking and its process in Estonian educational life can be conditionally divided into three periods: 1) period of naive idealism (1988–1990), 2) development and implementation of the first generation of educa-

tional legislation (1990–95), 3) formation of the Learning Society idea (1995–2000).

The state program A Learning Estonia was planned to be initiated in 2001. The article analyzes the preparatory process for A Learning Estonia and the reasons for its failure. In order to move the educational process forward from its stalled state, a Riigikogu law is needed to set in place Learning Estonia as the chosen direction for Estonia in the long term. Subsequent development plans for the educational system could then proceed from this choice,

in cooperation with all three society sectors. The supervision of educational processes, and the assessment of the effect on educational policy decisions by decisions in other spheres, should become a regular Riigikogu activity. And third sector educational policy organizations should have the right to go to court — on the basis of an Aarhus convention-type of a domestic legal act — if the government has in its activities reneged on the content or meaning of agreed long-term educational system development plans.

## 4.2. The possibility of social justice in school

The aim of this article is to examine the theme of social injustice in school and to discuss the possible solutions. The material is empirically based on the educational ethnographic participatory observation carried out during the 1999/2000 school year, which produced two proposals for this topic.

The Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Social Affairs in Estonia share their responsibilities as follows: while the child is on a school list, he/she 'belongs' to the Ministry of Education; if he/she drops out and becomes a street child, drug

addict, etc, the child becomes a 'social object'. From the educational policy view, it would make sense if the Ministry of Social Affairs carried out preventative measures. For example, by providing in-service training for teachers in social work and/or social pedagogy, as well as top-up financing of classes with problem children, the Ministry of Social Affairs could demonstrate goodwill. This way, everyone would win — primarily the children, but also the Ministry of Social Affairs, who would save money by not having to deal with the con-

sequences. And what about the benefit to society provided by a young person who completes his/her compulsory education, who does not drop out but finds a place in life and starts paying taxes!

The second proposal involves including social pedagogy in the initial training of teachers. In the 21st century, the topic of social competence is particularly important since it is the vital cornerstone of civic education. Developing these skills in pupils, however, presumes a teacher who has received social pedagogy training.

## 4.3. Lifelong learning and the Estonian educational system

The share of 18–24 year olds without secondary education is considered an important indicator. In comparison with other countries, the situation in Estonia is quite good, because the proportion of young people aged 18–24 without secondary education is at the same level as Germany, Denmark, Netherlands, Norway, France (12–24%), but there are substantially fewer such young people, for example, in Sweden, Finland and in the UK. Unfortunately, there is also a problem in Estonia that once a young person drops out of the general education system it is

difficult to get back in. Currently, there are only 6% of general education students who are 26 or older in evening or distance classes. Although the share of older learners in vocational schools has steadily increased over recent years, we are still far behind, for example, the British further education colleges, where a large part of the learners are adults and those who are simultaneously working and studying. From the lifelong learning aspect, one of the vital problems is the state examination requirement for admission to higher education, which restricts the opportunities for fur-

ther study for those who acquired secondary education before 1997. Also, according to the Universities Act, it is not possible for a student, or graduate, occupying a state-commissioned student place to again occupy another state-commissioned student place at the same higher education level. It is also not possible to take into account, in formal study, knowledge acquired in non-formal education or any previous work experience. This is why the total number of learners over 30 in Estonia is substantially less than in most European Union countries.

## 4.4. Representation of women in the media as an indicator of social development

Media researchers with a feminist focus claim that changes in the position of women in society do not automatically bring along changes in media representation. Women's media representation is thus a good indicator of social development, and also of media development, in a certain culture.

In Estonia, media research from a gender viewpoint is a new field but according to the initial results of some projects we can claim that many universal tendencies can also be found in Estonian media.

Women are universally underrepresented in all media channels. If they reach the media, their image, as a rule, is gendered, and they are preferably pictured as members of the group of women, and not

as professionals. Women's presence as subjects in positions of power is also an exception to the rule, and their exceptionality is often stressed in media discourse ("women" bankers, "women" politicians, "women" scientists).

This article presents and analyses some results of an empirical research on television, "Screening Gender in Estonia/Who speaks on television?", which was carried out in spring 2002 according to internationally tested methodology. Fifty-five hours of material was analysed, and all of the three Estonian channels ETV, Kanal 2 and TV 3 were included in the research. In the comparison to the five European TV channels, where similar research has been

carried out (YLE, SVT, ZDF, NOS, NRK), only the public television ETV was included.

Of the 1235 persons who spoke on Estonian television on all three channels, 33% were women and 67% men. Women speak the most in the programmes on human relations (67%) and the least in crime and sports programmes (15% and 9%). A speaking woman on TV in Estonia is most probably an ordinary person, a patient or an activist. This follows the average tendencies of the five European TV channels, but there were also some interesting differences: for example, the women on ETV speak only half as long as the women on the Finnish YLE channel.

#### 4.5. Quality of life can be improved by improving the service culture

In 2001, 60.1% of employed persons in Estonia worked in the service sector. But everyone participates, one way or another, in the service economy, so the question of how comfortable a person feels in this system — or how the service is provided to the person — is becoming increasingly important.

The progress made over recent years is probably not sufficient to be able to consider Estonia as a country with an advanced service culture. There is little discussion regarding the deeper issues of service, including service-oriented ways of

thinking and service culture. An important role is played in this regard by the education system.

In this study, 2500 service situations described by more than 500 observers were analyzed. The first analysis was based on the questions and the five quality dimensions in the SERVQUAL service quality model. The survey demonstrated that in the descriptions of experience the functional quality factor (how the service is provided) is decisive, and this is influenced the most by the service culture of the organization, the attitudes of

the employees and the attitudes towards the clients.

The second analysis was based on the factors characterizing service and non-service cultural attitudes. The study affirmed that the main reasons for client dissatisfaction are situations where he/she is placed — due to non-service behavior — in a no-win situation. The manifestations of this need to be recognized, to be understood, and then eliminated. At issue is not only business success but also culture, people-friendliness, ethics, professionalism and the quality of life for all of us.

#### 4.6. Towards the concept of culturally pluralistic liberty

The ideas of cultural relativism and cultural pluralism are important elements of liberty in modern societies. The awareness of cultural relativism is, on the one hand, an inseparable component of a democratic way of thinking, and on the other hand, a challenge to the formation of political mentality and actual cultural identity. In the course of Estonia's historical development, the problem of cultural relativism was unknown in the second half of the 19<sup>th</sup> century, in the first half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century it was known but neutralized by the idea of nationhood, and in the second

half of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, this problem was only partially recognized and neutralized by doctrinaire socialism. It was only at the end of the 20<sup>th</sup> century (since the restoration of independence) that the problem of cultural pluralism became acute. The usefulness and desirability of pluralism is often attested to only as a matter of form, whereas in actual practice (institutional activity) it is cultural monism that is preferred. It is not so much world universalism that is endangering Estonian culture, as it is its own pseudo-historicism. The awareness of pluralism in society and

culture is the opposite of all kinds of self-centeredness; instead of positioning "myself" and "me" in first place, instead of forcing one's own culture on others, cultural relativism always requires that one proceeds from the "other". Our problem is that such political pragmatism, and especially its democratic content, presumes increasingly greater theoretical competence in order to not support anti-pluralistic social tendencies. In Estonia, society has long been seen only in the style of antinomies, but not in the framework of a concept of culturally pluralistic liberty.

# Country

## Human Development Indicators

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
Population (thousands)	1,436.6	1,415.6	1,399.5	1,386.2	1,375.7	1,369.5	1,364.1
Land area (km <sup>2</sup> )	45,227	45,227	45,227	45,227	45,227	45,227	45,227
GDP (billions USD)	3.567	4.357	4.614	5.228	5.194	5.137	5.524
<b>Human Development</b>							
Life expectancy (years)	67.9	70.0	70.4	69.9	70.8	70.7	70.5
Maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 births)	51.6	-	15.8	16.3	16.0	38.5	8.0
Enrolment ratio for all levels (age 6–23, %)	74.2	76.8	79.1	81.5	84.6	86.8	87.8
Tertiary full-time equivalent gross enrolment ratio (%)	35.6	40.4	44.9	50.8	55.5	60.3	61.2
GNP total (USD billions)	3.570	4.360	4.469	5.145	5.091	4.932	5.231
GNP per capita (USD)	2,485	3,080	3,193	3,712	3,701	3,601	3,835
Exchange rate (EEK/USD) <sup>1</sup>	11.464	12.031	13.881	14.065	14.695	16.981	17.479
<b>Human Distress</b>							
Injuries from road accidents (per 100,000 people)	133	110	132	144	123	135	180
Intentional homicides (per 100,000 people)	21.2	18.9	17.6	17.9	14.5	13.8	12.0
Drug crimes (per 100,000 people)	3.5	8.1	8.1	17.0	21.6	115.4	168.7
Reported rapes (per 100,000 women age 15-59)	22.8	21.3	22.2	12.2	13.7	16.9	12.1
Unemployment rate (%)	9.7	9.9	9.6	9.8	12.2	13.6	12.6
Consumer price index (change, %)	29	23	11	8	3	4	6
Ratio of income of highest 20% to lowest 20% of households (%) <sup>2</sup>	768	420	395	393	376	433	377
Sulfur and nitrogen emissions SO <sub>2</sub>	82.6	88.4	85.0	79.4	74.4	67.8	...
(kg NOx and SO <sub>2</sub> per capita) NOx	29.3	31.4	32.0	33.2	28.9	27.5	...
<b>Life expectancy and health</b>							
Life expectancy at birth (years)	67.9	70.0	70.4	69.9	70.8	70.7	70.5
Population per doctor	311	315	320	320	310	310	318
Maternal mortality rate (per 100,000 births)	51.6	-	15.8	16.3	16.0	38.5	8.0
Deaths from circulatory system diseases (as % of total deaths)	54.9	55.3	54.2	54.6	54.7	54.3	53.6
Deaths from malignant cancers (as % of total deaths)	15.7	17.3	17.9	17.5	17.6	18.3	17.8
Public expenditure on health (as % of total public expenditure)	14.6	14.6	13.9	12.6	12.7	12.4	...

<sup>1</sup> Source: Bank of Estonia.

<sup>2</sup> Data for 1995: EMOR Ltd, a market research and polls centre.

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
<b>Wealth / poverty</b>							
Ratio of income of highest 20% to lowest 20% of households (%) <sup>1</sup>	768	420	395	393	376	433	377
Lowest 40% of households (% share of income)	16.9	14.5	14.2	14.2	14.9	14.3	14.6
GNP total (USD billions)	3.570	4.360	4.469	5.145	5.091	4.932	5.231
GNP per capita (USD)	2,485	3,080	3,193	3,712	3,701	3,601	3,835
Exchange rate (EEK/USD) <sup>2</sup>	11.464	12.031	13.881	14.065	14.695	16.981	17.479
Consumer price index (change, %)	29	23	11	8	3	4	6
<b>Demography</b>							
Total population (millions)	1.44	1.42	1.40	1.39	1.38	1.37	1.36
annual growth rate (%)	-1.6	-1.3	-0.9	-1	-0.5	-0.4	-0.4
Population aged 60 and over (%)	19.1	19.5	19.9	20.3	20.8	21.1	21.4
Life expectancy at age 60 (years)	17.7	17.8	18.5	18.0	18.5	18.5	18.7
female	19.9	20.1	20.6	20.3	20.8	20.8	21.2
male	14.5	14.8	15.2	14.8	15.3	15.3	15.3
Fertility rate	1.38	1.38	1.32	1.29	1.32	1.38	1.34
Fertility rate over time (as % of 1960)	70.8	70.8	67.7	66.2	67.7	70.8	68.7
Dependency ratio (%)	52.0	51.9	51.7	51.1	50.2	49.4	48.8
<b>Weakening social fabric</b>							
Suicides by men (per 100,000)	67.6	64.3	63.9	59.4	56.0	46.1	50.1
Reported rapes (per 100,000 women age 15-59)	22.8	21.3	22.2	12.2	13.7	16.9	12.1
Drug crimes (per 100,000 people)	3.5	8.1	8.1	17.0	21.6	115.4	168.7
Prisoners (per 100,000 people)	177	205	229	219	222	239	240
Juvenile prisoners (as % of total prisoners)	1.4	2.5	1.9	1.6	1.7	2.0	2.1
Births outside of marriage (%)	44.1	48.0	51.5	52.3	54.0	54.5	56.2
Divorces (as % of marriages contracted)	106.4	102.5	94.5	82.7	81.6	77.1	76.4
<b>Education</b>							
Enrolment ratio for all levels (age 6-23, %)	74.2	76.8	79.1	81.5	84.6	86.8	87.8
Upper secondary full-time equivalent gross enrolment ratio (%)	92.1	94.3	94.8	90.6	88.3	87.5	90.4
Female secondary net enrolment ratio (%)	94.1	95.5	96.1	95.5	96.4	96.0	95.9
Upper secondary technical enrolment (as % of total upper secondary)	33.0	32.7	33.0	33.4	32.4	31.8	31.5
Upper secondary female graduates (as % of females of normal graduate age)	80.2	86.2	82.0	81.6	86.5	83.0	71.1
Tertiary graduates (as % of population of normal graduate age)	22.4	22.3	24.3	26.5	30.4	33.8	37.0
Tertiary full-time equivalent gross enrolment ratio (%)	35.6	40.4	44.9	50.8	55.5	60.3	61.2
female (as % of total tertiary)	55.6	55.7	56.8	57.8	58.5	58.9	61.1
Tertiary natural & applied science enrolment (as % of total tertiary)	41.4	40.5	40.1	38.1	37.0	37.0	38.1
Science graduates (as % of total graduates)	49.9	43.4	40.1	44.7	37.7	37.6	35.4
female (as % of total science graduates)	57.3	53.8	56.8	54.5	49.7	54.8	52.6
male (as % of total science graduates)	42.7	46.2	43.2	45.5	50.3	45.2	47.4
R&D scientists and technicians (per 10,000 people)	36.7	34.8	34.2	34.4	33.5	34.4	34.5

<sup>1</sup> Data for 1995: EMOR Ltd, a market research and polls centre.

<sup>2</sup> Source: Bank of Estonia.

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001
<b>Communication</b>							
Telephone lines (per 100 people)	28.9	31.2	33.7	36.2	37.5	38.2	37.6
International telephone calls (minutes per capita)	37.3	41.6	41.1	50.4	53.5	55.2	35.4
Passenger cars (per 100 people)	26.9	28.9	30.7	32.7	33.4	33.9	29.9
Registered library users (%)	38.9	39.6	41.5	43.1	44.2	44.3	44.0
Annual museum attendances (per person)	0.68	0.81	0.91	0.89	1.00	1.12	1.15
<b>Employment</b>							
Labour force (as % of total population)	48.4	48.3	48.6	48.3	47.8	48.3	48.3
Percentage of labour force in agriculture	10.2	9.7	9.2	8.9	8.1	7.2	6.9
Percentage of labour force in industry	34.2	33.6	33.2	33.1	32.1	33.3	33.0
Percentage of labour force in services	55.6	56.6	57.6	58.1	59.8	59.5	60.1
Women in labour force (as % of total labour force)	47.8	48.2	48.1	48.5	48.5	48.6	48.9
Female administrators and managers (as % of total)	36.5	36.8	34.5	34.6	35.6	37.0	35.4
Female wages (as % of male wages) <sup>1</sup>	73.3	72.6	72.0	74.2	73.5	75.4	...
Unemployment (thousands)	68.1	68.4	65.8	66.1	80.5	89.9	83.1
Unemployment rate (%)	9.7	9.9	9.6	9.8	12.2	13.6	12.6
female (as % of total)	8.9	9.2	9.2	8.8	10.9	12.6	12.2
youth (as % of total, age 15-24)	14.4	16.1	14.5	15.8	19.7	23.8	22.2
Long-term unemployment rate more than 12 months (as % of labour force)	3.1	5.5	4.4	4.6	5.6	6.2	6.1
Unemployment rate including discouraged workers (%)	11.5	12.2	11.7	12.2	14.9	16.0	15.4
Regional unemployment disparity (25% worst regions versus 25% best)	3.1	2.3	1.6	1.9	1.9	1.8	2.0
Ratio of unemployment rate of those not completing secondary school to rate of those graduating from 3rd level	2.2	2.1	2.8	2.7	2.7	2.5	2.3
female	1.5	1.5	2.7	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.6
male	2.6	2.4	2.9	3.1	3.1	2.6	2.1
<b>Natural resource balance sheet</b>							
Greenhouse index (CO <sub>2</sub> emissions, tons per capita) <sup>2</sup>	15.5	16.7	16.9	15.5	14.3	14.4	...
Commercial energy consumption, total (thousand tons of oil equivalent)	5,372	5,657	5,555	5,109	4,712	4,516	4,746
per capita (kg of oil equivalent)	3,740	3,996	3,969	3,685	3,425	3,297	3,479
GDP output per kg of oil equivalent (USD)	0.66	0.77	0.83	1.02	1.09	1.14	1.16
Pesticide consumption (metric tons per 1,000 people)	...	...	0.14	0.14	0.14	0.22	0.24
Generation of municipal waste (kg per capita)	352	399	424	402	413	397	276
<b>International trade</b>							
Export-import ratio (%)	90.0	85.3	87.1	88.4	94.0	95.8	96.0
Trade dependency (exports+imports as % of GDP)	152.1	145.8	168.4	169.8	159.4	191.7	185.0
Gross international reserves (end of year, millions USD) <sup>3</sup>	576.1	646.9	758.1	811.0	852.5	920.6	820.1
Current account balance (USD millions) <sup>4</sup>	-157.9	-397.9	-563.1	-478.4	-247.0	-294.1	-339.8
<b>Policy options</b>							
Education expenditure (as % of GDP)	7.9	7.7	7.2	7.3	7.4	6.7	...
Health expenditure (as % of GDP)	6.2	6.1	5.5	5.9	6.5	5.9	...
Military expenditure (as % of GDP)	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.6	1.4	1.6	...
Military expenditure (as % of education and health expenditure)	11.5	12.0	13.1	11.8	11.3	14.2	...

<sup>1</sup> Data of October.

<sup>2</sup> Source: Estonian Environmental Information Centre

<sup>3</sup> Source: Bank of Estonia.

<sup>4</sup> Source: Bank of Estonia.

# Suggested Tables

## Gender-related development

Life expectancy at birth (years)		Combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrolment ratio (%)		Seats in parliament held by women (as % of total)	Female administrators and managers (as % of total)	Female professionals and technical workers (as % of total)
Female	Male	Female	Male			
2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001
<b>76.2</b>	<b>64.7</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>97</b>	<b>17.8</b>	<b>35.4</b>	<b>69.7</b>

## Human poverty

People not expected to survive to age 60 (%)	Long-term unemployment (as % of labour force)	Share of income			Population below 50% of median income (%)
		Poorest 20% (%)	Richest 20% (%)	Richest 20% to poorest 20%	
2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001
<b>24.1</b>	<b>6.1</b>	<b>8.4</b>	<b>37.7</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>11.6</b>

## Trends in economic growth

GDP per capita (1995 US\$)					
2000	Lowest value during 1993–2000		Highest value during 1993–2000		Average annual rate of change, 1993–2000 (%)
	Year		Year		
<b>3,751</b>	<b>3,398</b>	<b>1993</b>	<b>4,203</b>	<b>1998</b>	<b>1.7</b>

## Progress in survival

Life expectancy at birth (years)		Infant mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)		Under-five mortality rate (per 1,000 live births)		People not expected to survive to age 60 (%)	Maternal mortality ratio reported (per 100,000 live births)
1970	2001	1970	2001	1970	2001	2001	2001
70.1	70.5	17.7	8.8	21.6	10.9	24.1	7.9

## Health profile

Infants with low birth-weight (%)	One-years-olds fully immunized		Tuberculosis cases (per 100,000 people)	People living with HIV/AIDS		Cigarette consumption, annual average (per household member)	Doctors (per 100,000 people)	Nurses (per 100,000 people)
	Against tuberculosis (%)	Against measles (%)		Total number	Per 100,000 people			
2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001
4.3	99.6	81.0	42.0	1,474	108.1	749	314	727

## Education profile

Age group enrolment ratios (adjusted)		Children reaching grade 5 (%)	Tertiary students in science (as % of total tertiary)	Public education expenditure			
Primary age group (% of relevant age group)	Secondary age group (% of relevant age group)			As % of GNP	As % of total government expenditure	Pre-primary, primary and secondary (as % of all levels)	Tertiary (as % of all levels)
2001	2001	2001	2001	2000	2000	2000	2000
99.8	98.0	98.8	38.1	7.0	18.2	83.0	17.0

## Access to information flows

International tourism departures (thousands)	Main telephone lines (per 1,000 people)		Public telephones (per 1,000 people)		Cellular mobile subscribers (per 1,000 people)		Internet hosts (per 1,000 people)
2001	1990	2001	1990	2001	1990	2001	2002
331	231	376	1.93	1.86	0	543	64.7



## Economic performance

GNP (USD billions)	GNP annual growth rate (%)	GNP per capita (USD)	GNP per capita annual growth rate (%)	Average annual rate of inflation (consumer price index, %)	
				1993–2001	2001
2000	1993–2000	2000	1993–2000		
<b>4.9</b>	<b>3.87</b>	<b>3,601</b>	<b>5.2</b>	<b>24.7</b>	<b>5.8</b>

## Macroeconomic structure

GDP (USD billions)	Agriculture (as % of GDP) <sup>1</sup>	Industry (as % of GDP) <sup>2</sup>	Services (as % of GDP) <sup>3</sup>	Consumption		Gross domestic investment (as % of GDP) <sup>4</sup>	Gross domestic savings (as % of GDP)	Central government		Overall budget surplus/deficit (as % of GDP)
				Private (as % of GDP)	Government (as % of GDP)			Tax revenue (as % of GDP)	Expenditure (as % of GDP)	
2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000	2000
<b>5.1</b>	<b>3.4</b>	<b>22.4</b>	<b>65.4</b>	<b>55.7</b>	<b>20.8</b>	<b>25.4</b>	<b>5.9</b>	<b>28.9</b>	<b>31.4</b>	<b>-1.0</b>

<sup>1</sup> % of value-added total

<sup>2</sup> % of value-added total, industry with energy

<sup>3</sup> % of value-added total

<sup>4</sup> gross fixed capital formation

## Resource flows

Exports of goods and services (as % of GDP)	Imports of goods and services (as % of GDP)	Net foreign direct investment flows (USD millions)	Net portfolio investment flows (USD millions)	Sovereign long-term debt rating
2000	2000	2000	2000	2000
<b>93.8</b>	<b>97.9</b>	<b>323.5</b>	<b>116.1</b>	<b>BBB+</b>

## Resource use

Public expenditure on education (as % of GNP)	Public expenditure on health (as % of GDP)	Military expenditure (as % of GDP)	Trade in conventional weapons			
			Imports		Exports	
			USD millions	Index (1995 = 100)	USD millions	Share (%)
2000	2000	2000	2001	2001	2001	2001
<b>7.0</b>	<b>4.5</b>	<b>1.6</b>	<b>2.1</b>	<b>299</b>	<b>0.0</b>	<b>0.0</b>

## Aid and debt

Official development assistance (ODA) received (net disbursements)			External debt	
Total (USD millions)	As % of GNP	Per capita (USD)	Total (USD millions)	As % of GNP
2000	2000	2000	2000	2000
<b>88.5</b>	<b>1.8</b>	<b>64.7</b>	<b>3,010.6</b>	<b>61.0</b>

## Demographic trends

Total population (millions)			Annual population growth rate (%)		Urban population (as % of total)			Dependency ratio (%)		Population aged 65 and above (%)		Total fertility rate	
1975	2001	2015	1975–2001	2001–2015	1975	2001	2015	2001	2015	2001	2015	1970	1995
<b>1,4</b>	<b>1,4</b>	<b>1,3</b>	<b>–0.2</b>	<b>–0.4</b>	<b>67.4</b>	<b>67.4</b>	<b>70.2</b>	<b>48.8</b>	<b>47.7</b>	<b>15.3</b>	<b>16.8</b>	<b>2.16</b>	<b>1.34</b>

## Energy use

Electricity consumption				Commercial energy use (oil equivalent)					Net energy imports (as % of commercial energy use)	
Total (millions of kilowatt-hours)	Index (1980=100)	Per capita (kilowatt-hours)		Total (1,000 metric tons)	Per capita (kilograms)		GDP output per kilogram (USD)			
2001	2001	1980	2001	1980	2001	1980	2001	2000	1980	2001
<b>6,229</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>10,969</b>	<b>4,566</b>	<b>9,707</b>	<b>4,746</b>	<b>6,571</b>	<b>3,479</b>	<b>1.14</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>33</b>

## Environmental profile

Annual fresh water withdrawals		Average annual rate of deforestation (%)	Carbon dioxide emissions		Sulphur dioxide emissions per capita (kilograms)
As % of water resources	Per capita (cubic metres)		Total (millions of metric tons)	Per capita (metric tons)	
2001	2001	2000	2000	2000	2000
<b>1.6</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>–0.5</b>	<b>16.8</b>	<b>12.3</b>	<b>68</b>

## Managing the environment

Hazardous waste generated (1,000 metric tons)	Municipal waste generated (kilograms per person)	Population served	
		By municipal waste services (%)	By public sanitation services (%)
2001	2001	2000	2001
<b>6,206</b>	<b>276</b>	<b>79</b>	<b>69</b>

## Job security

Un-employed people (thousands)	Unemployment rate		Incidence of long-term unemployment (as % of total unemployment)		Part-time employment (as % of total employment)		Involuntary part-time employment (as % of total part-time employment)		Public expenditure on un-employment compensation (as % of GDP)
	Total (% of labour force)	Index (1994 = 100)	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	
2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2000
<b>83</b>	<b>12.6</b>	<b>150</b>	<b>44.0</b>	<b>52.2</b>	<b>11.3</b>	<b>5.1</b>	<b>19.4</b>	<b>24.6</b>	<b>0.14</b>

## Crime

People incarcerated (per 100,000)	Juvenile convictions (as % of total convictions)	Total recorded crimes (per 100,000 people)	Total recorded drug offences (per 100,000 people)	Recorded rapes (per 100,000 women aged 15 and above)	Recorded homicides		
					In country (per 100,000 people)	In largest city (per 100,000 people)	Largest city
2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001
<b>351</b>	<b>14.0</b>	<b>4,228</b>	<b>168.7</b>	<b>8.4</b>	<b>12.0</b>	<b>10.5</b>	<b>Tallinn</b>

## Personal distress

Injuries and deaths from road accidents (per 100,000 people)	Suicides (per 100,000 people)		Divorces (as % of marriages)	Births to mothers under 20 (%)
	Male	Female		
2001	2001	2001	2001	2001
<b>194</b>	<b>50.1</b>	<b>11.7</b>	<b>76.4</b>	<b>9.7</b>

## Gender and education

Female primary age group enrolment (adjusted)			Female secondary age group enrolment (adjusted)			Female tertiary students			Female tertiary science enrolment (as % of female tertiary students)
Ratio (% of primary school age girls)	Index (1985 = 100)	As % of male ratio	Ratio (% of secondary school age girls)	Index (1985 = 100)	As % of male ratio	Per 100,000 women	Index (1985 = 100)	As % of males	
2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001
<b>99.8</b>	<b>101</b>	<b>100</b>	<b>98.7</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>102</b>	<b>5,070</b>	<b>211</b>	<b>136</b>	<b>31.7</b>

## Gender and economic activity

Female economic activity rate (age 15 and above)			Unemployment rate (%)				Female unpaid family workers (as % of total)
Rate (%)	Index (1989=100)	As % of male rate	Total (age 15–64)		Youth (age 15–24)		
			Female	Male	Female	Male	
2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001	2001
<b>52.2</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>12.3</b>	<b>13.2</b>	<b>19.3</b>	<b>26.4</b>	<b>52</b>