



# LABOUR MARKET AND ENTREPRENEURSHIP OVERCOMING GENDER STEREOTYPES

A TRANSNATIONAL ACTION PLAN  
PROMOTED BY BUSINESS WOMEN AND  
GENDER EQUALITY ORGANISATIONS

## COUNTRY REPORT FOR ESTONIA



This project is co-financed by the European Commission, Directorate General for Employment,  
Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities





## Labour Market and Entrepreneurship Overcoming Gender Stereotypes

A Transnational action plan promoted  
by Business Women and Gender Equality Organisations

This project has been carried out by AFAEMME  
Association of Organisations of Mediterranean  
Businesswomen (Barcelona, Spain) in association with:

KARAT Coalition (Central and Eastern Europe)  
WAD - Women's Alliance for Development (Bulgaria)  
SEGE - Greek Association of Women Entrepreneurs  
(Greece)

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# Context

A key priority for the European Commission is to create equality for men and women throughout Europe. AFAEMME, Association of Organizations of Mediterranean Business Women (Barcelona) was awarded by the European Commission, in partnership with important organizations in Central and Eastern Europe - KARAT Coalition, WAD - Women's Alliance for Development (Bulgaria) and SEGE, Greek association of Women Entrepreneurs (Greece) to implement a unique project "*Labour Market And Entrepreneurship Overcoming Gender Stereotypes*".

The main objectives of this project are:

- to improve the understanding of the issues underlying gender equality and equal opportunities in the fields of employment and entrepreneurship in this area of Europe
- to strengthen gender equality and businesswomen organizations and their active partnership in influencing decision makers on social and economic policy
- and to improve the general economic status of women.

The project includes the elaboration of 12 national reports from Cyprus, Malta, Poland, Latvia, Estonia, Lithuania, Czech Republic, Slovakia, Slovenia, Hungary, Bulgaria and Romania. Which report the obstacles experienced by women in business and assess the impact of EU Employment Strategy on the situation of women in the new ten EU Members states and two candidate countries with case studies of a typical businesswoman in those countries relating to gender stereotypes in the labour market and entrepreneurship, with a final global report containing concrete policy recommendations addressed to European Commission and national governments. The publication is launched at a large scale European conference in Brussels in February 2006.

**This report contains the national study from Estonia**





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## Executive summary

Estonia quickly adopted and ratified European legislation into its own legal framework in order to comply with entry into the EU, the de facto situation does not reflect a full compliance. The main problem, as in many other countries, is making laws that protect families and health issues consistent with gender equality laws. Policies sometimes work against each other instead of working in the same direction. In addition, frequently new legislation on gender equality is unknown by those who must enforce it. The work by various NGOs and University centres has made a strong contribution in raising awareness, proposing recommendations and monitoring that these laws are complied with.

The institutional framework in Estonia does not reflect a strong presence of women from the outset, however lately trade unions have taken on board a number of issues directly affecting women's concerns as employees that include: increasing the number and quality of jobs for women, equal pay, career progression, combating violence against women in the workplace and adult learning opportunities.

In reference to the issues that are analysed concerning women as employees, the latest reforms in the Public Employment Services and in the tax-benefit system show that there are some instances where women's economic activity is discouraged (for example more favourable conditions for women with children in unemployment benefits).

This situation can explain to some degree the fact that although Labour Force Survey (LFS) data shows that there are more unemployed men than women, there are more registered unemployed women than men. The fact that the survey figures do not pick up women as unemployed reflects the fact that women indeed are not actively looking for work, but rather receiving money to stay at home looking after children. This situation clearly contradicts any commitment to women's economic independence as well to the Lisbon Objectives.

On the other hand, part-time work for women has been increasing rapidly in Estonia. Even though this can be seen as a positive development from the point of view of reconciling work and family life, it is important to keep in mind that this type of work can take women off the career path and can also seriously diminish benefits (unemployment and retirement in particular).

In comparison with the EU25, women have much better outcomes in employment and activity rates than men. When women and men are compared in the new member states,

however, it is Estonian men have better averages in these indicators. Estonian women are employed in high proportions in Education, Health and Social Care, and other services sectors. In the case of occupations, women are found more often as teachers, nurses, social workers etc.. and in the service workers (shop attendants, cleaners etc.., but they are also in their majority in the elementary or unskilled occupations. In senior positions only 35% of all workers are women and only 4% of women are recorded as managers. This is also reflected in educational levels, while women dominate secondary and professional training up to University education (Degree level), master's and doctorate levels are dominated by men (women represent 49.8 and 31.5 per cent respectively). The wage gap in Estonia has improved from 1995 to 2001 jumping from 73 to 76 per cent (women's wage as a percentage of men's wage). This also has an effect on poverty, where there are more working poor women than men, although the percentage of people living below the poverty line has fallen remarkably in the recent years.

The main stereotype of female employees is that they are considered to be more costly because: women are more often absent from work; women are more often late for work; the movement of women is higher as they change jobs more often than men. All this leads to costs for employers. Furthermore, women go on maternity leave; women require hygienic conditions at work; women are not ready for unexpected situations, for working overtime etc.

Finally, as in other new (and old) Member States, there is not a lot of data on women entrepreneurs. The few data available points to a concentration of businesswomen in the 25-44 age group. In the past 8 years self-employment for women has fluctuated much more than that for men. This can be due to the fact that women can have a higher propensity to engage in informal activities or be more willing to take up self-employment in order to maintain household income as well as having a higher propensity to leave the labour market altogether.

The main stereotype of the business woman, according to public opinion, is that she is self-centred and interested in power. She is knowledgeable, well-educated, takes care of her appearance, is interested only in her own well-being, i.e. the material side is important for her.

She does not want to have a family (children), and when she does have it, it is only secondary in her life. She is not feminine, it is often thought that she is a feminist. She is popular neither among men nor women.

# Legal framework

" Estonia has adopted most of the legal acts with regard to equality at international and EU level. However, in reality their effect is relatively weak.

The main changes concern people's attitudes, in particular a change in those attitudes. For example, I work for a company as a personnel manager. During the 5 years I have been working for the company my main responsibility has been recruitment. As it is a wholesale company which sells technical goods and quite often the goods are very heavy, we have mainly male sales representatives. According to the Law on Equality I am not allowed to write in the job advertisement that we are looking for salesmen. I have to write sales representatives. As a result, also women apply for the vacancy although I know already in advance that I have to say no to all the women (proceeding from labour protection regulations which forbid lifting heavy weights). Consequently, the law seems to work but in fact it gives groundless hope to women which looks like it is "fooling" them" (Estonia focal-point, Külliki Luks)

The Constitution of Estonia, The European Union Law and the international treaties agreed by the Republic of Estonia prohibit gender discrimination, provide for the elimination of existing gender inequalities and enhance gender equality.

The Constitution of the Republic of Estonia §12 paragraph 1 provides that everyone is equal before the law. No one shall be discriminated against on the basis of nationality, race, colour, sex, language, origin, religion, political or other views, property or social status, or on other grounds.

The Constitution of the Republic of Estonia §19 provides that everyone has the right to free self-realization. Everyone shall honour and consider the rights and freedoms of others, and shall observe the law, in exercising his or her rights and freedoms and in fulfilling his or her duties.

According to the Law on the Government of the Republic §67 paragraph 1 the responsibilities of the Ministry of Social Affairs include also enhancing equality between men and women, co-ordinating this work and drawing up the respective drafts of legal acts.

The Republic of Estonia has also ratified almost all of the main international acts which ban gender discrimination. (CEDAW and is signatory to the Beijing platform for action). However, when preparing national and local budgets in Estonia, the dif-

ferent situation and needs of men and women have not been taken into consideration. More recently, the Gender Equality Act has been passed on 7 April 2004 and the Equality Bureau has existed since 1996. Gender Equality Act aims at establishing equality in the labour market, places of employment, in education, social security and other spheres. Direct discrimination is prohibited and measures against indirect discrimination are provided. The Act allows certain positive measures to improve the situation of women who are in a less advantageous position as compared to men. The authorities are obliged to promote equality between men and women. The Act specifies ways of seeking justice in the courts as well as via proceedings provided by other relevant institutions indicated in the Act.

The NAP based on the Beijing platform gives unspecified or too general promises: in 2001-2003 a strategy and methods should have been worked out to integrate gender equality into the areas of employment and occupational life.

Strengthening of the policy to guarantee equal opportunities for women and men was one of the priority activities. Within civil society, however, there are some efforts to increase the know-how on the issues included in the plan and also efforts to lobby using this information for the plan to be implemented. Women's group undertook work related to raising awareness of the general public on gender issues and related to research addressing topics within the plan.

Many women's organisations are engaged with issues relating to equal rights in Estonia. The first women's resource centre in Estonia, ENUT (Estonian Women's Studies and Resource Centre) was established in 1997. ENUT provides services for policy makers, researchers and students, media, other NGOs and the general public in the field of gender equality. ENUT maintains a specialized library on women and gender issues. It is possible for students to choose gender equality subjects as elective courses at Tallinn's Pedagogical University and at the University of Tartu. Further, civil servants from governmental institutions and members of the police force have participated in trainings organised by NGOs. Recently, a number of public information campaigns on topics such as the fight against the trafficking in women, the health benefits of breast-feeding and a campaign on the values of being a good father have been conducted.



## Intitutional framework

The institutional framework in Estonia composed of social partners (trade unions and employer organizations) is ruled by a series of legal instruments:

> Trade Unions Act. This Act provides the general rights of and bases for the activities of trade unions, and their relations with state and local government agencies and employers. It also provides the specifications for the foundation, activities and dissolution of trade unions which operate as non-profit associations. The full text of the Act is available at <http://www.legaltext.ee/text/en/X30087K1.htm>

> Employees Representatives Act. This Act provides the legal bases for the activities of employees' representatives in labour relations between employees who authorise the representatives and employers. It provides definitions and also rules for the employees. The following website includes the full text: <http://www.legaltext.ee/text/en/X2001K2.htm>.

> Collective Labour Dispute Resolution Act. This Act regulates the procedures for the resolution of collective labour disputes and the calling and organisation of strikes and lock-outs. It defines a labour dispute and also provides instruments whereby these can be solved. The following website includes the full text of the act: <http://www.legaltext.ee/text/en/X1039K1.htm>.

### **Private and Public sector unions:**

EAKL- Confederation of Estonian Trade Unions, Federation of Estonian Health Care, Professional Unions- more than 300 members, Union of Textile Industry Employees- 500 members

> TALO Professional Union of Civil Servants Public services for employment and entrepreneurship. Enterprise Estonia <http://www.eas.ee>

Estonian Business association <http://www.esea.ee>

Tallinn official city website: <http://investor.tallinn.ee>

Estonian Chamber of Commerce and Industry  
<http://www.koda.ee/>

Empowerment of labour market players: Ministries Employment and labour market policy: Ministry of Social Affairs, Estonian Labour Market Board, Labour Inspectorate, Enterprise policy: Ministry of Economics, Enterprise Estonia agencies and measures (some pay attention to women)

Public services for employment:  
Estonian Labour Market Board <http://www.tta.ee>  
Labour Inspectorate <http://www.ti.ee>

### **Priority areas in EAKL national plan:**

- > More and better jobs for women
- > Gender issues in collective bargaining
- > Equal pay for equal value
- > Access for women for promotion
- > Gender awareness for men and women union members and employers
- > Combating violence against women at work
- > Life - long education for women

## Issues for women employees

The statistical office labour force Survey data and statistics from Labour Market Board and Unemployment Insurance Fund were used as the main sources for this chapter. In addition some Eurostat data which found in the Statistical Annex was also used to support and contrast the national data. Since October 1, 2002, benefits and services to job seekers registered as unemployed are regulated by two laws: the Social Protection of Unemployed Act and the Employment Service Act. The Social Protection of Unemployed Act regulates registering for unemployment and the distribution of unemployment benefits and employment training stipends. The Employment Service Act regulates the provision of employment service to job seekers and employers. The Employment Service enables job seekers to find work and promote job creation. It also enables employers to find appropriate work force. The employment services are: providing information about the situation on the labour market and about following opportunities: training, vocational guidance, employment subsidies for starting of businesses, employment subsidies to employers for less competitive employees and community placement. The amount of employment benefit has been 400 EEK, since the beginning 1999. It is paid for up to 270 days. Positive tendencies continued on the Estonian labour market in 2003 according to the Labour Force Survey. The number of employed rose by 8,800 from its 2002 level, increasing to 594,300. The employment rate (15-64) increased to 62,2 percent. In analysing unemployment indicators from various sources, some differences can be noted. According to the Labour Force Survey, there are more unemployed men than women, but in the state unemployment offices women register as unemployed more often than men. One of the reasons for this is the fact that women with children have more favourable conditions for receiving unemployment benefits, for example raising children with a disability (8-year-old child and up to 18-year-old child) is equivalent to having had previous employment. Women are also more interested in participating in training which is provided by the employment offices. The unemployment is increasing from the beginning of the 1990s until 2000, according to labour Force Survey. Since 2001, the employment rate has increased and the unemployment has only slowly decreased. On average the indicators for men's unemployment have always been greater than women's unemployment rates, but the difference has decreased during the last few years. In 2003 unemployment decreased only among men, while women's unemployment rate increased by 0.2 percentage points. While there has been an overall improvement of the labour market situation, unemployment of young people has risen in 2003 (increased by 3 percentage points compared to 2002) reaching 20.6 percent. The unemployment rate for young women has been notably higher than

for man in the last three years. The proportional percentage of long term unemployment decreased in 2004. This is mainly due to a decrease in men's unemployment rates. At the same time there are still more men among the long term unemployed. According to the data provided by Eurostat in the yearly Employment in Europe publication by the Directorate General of Employment, Social Affairs and Equal Opportunities, these trends in the labour market are confirmed. In addition, it is also interesting to note that while the general unemployment rates of women and men are very close in number, since 2001 youth unemployment rates for women are almost twice as high than for men, whereas before they were very similar. It would be important to know if changes in the legislation or perceived higher costs of young women (because of maternity issues) are driving this result. This is particularly important in maintaining a high level of education for women and also can influence negatively fertility rates as women's work opportunities are reduced. Additionally, long term unemployment, although low in Estonia, is higher for men than for women, which indicates that men have more difficulties in finding work again once they lose it, and this will also depend on the age of the men. At the same time however, women are more likely to leave the labour market all together. Comparing the Eurostat employment rates and activity rates by age, it is also important to note that women have lower rates than men, which indicates that various phenomena that can be present here. In the case of the youngest age group, this result is most likely explained by greater likelihood of women to continue education and training. Comparing data for 1998 with 2002, one sees that the gap between employment rate of young women and men is widening (from 8 percentage points to 13 in spite of a significant fall in young men's employment rate). This is only partly explained by family formation years, the differences in this pattern among rural and urban women would have to also be taken into account. In the case of women in the prime age of 25-54, the gap is also widening but at a slower pace (from 6 to 6.7 percentage points) in part because men's rate is also falling. In this case there is more reason to worry given that in this case women can be abandoning the labour market due to early retirement and highly likely that they face specific obstacles for which are different than those of men. Those obstacles would be linked to their family responsibilities in addition to the overall difficulties of lack of employment creation. It is also interesting to note that comparing the employment rates with the full time equivalent (FTE) rate which takes into account part-time jobs, that the rates for men are practically the same (low or no incidence of part-time) has not changed while that of women is rapidly changing, which means that part-time work is becoming more common. This is an important trend to monitor, especially since this type of work can be convenient

WORKING-AGE POPULATION BY SEX AND ECONOMIC STATUS, thousands					
	1998	2000	2001	2002	2003
<b>Population of age 15-74 total</b>	1,05.1	1,046.5	1,047.2	1,047.2	1,047.8
M	486.1	485.2	486.4	487.0	487.7
F	565.0	561.3	560.8	560.2	560.1
<b>Population of age 15-64 total</b>	919.1	915.9	916.5	916.3	915.8
M	438.5	437.0	437.5	437.8	438.3
F	480.6	478.9	478.9	478.5	477.6
<b>Labour force<sup>1</sup> (15-74)</b>	672.6	662.4	660.8	652.7	660.5
M	346.7	340.6	337.6	333.6	336.7
F	336.0	321.8	323.1	319.1	323.8
<b>Labour force<sup>1</sup> (15-64)</b>	658.7	645.2	642.1	632.0	638.9
M	339.3	332.5	328.9	324.6	326.3
F	319.5	312.7	313.2	307.5	312.6
<b>Employed (15-74)</b>	606.5	572.5	577.7	585.5	594.3
M	309.3	291.1	293.9	297.5	302.5
F	297.2	281.4	283.8	288.1	291.8
<b>Employed (15-64)</b>	593.0	555.9	560.1	565.6	572.9
M	302.1	283.1	285.5	289.0	292.2
F	290.9	272.7	274.6	276.6	280.8
<b>Unemployed (15-74)</b>	66.1	89.9	83.1	67.2	66.2
M	37.4	49.5	43.7	36.1	34.2
F	28.7	40.5	39.3	31.0	32.0
<b>Incl longterm unemployed<sup>2</sup></b>	31.1	40.8	40.1	35.5	30.4
M	17.0	23.5	22.8	21.3	16.2
F	14.1	17.3	17.3	14.3	14.2
<b>Inactive population (15-74)</b>	378.5	384.1	386.4	394.4	387.4
M	139.4	144.7	148.7	153.4	151.0
F	239.1	239.4	237.7	241.0	236.4
<b>Labour force participation rate<sup>3</sup> (15-64), %</b>	71.7	70.4	70.1	69.0	69.8
M	77.4	76.1	75.2	74.1	74.5
F	66.5	65.3	65.4	64.3	65.5
<b>Employment rate<sup>4</sup> * (15-64), %</b>	64.5	60.7	61.1	61.7	62.6
M	68.9	64.8	65.2	66.0	66.7
F	60.5	57.0	57.3	57.8	58.8
<b>Unemployment rate<sup>5</sup> * (15-74), %</b>	9.8	13.6	12.6	10.3	10.0
M	10.8	14.5	12.9	10.8	10.2
F	8.8	12.6	12.2	9.7	9.9
<b>Youth unemployment rate<sup>5</sup> (15-24), %</b>	15.8	23.8	22.2	17.6	20.6
M	17.0	23.9	19.3	14.3	16.9
F	14.2	23.7	26.4	22.5	26.0
<b>Share of unemployed youthn in the population aged 15-24, %</b>	6.9	9.8	8.9	5.9	7.5
M	8.4	11.2	8.9	5.6	7.1
F	5.4	8.4	8.9	6.3	8.0
<b>Longterm unemployed<sup>2</sup> as share of all unemployed</b>	47.0	45.4	48.3	52.8	45.9
M	45.5	47.5	52.2	59.0	47.4
F	49.1	42.7	44.0	46.1	44.3

1 - Employed, and. uri employed persons

2 - 2 months or longer

3 - Share of labour force out of working age population

4 - Share of employed, out of working age population

5 - Share of unemployed, out of labour force

Source: Labour Force Survey

for women who want to reconcile work and family life, without committing themselves to full time career. At the same time in the long run part-time employment can decrease the amounts and the type of benefits workers will be eligible for in the future (during unemployment or retirement). Furthermore, as with other EU countries, part time-work can also lead to working during more convenient hours as employers tend to use part-time workers for example at weekends, evening and night shifts. Additionally, it is important to ensure that there are no abuses of part-time employment contract, where people are employed and paid as part-time, for performing full time or near full time duties. Comparing Estonia with average results for the EU (last table in the Statistical Annex), women have much better outcomes in employment and activity rates than men except when compared to the new member states (ACC 10 column in the table, please note that the data are for 2002) where Estonian men have better averages. When comparing the unemployment rates, Estonian women have also better rates than their EU counterparts, but men's unemployment is higher than the EU15 and EU 25 averages, but lower than for the new member states. However, youth unemployment is lower for both women and men compared to the new member states, but much higher for women compared to that of the EU15. With regard to long term unemployment (LTU), the level for Estonia is lower for both men and women than in other new member states. However, Compared to EU15, men's rate is almost double while women's LTU rate is almost the same. Finally, with respect to the FTE rate which measures approximately the impact of part time

work, we note that part-time work is much wider spread in the EU15 (larger differences between FTE and the employment rate for those aged 15-64.)

## Conditions of work/Quality of employment

According to the European Foundation for the Improvement of Working and Living Conditions, and based on the Third European Survey on Working Conditions that addressed acceding MS in 2001, the following is true for Estonia:

In Estonia men have 2.4 times more employment injuries than women. In the European Union the difference is 2.6 times, so the general picture is the same. Women have fewer injuries which is understandable as they work in less risky fields. The working day of women in Estonia including housework is 10.5 hours on average while it is 9 hours for men.

## Occupational segregation

Similarly to other developed countries, Estonia men and women work are in somewhat different occupations. Women are traditionally more often employed in professions where the income is lower than average. The share of women in leading positions is also notably lower than of men.

Field of occupation	Employed, thousands			Share of women, %			
	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	1995	2003
Financial intermediation, real estate activities, renting and business activities	38.1	47.7	45.4	52.2	51.9	47.2	42.4
Public administration and defence, compulsory social insurance	34.5	34.1	34.8	33.2	34.5	38	44.9
Education	53.8	44.6	51	55.6	56.9	79.7	81
Health and social care	35.7	28.5	30.9	31.6	36.4	84	84.6
Other	29	29.6	30.4	30.1	30.4	59.3	60.2

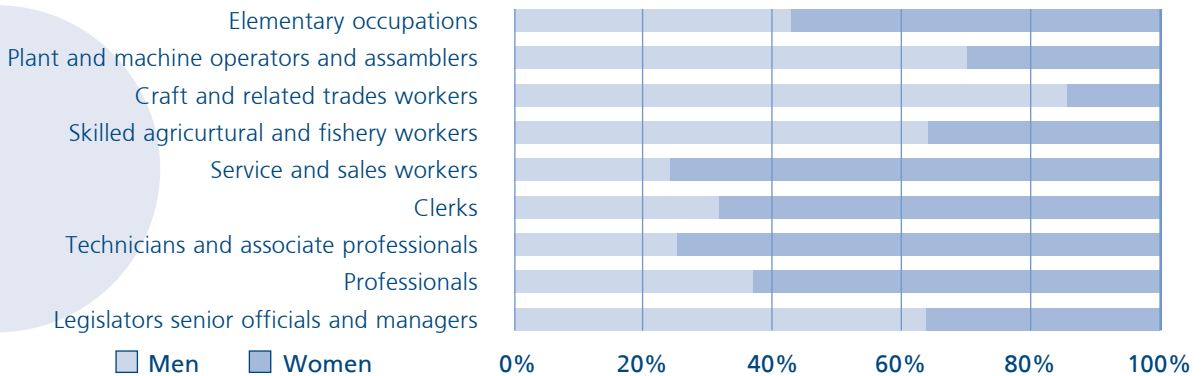
1 - Until 1996 The data is on population from age 15-69, since 1997 on population in age of 15-74.  
Source: Labour Force Survey

### EMPLOYED POPULATION BY SEX AND OCCUPATION, 2003

Occupation	Average number of the employed, thousands			Share of the employed	
	Total	Men	Women	Men	Women
Legislators, senior officials and managers	69.8	45.4	24.4	65	35
Professionals	82.6	29.9	52.7	36	64
Technicians and associate professionals	71.7	17.6	54.1	25	75
Clerks	30.2	9.3	20.9	31	69
Service and sales workers	76.3	20.0	56.3	26	74
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers	15.0	9.4	5.6	63	37
Craft and related trades workers	93.6	80.7	12.9	86	14
Plant and machine operators and assemblers	83.0	58.5	24.6	70	30
Elementary occupations	68.4	28.4	40.0	42	58

Source: Labour Force Survey, 2003

### MEN AND WOMEN BY OCCUPATION, 2003 %



### Access to training

In the following tables depict access to formal educational training. The figures presented in them are taken from the Population Census of 2000. As it happens in many other countries, in Estonia women constitute the largest part of most of the schooling levels, except for the very highest levels which are dominated by men.

This is particularly true for doctoral degrees where women make up only around 30 per cent. Turning now to the presence of women as teachers in the educational system, again, this is one of the occupations where women have a much stronger presence than men except in the posts as special professors and assistant professors in higher education (16.1 and 35.6 per cent respectively) or senior researchers (only 33.4 per

cent). By contrast, women as kindergarten teachers make up almost 100 per cent. Finally, with respect to the training opportunities that women have in their places of work in Estonia, the Third European Survey on working conditions reveals that:

#### **Access to management and decision making posts in the working place**

There is also a lack of female managers (4 % vs. 96 % male) and high-ranking government officials. Many employees see the hiring of (young) females risky, since they might become pregnant. Many studies show that there are connections between a small salary, a women's self-esteem and (lack of) desire for a larger salary; the lower the salary, the lower the self-esteem and the smaller the desire for a better salary. The Open



## EDUCATION

## Population (over 10-year old) according to gender and level of education, 2000

Level of education <sup>1</sup>	Men	Women	Structure, %		Women's proportion %
			Men	Women	
I level: primary or basic education, or education level not known	238,467	253,651	42.6	37.9	51,5
II level: secondary education, vocational education and vocational secondary education after basic education	220,140	250,696	39.4	37.4	53,2
III level: vocational secondary education after secondary education	100,828	165,265	18	24.7	62,1
	34,863	74,381	6.2	11.1	68,1
higher education	62,801	88,780	11.2	13.3	58,6
master's level degree	1,222	1,213	0.2	0.2	49,8
doctoral level degree/degree of scientific candidate	1,942	891	0.3	0.1	31,5

1 - Estonian classification of educational levels.  
Source: Population Census 2000

## PERSONEL AT EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION BY SEX, 2003

Profession	Men	Women	Total	Proportion of women
<b>Kindergartens and general education schools</b>				
Kindergarten educators	25	7,769	7,794	99.7
General education school teachers	2,550	15,377	17,927	85.8
<b>Academic personnel</b>				
Professor	391	76	467	16.3
Special professor	52	10	62	16.1
Decent	438	242	680	35.6
Lecturer	467	579	1,046	55.4
Senior teacher and teacher	112	456	568	80.3
Assistant	151	267	418	63.9
Senior researcher	205	103	308	33.4
Researcher	213	244	457	53.4

Source: Statistical Office

**Labour Market and Entrepreneurship overcoming Gender Stereotypes**  
A Transnational Action Plan Promoted by Business Women  
and Gender Equality Organisations

Estonia Foundation finds that the growth in the number of females as business leaders or local leaders has very little community support.

At the same time, support for regulation of gender equality is very high. Over of those polled were willing to support various regulation methods.

Wage group	Total				Men				Women			
	1998	1999	2000	2001	1998	1999	2000	2001	1998	1999	2000	2001
4001-5000	12.1	12.9	12.8	13.1	12.9	12.6	12.0	12.5	11.3	13.1	13.6	11.7
5001-7000	11.7	14.4	16.4	17.8	14.0	16.3	17.8	18.5	9.5	12.7	15.1	17.1
7001-10000	6.3	8.0	9.3	11.7	8.3	10.4	11.6	13.8	4.3	5.9	7.1	9.6
10000<	4.3	5.9	7.0	9.3	6.6	9.0	10.3	13.1	2.0	2.9	4.0	5.6
Less than minimum wage	....	9.0	6.5	7.4	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....

**AVERAGE HOURLY WAGES OF MALE AND FEMALE WORKERS BY PROFESSION<sup>1</sup>, in**

October, EEK

Occupation	Average hourly wage								Women's wage of men's wage %	
	Men				Women				1995	2001
	1995	1998	2000	2001	1995	1998	2000	2001		
<b>Average hourly wage</b>	<b>16.3</b>	<b>25.9</b>	<b>31.5</b>	<b>34.1</b>	<b>11.9</b>	<b>19.2</b>	<b>23.8</b>	<b>25.8</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>76</b>
<b>Legislators, senior officials, managers</b>	<b>27.1</b>	<b>42.8</b>	<b>52.6</b>	<b>54.6</b>	<b>20.1</b>	<b>31.4</b>	<b>40.3</b>	<b>45.5</b>	<b>74</b>	<b>84</b>
<b>Professionals</b>	<b>21.4</b>	<b>35.5</b>	<b>46.8</b>	<b>47.4</b>	<b>16.3</b>	<b>28.5</b>	<b>33.3</b>	<b>35.2</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>74</b>
health care specialists	18.4	35.6	45.8	48.2	17.1	29.7	38.3	40.1	93	83
nursing and midwifery professionals	19.6	....	....	....	14.6	28.0	26.2	29.4	75	....
social work professionals	21.2	....	....	....	14.3	21.5	25.1	28.2	68	....
public service professionals	....	....	33.7	36.5	....	....	31.4	33.8	93	....
<b>Technicians and midlevel specialists</b>	<b>18.5</b>	<b>30.1</b>	<b>36.3</b>	<b>40.0</b>	<b>13.3</b>	<b>21.2</b>	<b>25.6</b>	<b>27.8</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>70</b>
associate healthcare professionals	10.9	20.9	23.2	26.6	10.4	18.8	21.5	22.5	95	85
nursing and midwifery associate professionals	10.8	....	23.6	26.1	10.4	21.0	24.0	25.2	96	97
work safety and quality inspectors	....	....	31.6	39.5	....	....	23.7	28.1	....	71
<b>Clerks</b>	<b>15.8</b>	<b>22.4</b>	<b>29.2</b>	<b>32.6</b>	<b>12.0</b>	<b>18.3</b>	<b>22.9</b>	<b>24.2</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>74</b>
<b>Service and sales workers</b>	<b>13.0</b>	<b>18.4</b>	<b>21.8</b>	<b>22.1</b>	<b>8.0</b>	<b>11.8</b>	<b>14.9</b>	<b>16.1</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>73</b>
care workers at medical institutions	7.02	12.22	14.1	19.0	6.72	11.22	12.8	14.8	96 <sup>2</sup>	78
<b>Skilled agricultural and fishery workers</b>	<b>10.1</b>	<b>13.0</b>	<b>19.0</b>	<b>18.5</b>	<b>7.9</b>	<b>11.8</b>	<b>14.9</b>	<b>16.9</b>	<b>78</b>	<b>92</b>
<b>Craft and trade workers</b> (excl. agriculture, fishing)	<b>15.7</b>	<b>23.1</b>	<b>24.6</b>	<b>27.7</b>	<b>12.1</b>	<b>17.7</b>	<b>20.7</b>	<b>21.6</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>78</b>
<b>Plant and machine operators</b>	<b>14.9</b>	<b>21.4</b>	<b>27.2</b>	<b>26.4</b>	<b>12.7</b>	<b>18.6</b>	<b>22.4</b>	<b>22.4</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>85</b>
<b>Unskilled labour</b>	<b>8.9</b>	<b>14.0</b>	<b>16.3</b>	<b>18.7</b>	<b>6.4</b>	<b>10.5</b>	<b>12.2</b>	<b>13.4</b>	<b>72</b>	<b>72</b>
production workers	11.3	19.8	20.9	25.0	10.5	17.1	18.9	20.2	93	81

1 - Both full-time and part-time workers. The main categories reflect the wages in general, as for the enterprises and organisations with less than 20 employees (excl. enterprises and institutions in state and municipal ownership), a method of sample survey was used. The subcategories reflect only enterprises in state and municipal ownership and other institutions and organisations with more than 19 employees.  
2 - Also in welfare institutions.

## Impact of tax and benefit system on women employees

Estonian social security is based on the principle of solidarity: pensions and health care are financed from social tax paid by all employers and the self-employed. The rate of social tax is 33 per cent of the gross payroll. The share of social tax allocated for pensions is 20 per cent and for health insurance 13 per cent.

## Reconciliation of work and family life

A woman is traditionally seen as the homemaker. Thus, in addition to her day job she performs majority of home chores. Studies show that 2/3 of women active in the labour market perform all of the home chores and only 22% of women share the chores equally with their partner. The public opinion is still conservative; subsequently there is much room for improvement in the sharing of home chores.

### *System of state benefits to families*

Families with children have many opportunities for financial support. There are five types of benefits: maternity benefit, parental benefit, universal family benefits, tax credits and holiday benefits. Local governments also play a role in supporting families with children according to the needs of families and the availability of resources. Many local governments make one-time childbirth support payments and also give gift packages to newborns.

### *Parental benefit*

According to Estonian labour laws both the mother and the father have the right to three years of parental leave. Normally it is the mother who takes the leave, but more and more fathers have started to take the parental leave they are entitled to. The father has the right to two weeks of paternity leave along with the mother during the pregnancy, birth period or within the two months following birth. Thus far, the state does not give significant monetary birth support. The Parent's Benefit Bill that took effect January 1, 2004 aims to increase Estonia's birth rate and to help in reconciling work and family life. It will help parents to cope with expenditures arising from a birth of a child by paying benefits to the parent that has taken parental leave. The amount of the payment is based on the parent's previous earnings, but is not less than 2 200 kroons (EUR 141) per month. The ceiling was set at three times the average 2002 salary or 15 740 kroons (EUR 1 003) per month. Fathers equally to mothers have a right to parental benefits beginning 6 months from the birth of the child.

### *Maternity benefit*

The maternity benefit is meant for working mothers and compensates 100% of the mother's previous wage up to 140 days prior and after childbirth. Mothers who have difficult childbirths or have a multiple birth are given an additional 14 days of maternity benefits. The maternity benefit is financed by the health insurance budget through the Estonian Health Insurance Fund.

### *Universal types of family benefits*

Family benefits are financed by the state budget. The Social Insurance Board through regional Pension Boards administers the family benefits. The State Family Benefits Act provides the classification of family benefits and the conditions and procedure of the benefits. The basis for calculation of family benefits, except the childcare benefit, is the child allowance rate. Childcare benefits are calculated on the basis of the childcare benefit rate. The State Budget Act establishes both rates every year. A new rate cannot be less than the rate in force. In 2004, child allowance rate was 150 EEK, childcare benefit rate was 1 200 EEK.

### *Family benefits in 2004*

The following table shows the family benefits that can be obtained in 2004 in Estonia. These types of benefits can support women entering and remaining in the labour market, but can have the contrary effect if they are linked to family instead of individual income, and in general if they are means-tested. The state pays family benefits for every child up to the age of 16 and for those continuing education up to the age of 19.

- > The birth grant, independent life grant and adoption allowance (since 2002) are lump-sum benefits;
- > The school allowance is paid once a year; benefits for families with triplets and with three or more children are quarterly;
- > Other family benefits are paid monthly.

In 2002, family benefits accounted for 1.4 billion kroons (90 million EUR) and 1.3 % of GDP. Thirty two % of residents of Estonia enjoyed family benefits in 2002.

### *Examples of family benefits*

A family has two parents and two children. One child is four years old and the other is a newborn. The mother will receive monthly parental benefit payments equal to last year's salary. The mother's net monthly salary was 5 200 EEK, the Estonian

TYPE OF BENEFIT	EEK / EUR
<b>BIRTH GRANT</b>	
> 1st child (incl multiple birth since year 2000)	3,750 / 240
> 2nd and subsequent children	3,000 / 192
<b>ADOPTION ALLOWANCE</b>	3,000 / 192
<b>CHILD ALLOWANCE</b> (Monthly, per child):	300 / 19.4
<b>CHILDCARE BENEFIT (PER MONTH)</b>	
> For a child aged between 1 and 3 years	600 / 38.3
> To families with more children under 3 years and to families with 3 or more children between 3 and 8 years	300 / 19
<b>ALLOWANCE FOR FAMILIES WITH 3 OR MORE CHILDREN</b> (per child quarterly)	150 / 9.6
<b>ALLOWANCE FOR FAMILIES WITH TRIPLETS</b> (per family quarterly)*	600 / 38.3
<b>SINGLE PARENT CHILD ALLOWANCE</b> (monthly)	300 / 19
<b>ALLOWANCE FOR A CHILD IN GUARDIANSHIP OR IN FOSTER CARE</b> (monthly)	900 / 160
<b>ALLOWANCE FOR THE CHILDREN OF MILITARY CONSCRIPTS</b> (monthly)	750 / 48
<b>SCHOOL ALLOWANCE</b> (at the beginning of the school year)	450 / 29
<b>INDEPENDENT LIFE GRANT**</b>	6 000 / 384

\* For families with triplets only. (In other cases the benefit amount equals to the number of children multiplied by the child benefit rate).

\*\* For orphan wards and for children without parental care raised in the schools for children with special needs.

average. The family will receive 300 EEK per child in child allowance, 300 EEK childcare benefit for the first child and 5 200 EEK parental benefit. The family will receive monthly family benefit payments of 6 100 EEK (390 EUR) per month. A family has two parents and two children.

One child is two years old and goes to nursery school. The other child is seven years old and goes to school. The family will receive 300 EEK per child in child allowances, 600 EEK childcare benefit for the first child, 300 EEK childcare benefit for the second. Total monthly family benefit payments of 1 500 EEK (97 EUR) per month. The family will also receive a one-time school allowance of 450 EEK (29 EUR) for the older child.

### **Tax credits for families**

Tax credits are another way in which the State can support family incomes in line with specific policies. In the case of Estonia, there are three tax credits available for parents or parental guardians.

> The first allows parents to deduct the education costs of dependents up to the age of 26 including the interest payments on student loans.

> The second deduction allows for one parent to increase their maximum tax-free income after the birth of additional children under the age of 17 beginning after the birth of the third child.

> Beginning in 2004, a young parent who has graduated from university or a vocational institution can apply for a partial state funding of student loans.

### **Family holiday benefits**

Holiday pay for additional holidays of minors, disabled persons and additional child care leave are also available to families. The following holidays are financed from the state budget:

> extended annual holidays (7 days) of minors and disabled persons (who are granted a pension for incapacity for work or the national pension on the basis of incapacity for work);

> one additional holiday (1 day) a month for the parent of a disabled child;

> additional child care leave for one parent (3 or 6 days, subject to the number of children);

> additional childcare leaves for fathers (14 days). A father has a right to be granted additional childcare leave during the pregnancy leave or maternity leave of the mother or within two months after the birth of the child.

The pay for the extended annual holiday up until 2000 depended on the employee's average daily wages. As of 2000, the holiday pay for a day of additional childcare leave is 66 EEK (4.2 EUR). The employers pay the family holiday benefits of their employees and are then compensated by the state.

### ***Paid breaks for breastfeeding***

A working mother raising a child under 1.5 years of age is entitled to additional breastfeeding breaks at least every three hours for duration of 30 minutes. These breaks may be added up and the working day reduced by the corresponding period of time. Payment of average wages for the additional breaks shall be supported by state budget funds.

### ***Pay-gap and working poor***

A clear inequality is reflected in the differences of wages and salaries. Men and women do not get an equal pay for equal and equivalent work. Women's lower salaries lead to lower pensions, which means that women have lower income during all their lives. The gap between the salaries is bigger in lately established companies.

There are three main reasons for the differences in salaries:

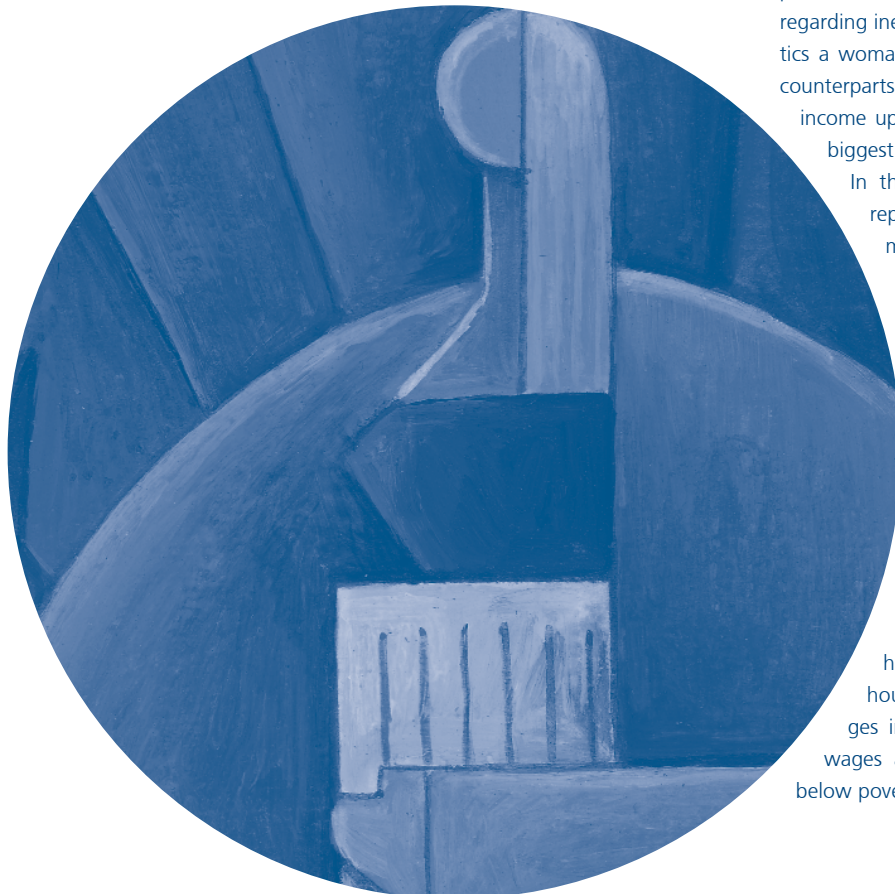
> Firstly, men and women work in different fields and the sectors where women work are paid and valued less.

> Secondly, it is harder for women to compete with men in their work place as men are promoted faster and higher and consequently they are paid better.

> Thirdly, obvious discrimination which means that women are often paid less even when their position, education, qualification are similar to their male colleagues.

Unlike men, women work more on temporary contracts or they have been unemployed for a long time and have withdrawn from the labour market. Social and economic marginalisation of women, especially single mothers is a very serious problem in Estonia. There has been intensive public debate regarding inequality in the labour market. According to statistics a woman earns approximately 75% of what their male counterparts earn. Sixty per cent of women have monthly net income up to 3,500 EEK, whereas only 41% of men. The biggest difference is notable in the higher income-group.

In the income bracket of over 5000 EEK, women represent 7% and men 19%. Thus are 2,7 times more men than women in the higher income group. Women depend three times more on their husband, than men do on their wives. The men spend more time at paid work compared to women, the women's unpaid contribution to household work is much higher than men's. The main reason for the difference in time use between genders lies in the traditional gender role model. The difference between income with household, the males or the females as the head of household has remained within 9-12 percent margin, meaning that in the recent years the income of the household with a female head is 220-330 EEK lower than the income of the household headed by a male. Due to positive changes in the Estonia economy (job creation, increased wages and pensions) the percentage of people living below poverty line has fallen remarkably.





## Stereotype of working women

Female employees are considered to be more costly because: women are more often absent from work; women are more often late for work; the movement of women is bigger as they change jobs more often than men.

All this leads to costs for employers. Furthermore, women go on maternity leave; women require hygienic conditions at work; women are not ready for unexpected situations, for working overtime etc.

## Issues for women entrepreneurs

As to the percentages of women as business owners: there is high uncertainty as to how many women are in business. Existing data does not provide reliable information reflecting reality. The majority of women as business owners are between 25-34 and 35-44 years of age. To start own business: in privatisation women were losers due to lack of savings, no investments, lack of experiences from private business, lack of experiences to be company managers, lack of self confidence.

### Why?

Unemployment and low paid workplaces motivates women to start their own business, due to their desire to help themselves

and support their family. Further they want to test themselves, to be somebody, to achieve to economic independence and social security. The problems women face as entrepreneurs are linked to gender stereotypes and traditional gender roles such as the woman's place, the woman's work, male breadwinner model, attitudes about success. Additional obstacles are caused by economic issues: successful enterprise gets profit and creates new workplaces, but they have to cope with low income, high taxes, no income support to entrepreneurs, low purchasing power of clients etc. Many women are self-employed. Many self-employed people pay only social tax-which does not provide them with sufficient compensation in case of sick leave or low pension is expected.

The following table shows the main data about entrepreneurship in Estonia:

Commercial register of Estonia 77,110 ,(total population 1,3 million ) 2001 year

Public limited company (AS)	7,733
Private limited company (OÜ)	46,936
Commercial association (ühistu)	921
General partnership (TÜ)	314
Limited partnership (UÜ)	569
Sole trader (FIE), self employed	20,287
Branch of foreign company	350

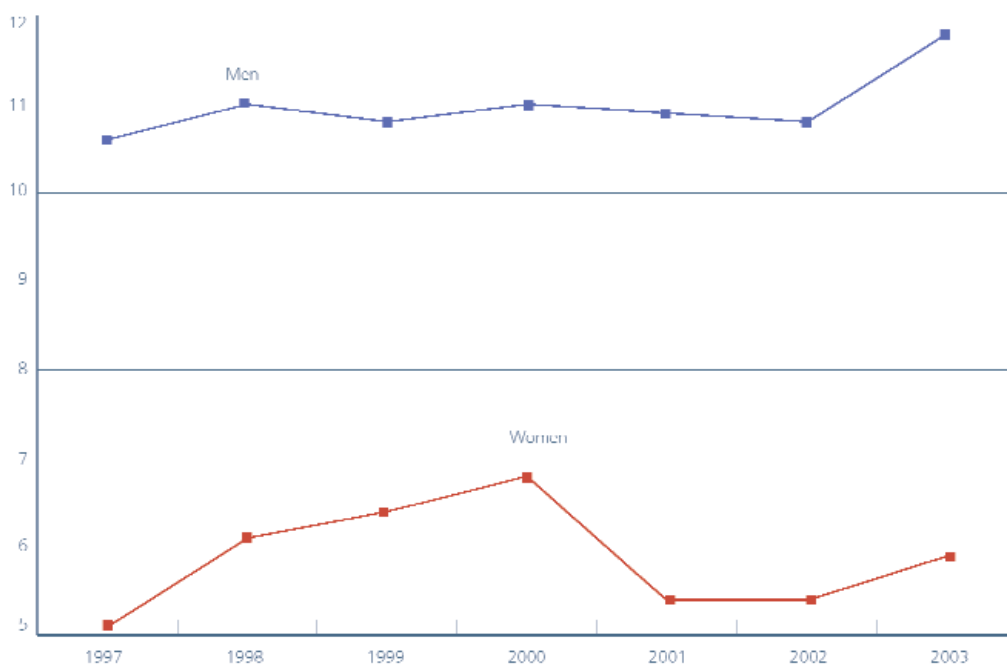
# Stereotype self employed/entrepreneurs

The business woman, according to public opinion, is self-centred and interested in power. She is knowledgeable, well-educated, takes care of her appearance, is interested only in her own well-being, i.e. the material side is important for her. She does not want to have a family (children), and when she does have it, it is only secondary in her life. She is not feminine; it is often thought that she is a feminist. She is popular neither among men nor women.

In the following table there are some figures on self employed persons in Estonia per county. As mentioned before, there are no figures on business women as such in administrative registers. This means that other data sources have to be looked at in order to know more about this group of women. According to the European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, in 2001 Estonia was among the countries with the highest percentage of managers in the EU10+2 region (12% compared to 6% in the region and 8% in EU15). In the following graph other data is offered from other data sources on self-employed women in Estonia is shown. In the first place, the evolution of self-employment

according to Eurostat data and presented in the yearly publication by the European Commission "Employment in Europe" is shown. The graph shows clearly that the level of women's self-employment has been around half of that of men during the period 1999-2003. Only in the years 1999 and 2000 did the gap begin to close and the last recorded level seems to be going in the same direction. It is also important to note that men's level of self-employment seems to be rather stable (except for the latest developments), while that of women seems to fluctuate. This can be due to the fact that women can have a higher propensity to engage in informal activities or be more willing to take up self-employment in order to maintain household income. This idea is reinforced by the fact that during the years that self-employment has risen substantially (in absolute terms from 15 to 19 thousand between 1997 and 2000) the activity rate, particularly among younger women, but also among prime age and older women, dropped, as well as the employment rate. This situation has particular implications for policies aimed at rising and strengthening entrepreneurial spirit, since the reasons for women entering self-employment are different than those for men.

Self- Employment in Estonia, 1997 - 2002



Country	Self-employed total	Self-employed men	Self-employed women
Tallinn	17,458	9,880	7,578
Harjumaa	5,085	3,129	1,956
Hiiumaa	1,049	699	350
Ida-Virumaa	5,095	2,899	2,195
Jõgevamaa	2,844	1,868	976
Järvamaa	2,487	1,563	924
Läänemaa	1,920	1,251	669
Lääne-Virumaa	3,986	2,527	1,459
Põlvamaa	1,981	1,305	676
Pärnumaa	5,768	3,661	2,107
Raplamaa	2,531	1,623	905
Saaremaa	3,270	1,956	1,314
Tartumaa	6,695	4,091	2,609
Valgamaa	2,004	1,253	751
Viljandimaa	3,665	2,336	1,329
Võrumaa	2,522	1,572	950
Estonia, total	68,360	41,613	26,747
		61%	39%

Source: Eurostat

# Case studies: Some Flexible Forms of Working Taking into Account Family Life

## ***A shortened week for fulltime employees: 4.5 days or less***

The mother of the 11/2 year-old boy called Rain is a coach. In order not to worry about her son who goes to elementary school, she comes home three hours earlier three times a week just to see how her son manages by himself. On two days a week it is possible for Rain to play in the playing area of her mother's company until his mother finishes work.

## ***Flexible working time (agreed on the number of working hours per week/month)***

Marge's (accountant) 73-year-old mother moved to live with her family as she could not manage to live in the countryside alone. When Marge's daughter is at school, she herself has to look after her mother and that is why she has agreed with her employer

that the number of working hours will be the same but instead of starting at 8 she will start at 12. When Marge gets a computer home, she can do part of her work at home without leaving her sick mother.

## ***Work by Contract***

Peeter (computer designer) decided to apply his knowledge to other employers too and so he decided to become self-employed. He concluded a service contract with his present employer which includes the description of the work, placing and fulfilment of orders and tariffs. All the taxes - the income, social, unemployment insurance and other taxes- must be paid by Peeter himself whereas he can deduct some of his expenses which are related to work.

## ***Transition from fulltime work to part-time work either temporarily or permanently at the employee's own will***

### ***Schemes of sharing work***

Kristi and Piret worked in the same department before the maternity leave. When the parent's allowance comes to an end, they both would like to work part-time because of the child. The employer offered them a possibility to share the working day by half a day. They both considered it a good offer as before sending their children to a kindergarten they can be in contact with their work and at the same time they can devote enough time to their children.

## ***Working from home***

Mart and Pille decided to move to the countryside when it came out that both of them could work and even attend meetings without leaving the computer they had at home. This new work organization forced the employer to create an internal computer-based communication environment, but reducing the office costs and the providing employees with greater job satisfaction convinced him of the advantages of working from home.



The following tables show the most recent homogenous statistics on the labour market in Estonia from 1991 and as compared to the EU (15 and 25). The analysis has been made throughout the report in the corresponding section above.

Key employment indicators for 2002	Estonia	ACC 10	EU 15	EU 25	Estonia	ACC 10	EU 15	EU 25	Estonia	ACC 10	EU 15	EU 25
	All				Men				Women			
Total population (000)	1,356	73920	375106	449639	624	35635	183501	219414	732	38286	191606	229891
Population aged 15-64	912	50,497	250,623	301,437	435	24,883	125,544	150,612	478	25,614	125,079	150694
Total employment (000)	584	28838	170415	199214	297	15723	97000	112739	287	13115	73415	86530
Employment rate (% population aged 15-64)	62	55,9	64.3	62.8	66.5	61.8	7	71.0	57.9	50.2	55.6	54.7
Employment rate (% population aged 15-24)	28.2	25.4	40.6	37.4	34.6	28.1	43.7	40.5	21.6	22.6	37.4	34.4
Employment rate (% population aged 25-54)	76.8	72.3	77.2	76.3	80.3	77.9	86.8	85.4	73.6	66.7	67.4	67.3
Employment rate (% population aged 55-64)	51.6	30.5	40.1	38.7	58.4	41.2	50.1	48.8	46.5	21.4	30.5	29.1
FTE employment rate (% population aged 15-64)	60.9	55.2	58.9	58.2	66.5	61.8	71.2	69.7	55.9	48.9	46.8	47.1
Self-employed (% total employment)	8.1	21.4	14.6	15.5	10.7	24.3	17.6	18.5	5.3	18.0	10.7	11.8
Part-time employment (% total employment)	7.7	8.0	18.1	16.7	4.8	5.9	6.5	6.5	10.7	10.4	33.5	30.0
Fixed term contracts (% total employment)	2.7	11.2	13.0	12.7	3.9	11.7	12.0	11.9	1.5	10.6	14.2	13.7
Employment in Services (% total employment)	62.0	55.3	71.0	68.7	49.8	44.9	60.5	58.3	74.4	67.6	84.2	81.7
Employment in Industry (% total employment)	31.2	31.7	25.0	26.0	40.7	40.9	34.7	35.6	21.4	20.7	12.7	13.9
Employment in Agriculture (% total employment)	6.9	13.0	4.1	5.4	9.5	14.2	4.8	6.1	4.2	11.7	3.1	4.4
Activity rate (% population aged 15-64)	69.3	65.8	69.7	69.0	74.6	72.3	78.4	77.3	64.4	59.5	60.9	60.7
Activity rate (% of population aged 15-24)	34.2	37.6	47.7	45.7	40.4	41.4	51.3	49.2	27.9	33.8	44.1	42.0
Activity rate (% of population aged 25-54)	85.4	83.1	82.8	82.9	90.1	88.8	92.4	91.8	81.0	77.4	73.2	73.9
Activity rate (% of population aged 55-64)	55.7	33.1	42.8	41.4	63.7	45.0	53.4	52.2	49.8	23.0	32.5	31.1
Total unemployment (000)	58	5,034	13,560	18,600	32	2,610	6,899	9,494	26	2,424	6,661	9,085
Unemployment rate (% labour force 15+)	9.1	14.8	7.7	8.8	9.8	14.2	6.9	8.1	8.4	15.6	8.7	9.9
Youth unemployment rate (% labour force 15-24)	17.7	31.9	15.1	17.9	14.2	31.4	14.8	17.6	22.9	32.7	15.5	18.5
Long term unemployment rate (% labour force)	4.8	8.1	3.0	3.9	5.7	7.4	2.6	3.4	3.8	8.9	3.6	4.5
Youth unemployment ratio (% population aged 15-24)	5.5	12.1	7.2	8.2	5.2	13.0	7.6	8.6	5.8	11.2	6.8	7.7

Source: Eurostat



## Key employment indicators Estonia

MALE	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total population (000)								639	632	629
Population aged 15-64								434	434	438
Total employment (000)							316	310	294	290
Population in employment aged 15-64								302	285	281
Employment rate (% population aged 15-64)								69.6	65.8	64.1
Employment rate (% population aged 15-24)								40.0	34.9	32.6
Employment rate (% population aged 25-54)								82.0	78.6	78.5
Employment rate (% population aged 55-64)								62.0	58.9	53.0
FTE employment rate (% population aged 15-64)							70.2	71.0	66.3	63.8
Self-employed (% total employment)							10.6	11.0	10.7	11.0
Part-time employment (% total employment)							8.7	5.9	5.9	5.1
Fixed term contracts (% total employment)							3.5	2.9	3.4	4.3
Employment in Services (% total employment)							47.7	47.4	49.1	47.0
Employment in Industry (% total employment)							40.3	41.0	40.6	13.6
Employment in Agriculture (% total employment)							12.0	11.6	10.3	9.5
Activity rate (% population aged 15-64)								79.0	76.8	75.8
Activity rate (% of population aged 15-24)								49.9	46.3	43.8
Activity rate (% of population aged 25-54)								92.0	90.5	91.3
Activity rate (% of population aged 55-64)								68.1	66.0	60.8
Total unemployment (000)						39	35	34	42	45
Unemployment rate (% labour force 15+)							10.3	9.9	12.5	13.4
Youth unemployment rate (% labour force 15-24)							18.9	16.7	21.9	23.0
Long term unemployment rate (% labour force)								4.4	5.5	6.4
Youth unemployment ratio (% population aged 15-24)								7.7	9.4	9.4

Source: Eurostat

## Key employment indicators Estonia

FEMALE	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000
Total population (000)								748	742	738
Population aged 15-64								480	480	479
Total employment (000)							303	297	286	282
Population in employment aged 15-64								290	278	272
Employment rate (% population aged 15-64)								60.3	57.8	56.8
Employment rate (% population aged 15-24)								32.0	26.0	24.0
Employment rate (% population aged 25-54)								75.9	74.8	73.6
Employment rate (% population aged 55-64)								41.6	39.2	38.6
FTE employment rate (% population aged 15-64)							59.5	59.6	57.3	55.7
Self-employed (% total employment)							5.0	6.0	6.4	6.8
Part-time employment (% total employment)							13.6	11.4	10.4	10.9
Fixed term contracts (% total employment)							1.8	1.3	1.6	1.6
Employment in Services (% total employment)							68.6	69.6	71.2	72.7
Employment in Industry (% total employment)							25.4	24.6	23.3	22.6
Employment in Agriculture (% total employment)							6.0	5.7	5.6	4.6
Activity rate (% population aged 15-64)								66.4	65.0	64.8
Activity rate (% of population aged 15-24)								36.3	32.5	31.2
Activity rate (% of population aged 25-54)								84.2	83.9	83.6
Activity rate (% of population aged 55-64)								43.1	40.9	41.0
Total unemployment (000)						30	29	27	32	37
Unemployment rate (% labour force 15+)							8.9	8.3	10.1	11.5
Youth unemployment rate (% labour force 15-24)							14.4	13.1	22.1	24.5
Long term unemployment rate (% labour force)								4.0	4.4	5.3
Youth unemployment ratio (% population aged 15-24)								4.3	6.7	7.2

Source: Eurostat

