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inequality with and for Future generaTions

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Summary

- In accordance with the 'Methodological Guidance and Work Plan' for WP2 of the UPLIFT project, this report examines the scales and dimensions of inequality which are affecting the young population within the functional urban area (FUA) of Tallinn, Estonia. National and local dynamics are analysed to discover how the drivers of socio-economic inequality tend to operate within this context which is mediated by policy interventions, with the process including an overview of how policymakers and stakeholders serve to conceptualise and respond to the inherent challenges. This corresponds to the meso-level analysis in the UPLIFT project, specifically between the macro-level analysis of inequality drivers (the focus of WP1) and the micro-level analysis of individual behaviour and strategy (the focus of WP3).
- The analysis is based on statistical data, desk research, and interviews with eight key stakeholders at the local and regional level.
- The report provides an analysis of the main socio-economic trends and policies in four domains which have influenced youth inequalities: education, employment, housing, and social protection, across the years between 2000-2021.
- Our findings show that national policies have the strongest area of influence within the domain of education and employment. Local policies have also had a strong level of influence within the domain of education, but these often compete with national policies (such as a change of the language of instruction in Russian-language schools). Based on the results and on links between inequalities within different domains, we propose that, out of all of the domains which have been analysed, the domain of education has a larger potential when it comes to reducing youth inequalities.
- Within the domain of education, the core form of youth inequalities in the Tallinn FUA runs along the ethnic divide. Information regarding school attendance levels, study results, and higher-obtained education level refers to evident inequalities between Estonians and Estonian-Russians (Estonian-speakers and Russian-speakers). Ethnic inequalities are targeted by policies which aim to improve the situation for young people who use Russian as a mother tongue when it comes to their Estonian language skills, in order to improve their chances of being able to enter into higher education and hence their labour market prospects.
- Within the domain of employment, the core form of youth inequalities in the Tallinn FUA runs along both ethnic and gender dimensions. Estonia has the largest horizontal and vertical gender segregation levels in the European Union, as well as the largest gender wage gap. Youth unemployment is pretty well covered by national policies, but we judge that ethnic inequalities are insufficiently addressed by current policy programmes. One of the core priorities should be to lower barriers for Russian-Estonian youths so that they can more easily enter the labour market.

- Within the domain of housing the core form of youth inequalities in the Tallinn FUA runs along ethnic and family background dimensions, with these being related to the lower income of young people and less opportunities for Russian speakers. The fifteen to twenty-nine year-old cohort is in a more difficult situation than other age groups in the housing market. They earn less and do not have the start-up capital required for buying market-priced housing in a situation in which property prices tend to rise at a much faster pace than income levels. The result is that approximately one quarter of young people have not entered the housing market by the time they are aged thirty. Our analysis also shows that the domain of housing is characterised by weak policy regulations. Until the 2000s, the state had almost withdrawn from housing policy and the housing market operated on market economy principles. Today, the domain of housing needs stronger policies in order to tackle inequalities, such as increasing the share of public housing and increasing the role of the (public) rental market.

Introduction

This report examines the scales and dimensions of inequality which affect young people in the functional urban area (FUA) of Tallinn, in Estonia. According to the Estonian legal system, young people are defined as being between seven and twenty-six years of age. Our purpose is to understand how the drivers of socio-economic inequality tend to operate in this local context, as well as the role being played by policy interventions in terms of aggravating or reducing the impact on the urban youth of various areas of inequality. Therefore, particular attention is paid to room in which local policies can take action, and the manner in which policymakers and stakeholders can conceptualise and respond to the existing challenges. This corresponds to the meso-level analysis in the UPLIFT project, between the macro-level analysis of inequality drivers (the focus of WP1) and the micro-level analysis of individual behaviour and strategy (the focus of WP3).¹

Special attention was given to studies which scrutinise the patterns and structures of inequality which tends to affect youngsters in the Tallinn FUA, and policies which serve to influence urban inequality, since 2008 and the advent of the economic and financial crisis. The UPLIFT project takes a retrospective view so that it can provide an analysis of the main socio-economic trends and policies in three domains which have influenced youth inequalities: education, employment, and housing, particularly between the years 2000-2021.

Three core research questions are proposed here:

1. Which are the main socio-economic processes and policies at the national and local (FUA) level which serve to influence inequality?
2. How have they evolved during and after the financial crisis and the subsequent recovery?
3. How have they influenced (in)equality?

Building on previous deliverables for the UPLIFT project, this report expands data collection and analysis by bringing in additional desk research and interviewees. Desk research was conducted between February and September 2021 using the qualitative content analysis method which was applied to gather information about processes and policies which directly or indirectly influence youth inequality. Various local and national plans, academic literature, and surveys composed the main source for the desk research area. Additionally, eight interviews were conducted between August and September 2021,² accessing national and

¹ The specific guidelines for the reports on the sixteen FUAs which are under study within the UPLIFT project can be found in the WP2 'Methodological Guidance and Work Plan'. As has been established in that document, this report draws upon results from four tasks with the project, these being: Task 1.3, covering national policies and economic drivers for inequality; Task 2.1, being a statistical analysis of inequality at the local level; Task 2.2, being an analysis of the main socio-economic processes and local policies which serve to influence inequality during and after the financial crisis and the subsequent recovery; and Task 2.3, which takes a look at innovative post-crisis policies.

² Four interviews were conducted with male policymakers, and four with females.

local scale policymakers who were working in institutions which held responsibility for the creation of policies which would affect the younger generation. Four interviews were conducted with national level policymakers (at the ministry level), and four more interviews were conducted with local municipality-level policymakers. The interviews were conducted online, with these being recorded, transcribed, and analysed using the qualitative content analysis method. The analysis was supplemented by data analysis (the data is provided in the annexes) for 2007, 2012, and 2018. Data for most of the indicators was taken from Estonian Social Survey (ESS). In addition, Statistics Estonia open data was used.³ The Covid-19 pandemic did not result in the imposition of any major limits when it came to gathering the data.

The report starts with a generic description of the FUA, highlighting key local characteristics in the study area. This is followed by a presentation of the main trends at the national and local levels, based on an analysis of policy documents, statistics, and interviews. The next two chapters provide an overview of national and local policy directions which affect youth inequality. Thereafter, one case is examined which involves an innovative policy. Finally, the main findings are presented.

³ <http://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/dialog/statfile1.asp>.

1 General description of Tallinn Functional Urban Area

Sixteen functional urban areas (FUAs) across Europe are studied within the UPLIFT project, at the meso-level of analysis. As explained by Dijkstra et al (2019), the FUA concept goes beyond aspects of population size and density to consider in addition the functional and economic extent of cities. Therefore, the Tallinn FUA includes the city of Tallinn in itself (the 'city'), as well as areas around the city which are closely linked to it from a functional point of view (the 'commuting zone'). Within the definition of the Tallinn FUA, we followed the administrative borders of Harju County (Figure 1), as most studies which have been referred to in this report have used local government unit-level data and county-level data. Due to the fact that neither the counties nor the regions have the administrative management in Estonia, the present report balances between central government (the ministries) and local government authorities which autonomously manage local affairs based on the independence which is provided to them through their tax income. The functions of a local authority include the organisation of the provision of social services and social assistance, the granting of social benefits, the provision of welfare services, housing, and utilities, along with cultural, sports-related, and youth work, the organisation of the maintenance of pre-school child care facilities, basic schools, secondary schools, hobby schools, libraries, community centres, museums, sports facilities, shelters, care homes, and some healthcare institutions. Duties may be imposed upon local government authorities only where they are pursuant to applicable legal areas and legal acts. Ministries prepare the drafts for legal acts, compose sectoral development plans, and supervise local government authorities.

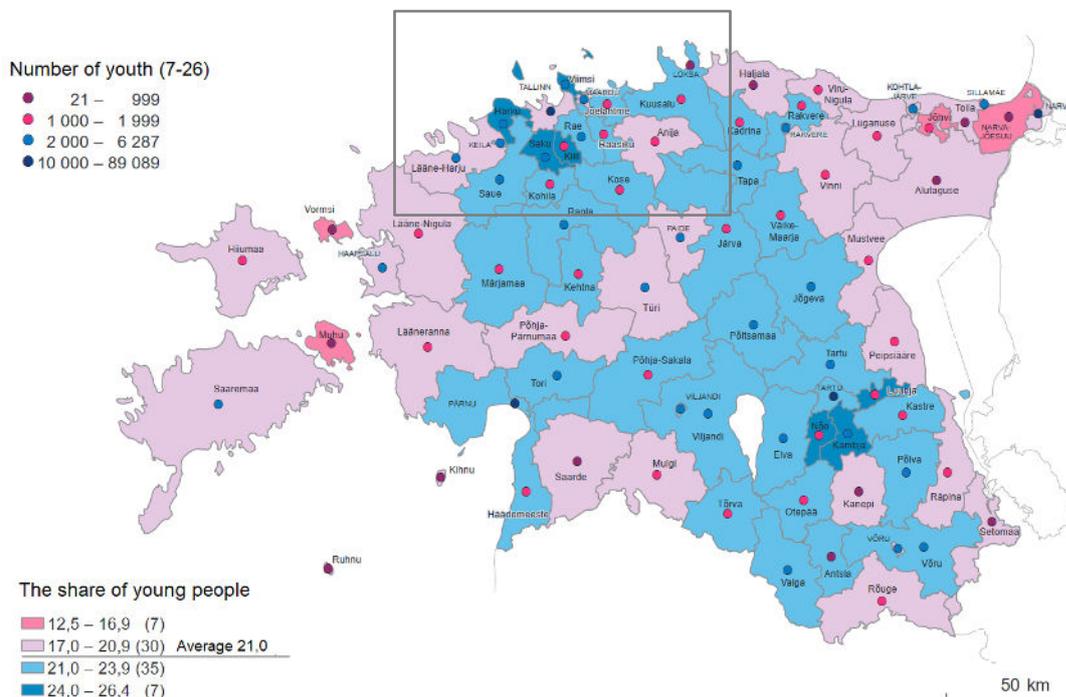
Figure 1. A map of the Tallinn FUA



As the capital of Estonia, Tallinn registered a population of 437,619 in 2020. Harju County largely overlaps the Tallinn metropolitan area (the area around the capital city from where at least 30% of the working population commutes daily into central Tallinn), and had a population of 167,410 in 2020 when the capital’s inhabitants were excluded from the calculations. This means that, in 2021, nearly half of the Estonian population (605,019 people) lives in the Tallinn FUA, which itself forms only about one tenth of the total land area of Estonia (4,327km²). Throughout the period of this study, the Tallinn FUA has experienced a decent population growth: in 2008 the population was at 522,147.

At the beginning of 2018 there were about 276,800 young people aged between seven and twenty-six who were living in Estonia (Telpt et al, 2018). In Tallinn, young people amounted to a total figure of about 89,000. The share of young people in the total population is higher in the suburban rural municipalities of the Tallinn FUA (Figure 2). According to the 2018 data, the largest share of young people aged between seven and twenty-six was to be found in the Kiili municipality (at 26.4%), and in Saku municipality (at 25.2%). These are also two municipalities in which the share of young people is at its highest across the whole of Estonia.

Figure 2. The population of young people (aged between seven and twenty-six) in Estonia



Source: Telpt et al, 2018

As of 2018, about 68% of the Estonian population was made up of ethnic Estonians, while 25% were Russians,⁴ and slightly over 5% were of other nationalities (Telpt et al, 2018). In the age cohort between the ages of seven and twenty-six, Estonians made up about 75% of the total, Russians 21%, and people of other nationalities about 3%. This shows that there are more young Estonians than there are Russians in the seven-to-twenty-six age category.

The population of the Tallinn FUA is multi-ethnic in nature. In Tallinn, a total of 52% of the population is formed of Estonians, 38% of Russians, and 10% of Ukrainians, Belarussians, Finns, Jews, Tatars, and other nations (Tallinn Development Plan 2014-2020). The majority of migrants moved to Estonia during the Soviet occupation, and they tend to speak the Russian language.

This report uses Russian-speakers or Estonian Russians as an umbrella term to define this large section of minorities who speak Russian. In the city of Tallinn, the proportion of two language groups is roughly equal. The share of recent migrants, people who have arrived after 1991, is very low, and a large number of those also speak Russian (people who originally arrived from Ukraine and other former Soviet Union countries). In this report, we use language to refer to the distinctive differences between Estonian-speakers and Russian-speakers (with the latter including ethnic Russians, Ukrainians, Belarussians, etc), with regard to inequality in education, employment, and housing. Due to loyalty amongst Russian-speaking voters in local elections, since 2015 Tallinn has been governed by the Central Party which also ensures it addresses Russian-speaking voters, offering them public benefits such as increasing their pensions and providing better support for young families.

The migration trends show an increasing population figure for the Tallinn FUA. For example, about 3,200 people moved into the FUA in 2017, of which roughly half moved to the city of Tallinn and the half to the suburbs, while only 180 people moved to the rural areas around the Tallinn FUA. In the age group between seven and twenty-six, the main trend in the Tallinn FUA - and also Estonia as a whole - is to move to the city of Tallinn.

⁴ Estonian-Russians (both Estonian-born and not Estonian-born) as they defined themselves in the national census.

2 Findings

2.1 Education

2.1.1 National and local trends influencing inequalities in education

In this section we first provide a short overview of the influences which have been seen in the education system in the past, comparing those to the present situation. Secondly, we define the main areas of attention which are needed when it comes to placing an emphasis on youth inequality. Thirdly, we provide an overview of the main trends with respect to youth inequality within the domain of education.

The Estonian education system has largely been influenced by the country's Soviet-dominated past. Ethnic inequality has been a long-standing issue since the massive waves of in-migration into Estonia during the Soviet occupation period between 1944 and 1991. That immigration influx served to guarantee employees for industry. In order to respond the in-migration process and to the increase in the Russian-speaking population, more and more Russian-speaking schools had to be opened at the levels of preschool, primary, and secondary education. Estonian and Russian language schools were for the most part separated. The obtaining of a higher education in the Estonian language was maintained, partially also because the Russian-speaking population which had originated in other countries from around the Soviet Union mainly found its jobs in the manufacturing sector, and there were less students in universities who spoke Russian as their mother tongue.

Despite equal access to education being set out as a fundamental principle, social background (the status of the parents and the geographical location of their home) largely determined one's prospects of acquiring an education: it mainly determined whether young people entered secondary school or vocational secondary school. In general, the children of white-collar parents attended secondary school and the children of industrial workers attended secondary vocational education (Estonica, 2021). Such a difference - with Estonian-speakers holding specialist jobs and Russian-speakers working mainly in industry - functioned as a mechanism for the reproduction of specialists and the working class, and provided the basis for workplace and income segregation between the two main language groups. Since that period, this has served as the main area of socio-economic inequality between Estonian language-speakers and Russian language-speakers.

In 1992, a year after Estonia gained its independence, the new education law was adopted. This followed democratic principles, involving liberation from the ideological control of the past whilst creating opportunities for private educational institutions (OECD, 2001). According to this, local government authorities (municipalities and cities) now had control over regulating pre-school childcare facilities, and primary and secondary schools. In 2010, the 'Basic Schools and Upper Secondary Schools Act' was adopted which stipulated the establishment of state-owned high schools. This marks the date upon which the trend

towards state control and the maintenance of secondary education was officially declared. The idea behind the act was to cut the costs of providing the school network and to create state high schools instead of municipality-owned high schools which often suffered from a shortage of students in rural areas. The second aim was to provide higher quality education in local municipality schools. However, an evaluation report on the existing general education system (Praxis, 2019) shows that the establishment of state high schools has not significantly improved the availability or quality of school education (which is measured throughout international tests), while the reorganisation of the school network has even shown a negative impact on basic schools (which had their high school provision closed down), and has not brought about any significant economic savings.

The latest influential change which affected the acquisition of child education was the transition to free higher education in 2013. This caused a rapid increase of students who were intent on obtaining a higher education, and also improved accessibility to higher education (Kori & Pedaste, 2021). At the same time, the rapid increase in students who were intent on obtaining a higher education has led to a decline in the standards of educational results, as the act of abolishing the qualification exams when it comes to gaining entrance to universities (Lifelong Learning Strategy 2020). International tests have shown that the results being gained by our young people when they have completed a higher education tend to rank only as an average score (Lifelong Learning Strategy 2020).

Secondly, our analysis of policy documents and surveys in the field of education points to the core areas of attention which are required in the Estonian education system with respect to inequality. The Lifelong Learning Strategy 2020 which was the main policy document for the post-crisis years (2010-2020) states these areas as follows:

- drop-out rates (especially amongst men) are high at all levels and types of education;
- attitudes in society tend to guide learners to choose male and female specialities which increases gender segregation in the labour market;
- the network of upper secondary schools does not provide for any consideration of the large decrease in the number of students; small upper secondary schools will not be able to provide diverse and high-quality learning opportunities;
- the transition to free higher education has led to a decline in the average results being shown by university students;
- basic schools which use Russian as the language of instruction do not provide good Estonian language skills, and student basic skills are lower by the end of basic school than they are for schools which have Estonian as their language of instruction.

The newest policy document, the 'Estonian education strategy 2021-2035', states that some goals - especially those which are related to Russian language schools, demographic challenges, and gender differences - are not being met. It particularly stresses that attention also be paid to students who have disabilities:

- there is no comprehensive solution for students who have special needs, such as with disabilities; existing support systems are not effective enough to ensure their access to education.

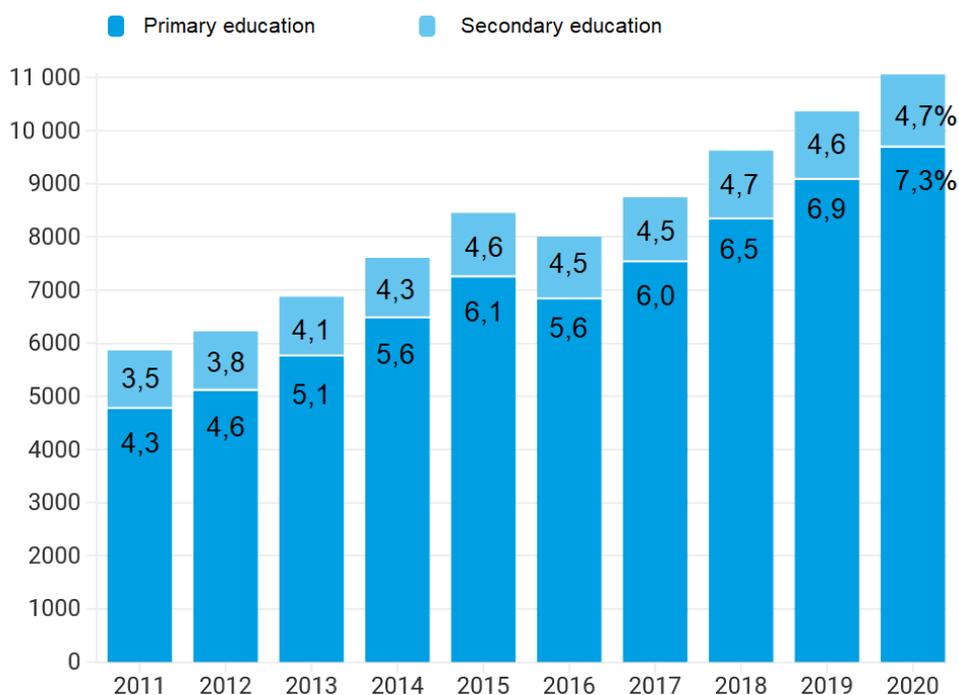
Thirdly, our analysis of policies and surveys within the field of education highlights the main trends in education which tend to provide an impact upon youth inequality. These are demographic trends, showing a growing divide between high-reputation schools and low-reputation schools, between urban and rural schools, and between public and private schools; along with differences also between gender and ethnic segmentations in education.

The problem of an aging population and declining birth rates serve as the most highly-influencing long-term demographic trends in Estonia. Due to the demographic situation, the number of students in upper-secondary schools and higher education is decreasing. Compared to the 2005/2006 academic year, in 2010/2011 the number of students who were studying in seventh to ninth grade has decreased by 34%, while the number of high school students has fallen by 30% (Estonian education strategy 2021-2035). The decrease has not taken place equally: rural schools and municipal low-reputation schools have witnessed a greater decrease of students. When compared to the national scale, the Tallinn FUA holds a better position in terms of demographic trends: the number of students is showing an increase for the Tallinn FUA, but mainly within the suburbs which lie alongside the central city region and where a higher share of children can be observed who are between the ages of seven and fifteen ('Assessment of the need for kindergarten and school places in the city of Tallinn for 2018-2040'). However, the number of children who are in kindergarten and of school age in the city of Tallinn has decreased. This is due to the fact that a large proportion of families with young children tend to move into new suburban housing areas.

The growing divide between high-reputation and low-reputation schools, urban and rural schools, and public and private schools has increased due to ongoing trends in demographics, migration, and growing income disparities in Estonia and in the area of the capital city. The Lifelong Learning Strategy (2020) states that the major trend which serves to influence the number of students in Estonia is the growth of municipality schools near Tallinn and Tartu (see also Figure 2), a process which has been fuelled by the ongoing process of the accumulation of wealth towards these two major cities and in their continued suburbanisation in terms of functional areas. A population forecast for the city of Tallinn between 2011-2030 has shown that, during a period of rapid economic growth, the more successful and educated higher-income families tended to move into the suburbs, or into some of the more prestigious neighbourhoods, and also into Tallinn's city centre. The out-migration from the city of Tallinn into suburbs has been compensated by inwards migration from other counties into Tallinn, with most of those newer arrivals being the residents of affordable housing which is located in Lasnamäe and Mustamäe. Long-term school attendance records reveal the polarisation of educational preferences: large urban schools, both public and private, are expanding, and the number of students in rural schools is decreasing (Praxis, 2019). There are more children who visit city centre schools with better

reputations instead of their local schools. At the same time, the number of students who are attending private schools has increased, approximately doubling the previous figure (Figure 3).

Figure 3. The number of students who are in private schools in Estonia, and the percentage of students who are attending private schools out of the total number of students



Source: Ministry of Education and Research

The lower quality of rural schools and low-reputation schools tends to force parents to choose a more distant school when it comes to educating their children (Interview 2). Commuting statistics show that in Tallinn, a third of children do not attend kindergartens in their own home district, while a third of children who are of basic school age commute to school in another district, and two thirds of the total number of students who are of upper secondary school age actually commute to school in another district ('Assessment of the need for kindergartens and schools in Tallinn for 2018-2040').

Gender and ethnic segmentations in education have also been evident since the Soviet period. In general, the rate of young people who attend high school or vocational school is high in Estonia. In the 2017/2018 study year, about 85% of youths who were aged seventeen were actively studying (Telpt et al, 2018). However, records show that in comparison with other European countries, the school dropout rate of males is high across all levels and types of education (Lifelong Learning Strategy 2020). The dropout rate for male students who are

attending basic school (Grades 1-9) can amount to twice that of female students (Interview 1). The 'Estonian education strategy 2021-2035' declares that the lower results being obtained by male students in basic school is not due to differences in ability but to their motivation to study at all, and attitudes towards learning in general. The over-representation of females who are studying is at its highest at the university level: for example, between the ages of twenty and twenty-one the proportion of female students is more than 10% higher than comparable figures for male students (Telpt et al, 2018).

Ethnic segregation in the Tallinn FUA can be found in terms of the separation of Estonian and Russian language schools. Students of Russian-language schools (which form about a quarter of the total population of young people) find it difficult to acquire subjects in Estonian, which in turn can affect their learning outcomes. According to the satisfaction survey of target groups in Tallinn municipal schools (2016), a total of 65% of students find that learning in Estonian is difficult, and difficulties exist when it comes to understanding subject content and achieving good results in the subject. According to the survey report which was entitled 'Graduates and their career choices' (2012), studying in the Estonian language creates a great deal of difficulty for almost 30% of Russian-speaking students, and is something which ends up being manageable for only 10% of students in Russian schools. About one third of Russian high school graduates want to study abroad. In comparison, only 7% of Estonian-speaking high school graduates want to study abroad (ibid, 2012).

During the recent Covid-19 crisis all educational institutions except kindergartens were closed between March and May 2020, and again from February to May 2021. The readiness to switch to distance learning was actually pretty high in Estonia due to the use of digital platforms, including eSchool (introduced in 2002), and the online school management service which was already in use by 85% of schools (OECD, 2020). Results from the 'Children's Advisory Panel' survey indicated that ten to eighteen year-old students in Estonia had an above-average level of satisfaction with home learning when they were compared to the other seven countries which were participating in the survey (OECD, 2020).

2.1.2 National policies influencing inequalities in education

In this section we provide an overview of the main national policies in the field of education, policies which have had a substantial effect on youth inequality. The field of education is related to many of the national level policy documents (Table 2 in the annexes). In general, Estonian education policies pay a great deal of attention to establishing support at all school levels (such as in terms of study counselling, psychological counselling, counselling parents and teachers, or youth career guidance). Minorities and students who have special needs are targeted in order to guarantee their access to learning and support systems. The main policies which are provided through the core strategic documents involve school network reform, a shift of language of instruction in Russian-language schools, and digitalisation.

School network reform is the most influential national level policy instrument throughout the period which is being studied. The 'General education system development plan for 2007-

2013', which stipulated the main objectives during the economic crisis period, had already highlighted the significant reduction in the number of upper secondary schools, and the separation of basic school and upper secondary school levels, as one of the main priorities in order to respond to the decreasing number of students and the geographical variations being presented by this problem across urban and rural municipalities. The reform dictates that secondary education is gradually shifted so that it comes under state responsibility, by establishing state secondary schools and closing down municipal schools.

The shift of language when it comes to providing instruction in Russian-language schools, from Russian to Estonian, is also the main national-level guided policy which influences youth inequality in education. In Russian-language municipal upper secondary schools, the transition to Estonian as the dominant language of instruction is a process which began in the 2007/2008 academic year. Since 2011, the 'General education system development plan for 2007-2013' has stipulated that, in the first year at an upper secondary Russian-language school, at least 60% of subjects have to be taught in Estonian. The evaluation of outcomes which have been generated by the transition to the Estonian language of instruction in Russian-language schools shows that it has provided impressive results (as measured through national exam results and opinion polls), and has served to bring Russian-speaking students up to the level of Estonian-speaking students (Sau-Ek et al, 2011).

In the post-crisis period (2010 onwards), one of the goals of educational policy strategies has been to increase the use of modern forms of digital technology in learning and teaching, and to improve the digital skills of participants. This has supported the preparation of digital study materials, bringing these into use, along with the development of an e-school platform in communications between the teacher, students, and parent, and has supported children who are in need of material support so that they are fully able to use a computer at home (Lifelong Learning Strategy 2020). An early start in digital learning may have been a success factor in terms of smoother the transition to distant learning during the Covid-19 crisis.

Finally, we analyse the expected and realised impact of national level policies. The imbalances which exist between Estonian and Russian schools are continuously being rewarded with attention. Nevertheless, as has also been pointed out in the latest strategy for 2021-2035, this issue has not been substantially changed: Russian-language school students still reveal lower performance levels when they are measured against study results and national exams. In addition, available records show that gender differences in education have not decreased (Estonian education strategy 2021-2035).

2.1.3 Local policies influencing inequalities in education

Several policies and initiatives have been developed at the local level to reduce inequality in education (Table 3 in the annexes). Tallinn's 'Basic and Secondary Education Development Plan 2009-2014' dealt with the main principles behind the education policy and stated the main shortcomings in terms of local education which need attention. With respect to youth inequality, these are as follows:

- the shortage of teachers and support staff at different levels of education provision;
- unequal teaching quality between schools;
- low levels of cooperation between parents and teachers;
- low levels of integration of the children of new immigrants, and no regulation of their Estonian language studies;
- low Estonian language skill levels of the staff in Russian-language schools.

In general, local education policies try to respond to the national school network reform in order to provide education only at the primary level. The 'Tallinn Municipal School Network Reorganisation Plan 2013-2021' stipulates the main principles of reorganisation for primary and secondary school in order to meet the changing numbers of students. As there is no defined deadline for closing down secondary school classes in municipal schools, the plan only stipulates changes in three schools.

The shift in the language of instruction in Russian-language schools - from Russian to Estonian - is the second core policy direction which was also initiated by state policies. The 'Tallinn Municipal School Network Reorganisation Plan 2013-2021' stated that Estonian-language education is guaranteed at secondary education level in Russian-language schools. In reality, the change has been much slower and has not been implemented in all schools (Interview 2).

Finally, we analyse the expected and realised impact of local policies. The Tallinn school reorganisation plan has been widely criticised as an attempt to slow down the transition from municipal to state high schools. As was explained by interviewees, the ability to implement reform takes time, and the process of reforming the municipality's school network within the given timeframe is something which cannot be achieved.

2.2 Employment

2.2.1 National and local trends influencing inequalities in employment

Between 1999 and 2017, employment figures across Estonia increased to their highest extent in the Tallinn FUA (involving 67,800 persons), where a large degree of Estonia's technological progress is taking place and much of the country's innovation is being created. Young people are for the most part employed in the sectors of: 1) wholesale, retail trade, transport, accommodation, and food services; 2) manufacturing; 3) scientific and educational activities; and 4) information and communications.

The Tallinn FUA is also the area which has seen the fastest rise in salaries and living standards. Estonia in general has rapidly reduced the gap in wages with western and Northern Europe. However, despite the trend since 2000s towards a decrease in unemployment rates, there remain some risk groups which suffer a higher-than-average unemployment rate. The benefits of a booming economy have not reached these people. According to the 'Estonian Labour Force Survey 2017', such risk groups include young people aged between 15-24 (who

had an unemployment rate of 13.1% in 2015), people with disabilities (11%), people with insufficient Estonian language skills (10.8%), and people without a professional education (9.3%). In this section we provide a short overview of the main trends and labour market conditions with respect to youth inequality in the domain of employment, with these being given in order of appearance: 1) the rapid rise of living standards and increasing income inequality; and 2) gender segregation in employment.

Firstly, the rapid rise of living standards has co-evolved alongside increasing income inequality and socio-economic segregation. In the period between 2000-2006, Estonia's economic growth was the fastest out of the European Union countries, at an average of about 8% a year, and reaching close to 10% in 2006 ('Estonian Action Plan for Economic Growth and Employment 2005-2007'). In addition, incomes increased rapidly. For example, in 2007 the average gross salary increased by 20.4%. The Tallinn FUA, which is the most economically active region in Estonia, also had the highest employment rates for the year 2017, at 74.2% (Piirits, 2018). For comparison, this was twenty percentage points higher than the figures for Ida-Viru County (53.9%), where the majority of inhabitants are Russian-language speakers.

The labour market position for immigrants and Estonian-Russians tends to be worse than it does for ethnic Estonians. Available income data (see Table 21 in the annexes) presents those ethnic differences. According to the Estonian integration monitoring study of 2015, only one out of three respondents who were of non-Estonian ethnic origin (these mainly being Estonian-Russians) tends to perceive their opportunities of being able to get a good job in the private sector to be equal to those of Estonians (Saar & Helemäe, 2017). At the same time, one out of every two Estonians holds the opinion that their opportunities are healthy in terms of being able to get a good job in the private sector.

Young people form the second group towards which attention should be paid. In 2017, the average gross monthly income in Estonia was 1,155 euros (in the Tallinn FUA this figure was at 1,283 euros; Telpt et al, 2018). For those employees who were aged up to twenty-six years, however, their gross income was 249 euros lower, at 906 euros per month (Telpt et al, 2018). Young people in general tend to have short-term work contracts, lower workloads, and less experience. In 2016, the relative poverty rate (covering those who earned less than 468 euros a month) was at 21.0% of the country's total population (Telpt et al, 2018). Approximately 15% of households with children were shown as living in relative poverty (Telpt et al, 2018).

Youth inequality has followed alongside the cycles of economic development. The 2008-2010 crisis involved as its main risk groups young people, people who had a disability or incapacity for work, people with insufficient Estonian language skills, and people without a professional education (Saar & Helemäe, 2017). The sharp increase in unemployment rates also increased ethnic inequality in the employment field during the years of the crisis. When compared to the average unemployment rate of 16.7% in 2010, the unemployment rate for Estonian-Russian men increased to a record 27%, and amongst Estonian-Russian women this was 22%

(Saar & Helemäe, 2017). The unemployment rate for youths (aged between 15-24) increased from a figure of 12% of 2008 to a hefty 33% by 2010 ('Estonian Youth Guarantee Implementation Plan', 2014). The unemployment rate amongst 15-24-year-old Estonian-Russians rose to 43% in 2010. In 2014, the level of unemployment in general amongst young people decreased almost to its pre-crisis level, falling to 15%, a figure which was lower than the European Union average of 22.2%, but was twice as high as the general level of unemployment in Estonia (7.4% in 2015; 'Welfare Development Plan 2016-2023').

The Covid-19 crisis has served to affected the Estonian economy since March 2020. In the second quarter of 2020, the unemployment rate increased by two percentage points from 5.1% to 7.1% when compared with the same period in 2019 (Marksoo, 2020). The Covid-19 crisis, however, affected the economy in different ways. The number of employed people decreased at its most dramatic levels in the tertiary sector (with 24,100 people losing their jobs in the tertiary sector). Unemployment rates for young people (aged between 15-24) increased significantly in the second quarter of 2020, from 14.1% to 18.4%, with the second figure being the highest record in this area since 2013 (Marksoo, 2020). Unemployment rates for non-Estonians increased from 6.7% to 8.8%, but this followed the same proportions of change as for Estonians (Marksoo, 2020). The Covid-19 crisis especially affected youths, plus Estonian Russians and women, because activities in which these groups are often employed were hit the hardest (including accommodation, catering, tourism, trade, entertainment, and leisure activities, plus culture, transport; see Rosenblad et al, 2020).

Secondly, Estonia has the largest horizontal and vertical gender segregation in the European Union, and also the largest gender wage gap. According to the data for 2013, the horizontal gender segregation rate (the concentration of men and women in various sectors) for employed persons was 37.4% in Estonia ('Welfare Development Plan 2016-2023'), and that figure has remained more or less stable, being at 37.0% in 2019 (proposal for the preparation of the 'Welfare Development Plan 2023-2030'). The vertical gender segregation rate (the concentration of men and women in various occupations) was at 40% in 2013, and has decreased to 34.6%. The hourly wage gap between men and women was 25.4% in 2005 (EC Report on equality between men and women, 2008).⁵ According to the latest data in 2019 this figure was still at 17.1%. As a result of high gender segregation levels, in 2017 the average monthly gross income in Estonia was 1,305 euros for men and 1,019 euros for women. The average monthly gross income for men who were aged twenty-six and below was 1,002 euros, while for women within the same age group was 806 euros.

Gender segregation in the labour market largely depends upon the impact of gender stereotypes on the educational, vocational, and professional choices of men and women. On one hand, Estonian women widely work in professions which are considered important but which are not very highly rewarded, such as the social, healthcare, and educational domains

⁵ Within the EU, the average gender wage gap was at 15% in 2005.

(Kallaste et al, 2010). On the other hand, the results of a study on the gender wage gap (Kallaste et al, 2010) show that there is no single dominant factor which tends to affect the wage gap in Estonia. That wage gap is formed within the conjunction of a number of factors, such as women's career pauses, personnel practices in the workplace, and social segregation in education and in the labour market, as well as attitudes, norms, and values which exist in society.

2.2.2 National policies influencing inequalities in employment

In this section, we provide an overview of the main national policy targets which have been identified through the analysis of policy documents (Table 4 in the annexes), along with interviews with national level policymakers. National level policies mainly aim to increase people's self-sufficiency levels and their social and professional activity. The main targets include raising employment rates, and decreasing the gender segregation and gender wage gap.

Being able to raise employment rates is the main goal of the Estonian labour market policy ('Welfare Development Plan 2016-2023', 'Proposal for the preparation of the Welfare Development Plan 2023-2030'). The plan for the years 2009-2012 paid attention to the long-term unemployed and problems which related to inactive people. According to data of 2006, there were 40,500 unemployed people in Estonia, of whom 19,500 were long-term unemployed. The plan stipulated the application of measures in order to activate people who came from inactive groups, especially the disabled, the elderly, and those who were taking care of family members (as well as students). In 2016 working ability reforms were made law in order to increase the participation of inactive groups in the labour market. This mainly involved changes in the assessment of working capacity in order to support pensioners and people of working age who had reduced levels of working capacity, by helping them to find and remain in work with the services being provided on the labour market. A recent survey by Piirits (2018) shows that the number of people aged between 15-74 who were involved in the labour market has been on an upward trend for over a decade. In addition, the number of working students has increased from 40% to 53% (Piirits, 2018).

Decreasing gender segregation and the gender wage gap has been one of the main policy directions in terms of employment policies, and mainly during the post-crisis period. The 'Development Plan for the Ministry of Social Affairs 2009-2012' aimed to decrease the gender payment gap from 25.4% in 2006 to 23% in 2012. The plan contended that the gender gap in terms of the employment of parents who have children aged six years and below needs to be dealt with, as women largely remain at home and men mainly go to work. The year 2006 marked a point at which a change in direction was triggered, offering men an increased opportunity to be able to take paternity leave and take their share in caring for children during the first three years of life. As a result, Estonia has become a country which has additional support measures in place when it comes to supporting men being able to take

paternal leave. Both mothers and fathers now have the right to take parental leave until their child turns three years old.

Finally, we briefly analyse the expected and realised impact of those policies which have been laid out in national-level policy documents. A recent survey by Piirits (2018) shows that, although decreasing high gender segregation and the gender wage gap have been policy objectives for quite a long period, there are still significant differences in labour market indicators with respect to gender and Russian-language speakers. In 2017, the employment rate for Estonians was at 69.6%, while it was at 63% for Russian-speakers.

2.2.3 Local policies influencing inequalities in employment

The main employment policies are drawn up and implemented at the national level, with local municipalities rather tending to deal with the elaboration and implementation of social work policies, with particular attention also being paid to youth employment. This is also reflected in the abundance of local public policy programmes (Table 5 in the annexes). The key target groups which have been categorised in Tallinn's employment policies include youth employment and the long-term unemployed ('Tallinn Development Plan 2014-2020'), although policies which are dedicated towards the latter group actually tend to dominate.

Tallinn differs from other local government authorities in Estonia by means of its crisis reactions in terms of employment policies. In plans which were forced into action during the years of the economic crisis years, mitigation of the effects of that crisis was the priority policy target. As a response to the 2008-2010 crisis, the city of Tallinn implemented two aid packages for unemployed inhabitants and local businesses. The first aid package, which was initiated in spring 2009, provided aid to about 3,000 people who became unemployed. The second aid package focused on alleviating the situation for more than 20,000 registered unemployed people and more than 40,000 de facto unemployed people. Short-term mitigation measures included wage subsidies, the creation of social jobs, and social assistance. The measure which covered social jobs involved the employment of unemployed persons in the maintenance of parks and in cleaning pavements. Especially targeted towards unemployed youths, the city of Tallinn has organised several job fairs between 2009-2012.

The current 'Tallinn Development Plan 2018-2023' confirms young people as a target group for measures which serve to subsidise start-up entrepreneurs. Subsidies are being combined with the implementation of lifelong learning principles for retraining in order to ensure adaptation to the changing economic environment and the compliance of qualifications with the current market demand towards increasing smart-based and technology-based development (Interview 4). Youth entrepreneurship support is also one of those objectives which are being targeted within the field of youth work.

2.3. Housing

2.3.1 National and local trends influencing inequalities in housing

In the first part of this section, we provide a short overview of the specific nature of the Estonian housing market and its main characteristics. A total of 70.5% of Estonians live in apartment buildings, while 19.5% occupy single-family houses and terraced houses, and 10% live in farmhouses ('Estonian Housing Development Plan 2008-2013'). In Tallinn, about 80% of people live in apartment buildings (Kährik & Väiko, 2019). The relatively large share of apartment buildings is due to the large-scale construction activities which took place between the 1950s and 1990s, when the majority of this form of housing stock was built. At that time, large housing estates were built on the outskirts of the city centre, and most of the Russian-speaking immigrants were accommodated there, in dwellings built in the Soviet period (Hess & Tammaru, 2019). Nowadays, ethnic Estonians who have a higher income have more opportunities and options when it comes to being able to move to single-family housing or apartments in other districts, while Estonian-Russians stay on in those large housing estates (Mägi et al, 2016). Additionally, the Soviet legacy of dominating apartment housing may be one of the reasons for suburbanisation having rapidly received a substantial and increasing role in Estonian settlement structures, mainly because the provision of single-family houses remained underdeveloped for about fifty years (Roose, 2019).

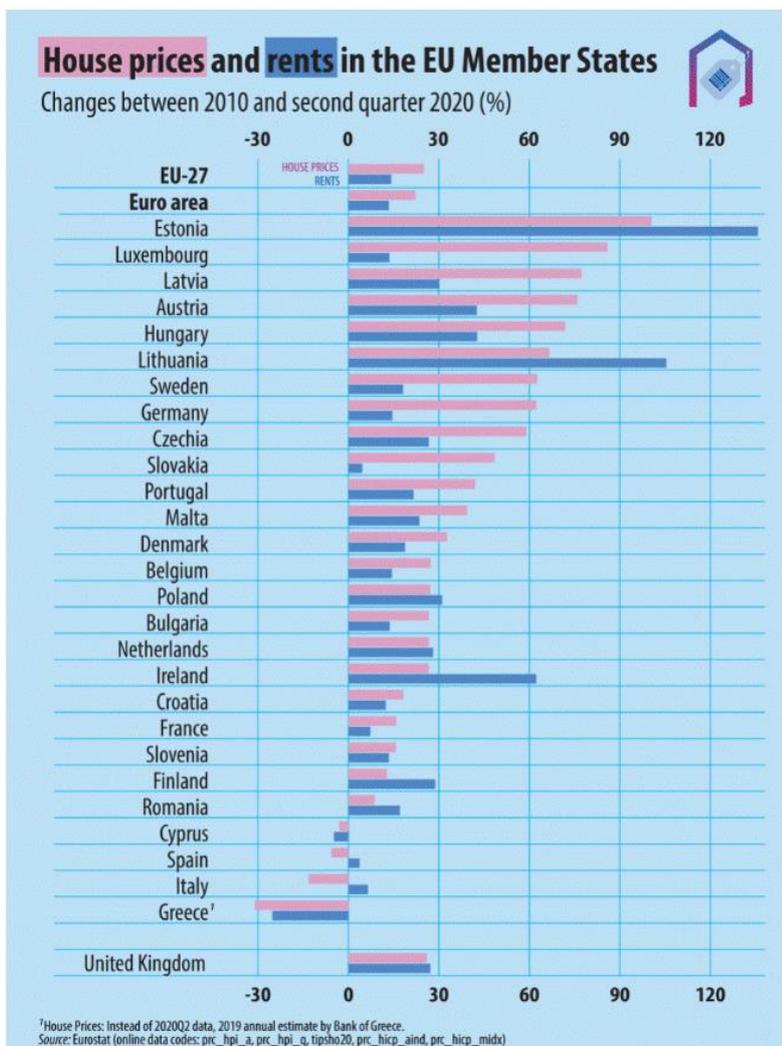
In the 1990s, Estonia implemented thorough reforms, moving heavily towards the implementation of a neoliberal housing market (Tammaru et al, 2016a). Soviet-era public housing tenants became private owners of their homes without any charge (Kährik, 2000; Lux, Kährik & Sunega, 2012). The share of public housing dropped from 61% in 1992 to 4% by 2000 (Kährik, et al, 2003). This owner-occupied housing constitutes about 80% of the country's total housing stock (Hess & Tammaru, 2019), while the share of the private rental market is about 15% (Kährik & Väiko, 2019). The total share of tenants is at its largest in the capital of Tallinn, approximately amounting to 22% (Kährik & Väiko, 2019). With the reforms having been enacted, the public sector has only a minimal opportunity to be able to directly influence housing provision. The only direct measure which can be applied is the provision of affordable rental dwellings (referred to in Estonia as social or municipal housing), but this forms about 1% of the total housing stock in Estonia, and 2% of the total housing stock in Tallinn.

In the second part of this section, we pay attention to the main trends in housing: the rapid rise of housing prices and the impact of that on inequality (such as limited access for young people to the housing market), or on the housing deficit and the poor condition of housing, as well as increasing spatial segregation.

Firstly, Estonia is the country which has the fastest growing property prices in the European Union (Figure 4). Property prices here are growing faster than incomes. The largest price increase has taken place in Tallinn and Tartu. A higher income provides an opportunity to live

in a refurbished or new-built housing area, while people who have a lower income cannot often afford to improve their living conditions.

Figure 4. Housing prices and rents in the EU member states



eurostat

Source: Eurostat

The present limited access for young people to the housing market is a factor which is related to rapid price increases. The 15-29 age cohort is in a more difficult situation than other age groups in the housing market. The policy of restitution in the 1990s turned older age groups into property owners free of charge. Today's young generation is the first generation to have to buy or lease their own homes amidst the turbulent rise of property prices (Kährrik, et al, 2003). Young people whose parents support their children financially or who help by providing their own property as collateral for their children's loan, are in better

position.⁶ In this way, inequality is passed down from generation to generation, because young people depend upon the wealth of their parents (and the location of their parents' home in the case of using collateral as security). The result is often that more than one generation have to occupy the same dwelling when young people have limited opportunities to be able to enter onto the housing market (Kährik, et al, 2003). Approximately one quarter of young people have not entered onto the housing market by the time they are thirty years old (Kährik, et al, 2003).

Young people in the early stages of their housing career and those who cannot buy their own home depend upon the rental market. The rental market relies highly on demand and supply. The rental market in Estonia is dominated by the private sector and is not stable: prices are rising fast, contracts are drawn up so that they can be cancelled at any time, and there is no current stability in rental prices (Kährik & Väiko, 2019). For this reason, the rental market is also highly dependent upon economic cycles in the form of economic booms and busts (Interview 5). For young adults who are entering onto the rental housing market, even in the case of them possessing an average monthly income, housing costs are high for them because the number of cheaper apartments which are available to rent is limited. In the Tallinn FUA, cheaper apartments can be found in the panel housing estates and towns which lie on the edges of Tallinn FUA (Mägi et al, 2016).

The housing deficit and the poor condition of housing forms the second main factor which serves to influence young people in the Tallinn FUA. Estonia has an oversupply of housing in rural areas and a deficit in the FUAs of Tallinn and Tartu (Kährik & Väiko, 2019). The Tallinn FUA currently has about half as much housing per person as the more developed European countries (Kährik & Väiko, 2019). The other side of the coin is the condition of that housing. With the rise of living standards and income, the demand for better quality housing increases ('Tallinn Development Plan 2004-2012'). Only approximately 10% of the Estonian population lives in dwellings which have been built later than 1991 ('Energy Management Plan to 2030'). Within the Tallinn FUA this figure is higher due to a large proportion of new housing in the country having been built there, in Tallinn. Every fifth family lives in a dwelling in Tallinn which was built after 1991, and every third family in Estonia lives in the remainder of the Tallinn FUA (Kährik & Väiko, 2019).

A large share of the city's housing was built between the 1950s and 1990s, during the Soviet period of occupation. Such housing can be found in Mustamäe and Lasnamäe, and also to a lesser extent in all districts of Tallinn and the larger towns in the Tallinn FUA. With respect to the age and lifespan of these buildings, a full refurbishment is inevitably required in the near future (Ahas et al, 2019). In many cases, full retrofitting which includes insulation, ventilation, and heating is not carried out and the private

⁶ Collateral is a property or other asset which a borrower offers as a way for a lender to secure a loan.

owners can afford only to paint their rooms and do any necessary sanitary works (Ahas et al, 2019).

Thirdly, growing income differences and differences in living conditions in new and old housing also tends to increase spatial segregation. The price of housing is typically influenced by its location. Property prices in the Tallinn FUA are lower in old and Soviet-era dwellings, but higher in new-built housing (Kährrik & Väiko, 2019). Historically, Estonian Russians form the main group to be found living in large panel housing estates in Tallinn (such as Lasnamäe) and industrial towns across the Tallinn FUA, such as Maardu and Loksa. For example, the number of ethnic Estonians form only 30% of the total population in Lasnamäe, a paltry 19.4% in Maardu, and only 30.5% in Loksa. Also, only very few Russian-speakers have moved to areas which host Estonian-speakers, and most of their moves have resulted in them selecting an area which has an increased presence of other Russian-speakers, notably to panel housing estates such as Lasnamäe, smaller industrial towns such as Maardu, or to those rural settlements in which summer homes for urban families were built during the Soviet years (Mägi et al, 2016).

These ethnic patterns in migration also reveal that spatial migration between these two groups tends to increase. In 2019, one-tenth of the Estonian population lived in the suburbs (Roose, 2019), and it is estimated that approximately 70% of suburban dwellers are Estonians (Interview 5). A typical suburban resident is between the ages of thirty and forty-nine, and is often of family-forming age (Leetmaa & Tammaru, 2007). For the Tallinn FUA, suburbanisation has reached its most intense levels in the rural municipalities of Viimsi, Rae, Harku, and Kiili, but it is also high in Saue, Saku, and Jõelähtme (Roose, 2019). Suburbanisation also did not decrease following the 2008-2010 credit crisis. Once the fall-out from that economic crisis had settled in the 2010s, newly-built homes again became the most popular form of dwelling ('Tallinn Development Plan 2004-2012'). Suburbanisation increases spatial segregation as a large proportion of suburban homes are newly-built, which means that they can only be bought by people who are in upper income groups and who are for the most part ethnic Estonians (Interview 5).

2.3.2 National policies influencing inequalities in housing

Until the 2000s, the state had almost entirely withdrawn from operating any housing policy, with the housing market operating under market economy principles (Kährrik & Väiko, 2019). Post-2000s policies have also included new measures which have been aimed at improving the quality of the housing stock and developing the rental housing market.

In general, the scope of the national housing policy is aimed at forming the legal basis and main policy directions in regional, employment, and social welfare policies. According to the Estonian constitution and the 'Local Government Organisation Act', the domain of housing is the responsibility of local government authorities. It is the local government authority (whether that of a city or a municipality) which defines those groups who need support in

terms of housing, while also financing and organising the construction and maintenance of social housing.

Estonian national housing policy emphasises the improvement of the availability of housing, and the process of modernising housing ('National Development Plan for the Energy Sector to 2030'). The target groups being supported by the 'Estonian National Housing Development Plan 2008-2013' are young specialists, young families with children, and young people who are without parental care, along with people with disabilities, the elderly, families with large numbers of children, homeless people, people who have not been able to privatise their dwelling, and students. The Estonian state-level housing policy (Table 6 in the annexes) emphasises the process of improving access to housing and the modernisation of energy efficiency levels as the main targets for housing ('National Development Plan for the Energy Sector to 2030'). Low-income households can receive subsistence benefits which cover housing maintenance costs and utility expenses. The 'Estonian Housing Development Plan 2008-2013' states that the demand for social housing is much higher than local municipalities have provided. Therefore, the task of increasing the share of social housing has been one of the key targets for national housing policy since 2006 ('Estonian Housing Development Plan 2008-2013').

The measure which has been implemented for the longest period of time has been Kredex programme, which supports owner-occupancy for young families in which the parents are aged up to thirty-five years ('Estonian National Housing Development Plan 2008-2013'). This is a programme which offers support to local municipalities when it comes to building social housing, or to private apartment associations so that they can refurbish homes, or even to young people who are entering the housing market by offering them additional loan guarantees. Low-income households whose income after paying housing costs falls below the subsistence level also receive state financial aid (Kährik & Väiko, 2019). Furthermore, Kredex offers refurbishment grants for use with apartment buildings and private houses. An analysis of the Kredex programme shows that refurbishment grants help to improve living conditions, but these are used unevenly across regions with most going to the FUAs of Tallinn and Tartu (Lihtmaa et al, 2018).

2.3.3 Local policies influencing inequalities in housing

For the most part this section pays attention to social housing, as this is the main local level measure which has been used to tackle inequality in housing. Social housing in the Tallinn FUA is in general municipality-owned. The share of non-governmental organisations or public-private partnership projects which provide social housing is almost zero. Social housing units were formed in 1991, when Estonia gained its independence, and most of the new social housing was built in the 2000s and 2010s. Since 2000, a local municipality can also apply for state subsidies which are provided by Kredex in order to finance the construction of social housing. In general, about 80% of costs will be covered by the local municipality's own budget ('Estonian National Housing Development Plan 2008-2013').

The share of municipal housing is still small, but it has increased. In 2000, there were 2,680 persons who were living in social housing in Estonia, but by 2006 the share of municipal housing had grown to cover approximately 4,000 persons, of which 1,400 lived in Tallinn ('Estonian Housing Development Plan 2008-2013'). The city of Tallinn has implemented two social housing programmes which were state financed to the tune of about 25%. The first of these was Tallinn's municipal housing programme, '5,000 dwellings in Tallinn', which targeted tenants and those who required immediate accommodation.⁷ The second of Tallinn's municipal housing programmes targeted young families and municipal employees of the city of Tallinn (such as teachers). As a result, the city of Tallinn owns a municipal housing stock which amounts to 4,200 dwellings, of which about 3,500 are habitable. Nevertheless, this makes up only about 2% of the total housing stock in the city ('Tallinn Development Plan 2004-2012'). The new social housing is mainly located in the districts of Lasnamäe and Northern Tallinn, and consists of apartment buildings which are of between five to fifteen storeys in height (Kährik & Väiko, 2019).

2.4 Social protection

Cross-domain approaches in the field of youth inequality were selected as our additional area of analysis because the main dimensions of youth inequality which were identified by the desk research and by interviews – such as gender and ethnic differences – were persistent from one domain to another. Therefore, the analysis served to identify the fact that inequality in three separate domains is indeed closely related, and that a more integrated policy response is needed.

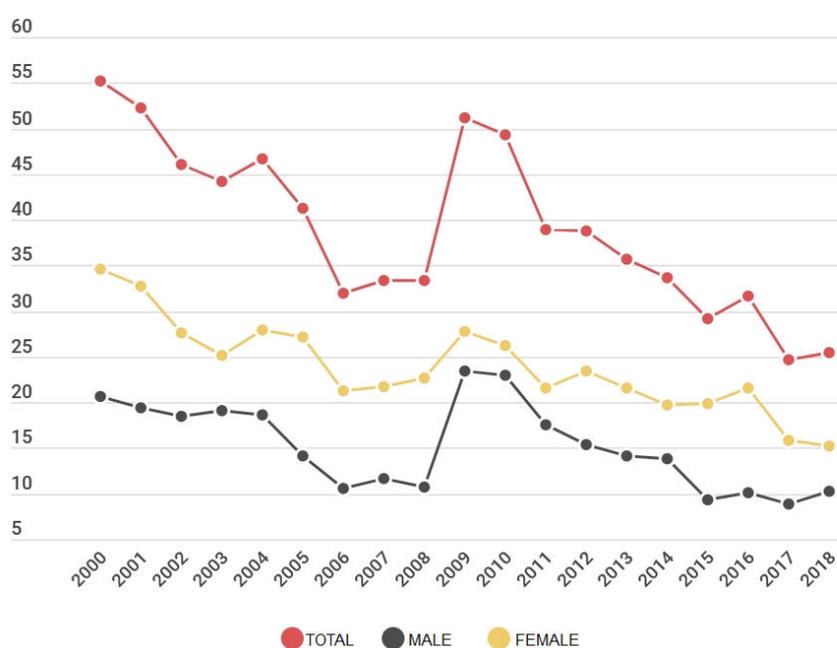
The results from the statistical analysis revealed that the number of people who are at risk of descending into poverty within the Tallinn FUA has risen faster than in Estonia in general, whereas the risk for the 15-29 age group of falling into poverty has been increasing since 2007 (Table 21 in the annexes). The risk of falling into poverty is also higher in groups of non-Estonian-speakers and renters in the housing market. At the same time, only a very few of those who are at risk of falling into poverty tend to receive any social allowances. This fact refers to the great number of young people who are studying and using parental support and other forms of coping without claiming any social allowances. However, there are young people who are neither in employment nor in education (NEETs), and who still do not apply for social protection. The policies which target the NEET young also represent the cross-domain view on youth inequality in Estonia.

Youth policy in Estonia is organised as a cross-sectorial, multi-stakeholder, and multi-governance-level field, one which involves ministries and municipalities, as well as youth representatives, youth organisations, youth workers, youth researchers, and youth policymakers. The roles and functions of each stakeholder are described in the 'Estonian

⁷ The tenants in question were people who were living in refurbished housing but who were not able to purchase their dwelling (in Estonian this is referred to as 'sundüürnikud').

Youth Work Act' (2010), according to which the Ministry of Education and Research is responsible for the preparation and monitoring of the national level programmes for youth work, turning local youth associations into financially-viable organisations, and providing administrative supervision in the field of youth work. Municipalities determine the priorities for youth work, and consult with and support the youth programmes and youth projects of youth associations. The youth associations themselves implement social protection at the local level.

Figure 5. The number of NEET young over the years 2000-2018 (in thousands).⁸



Several policies have been targeted largely towards NEET youths. The 'Youth Field Development Plan 2014-2020' aims to increase youth involvement and employment readiness when providing employment through voluntary and paid work experience for the young people cohort and NEET youths. This goal is targeted by key policy interventions: the 'Estonian Youth Guarantee' and the 'Youth Prop-Up' programme. The 'Estonian Youth Guarantee' intends to help young people who are under the age of twenty-five to return to work when they become unemployed by providing individual and group counselling services, job-related training services, a job search workshop, and job practice (in cooperation with the 'Estonian Unemployment Insurance Fund'). The 'Youth Prop-Up' programme (2015-2021) is being implemented by the Estonian Open Youth Centre Association, and is part of the 'Estonian Youth Guarantee National Action Plan'. The activities are aimed at identifying NEET youths, establishing a trusting level of contact, developing their practical knowledge and skills, facilitating their entry into the labour market, and keeping in regular contact with the

⁸ Source: <https://novaator.err.ee/954100/noored-kes-ei-opi-ega-toota-soltuvad-eesi-regionaalpoliitikat>.

participants for at least six months after their exit from the programme, in order to provide follow-up support and assistance where it may be required.

An analysis of plain statistics reveals a total decrease of NEET young people over the years 2000-2018 (Figure 5). The statistics also confirm success in reaching the defined goals. During the credit crisis, the proportion of NEET young people out of the total population remained high. In 2014, a quarter of young people and 11.7% of the total population were defined as NEET young ('Welfare Development Plan 2016-2023'). At the end of 2017, one-fifth of young people were neither employed or registered as students (Telpt et al, 2018).

This marks a trend towards a decreasing number of NEET young, from 25% to 20% of young people over the years between 2014 and 2018. However, the statistical analysis shows that gender representation has not changed in terms of NEET youths. This is partially related to the fact that young mothers tend to stay at home with their children much more frequently than do the fathers, but it also reflects the general trend of gender segregation in the Estonian labour market.

3 Innovative post-crisis policies

Introducing the ‘nudge’ theory as a new method of national level policymaking by the Ministry of Social Affairs

With respect to innovative policies, we present a new approach which applies softer social work methods which themselves are based on the nudge theory. At this very moment this is being tested in the Ministry of Social Affairs. The first tests for this method have not particularly been targeted towards young people, but they have been seen by interviewees as something which will be used for this target group in the future.

The ‘nudge’ theory is a concept in behavioural sciences which assists in gaining positive incentives without prohibiting or reducing freedom of choice. It aims to create a stimulus,⁹ one which guides a person or social groups towards more socially-beneficial behaviour. The policy is deductive, as it layers over the theory being applied in social sciences (see also Thaler & Sunstein, 2008). A nudge will be provided in a situation in which change is needed, but ordinary policies which are based on prohibitions are not possible or effective here. Nudge theory has been applied in short scientific projects in order to test the efficiency of various softer measures regarding how later to address socio-economic issues at the employment policy level.

Table 1. The main characteristics of nudge method implementation.

Timeframe	Since 2021 (one nudge project lasts about one year)
Actors involved	Ministry of Social Affairs Universities and research institutions which are eligible to conduct a scientific survey
Funding	From the ministry budget (usually between 50,000 to 100,000 euros)
Monitoring mechanisms	Selected by the applicant and confirmed by the ministry (methods differ)

The first nudge project was targeted in May 2021 to make better use of paternity leave and its benefits. It was addressed towards gender segregation in the labour market and the issue of there already being new opportunities for taking longer spells of paternity leave but with

⁹ A nudge means a light touch or push.

these not frequently being used. Since 1 July 2020, paternity leave has been extended to thirty calendar days instead of the previous ten working days, and the Social Insurance Board has begun to pay the father's additional parental benefit. Fathers can go on leave from the thirtieth calendar day before the expected date of birth of the child, and can access their benefits until the child reaches the age of three. Paternity leave can be used in several parts. Despite this, since 1 July 2020 only 4,415 fathers have made use of the benefit, which totals about 60% of all fathers ('Paternity leave and benefit payment nudge project', 2020). A one-off project aimed to study why fathers were not making full use of the opportunity for supplementary parental benefit, while also being intended to develop and test interventions which could persuade as many fathers as possible to make use of father's supplementary parental leave:

This is a scientific and flexible approach which identifies what factors should be changed or done differently in order to make paternity leave more accessible. It first studies the reasons for young people not taking paternity leave. Then researchers can create potential nudges which try to remove obstacles in order to help more people to use this service. The next step is to carry out a valuation of the nudges. The project will test two reference groups to see what differences may have emerged between the group for which a nudge has been applied and the group which has not received any intervention at all. As a result, a level of understanding will be constructed in regard to potential obstacles to taking paternity leave, while also providing ideas about the necessity for potential interventions and supplying an assessment of their effectiveness.

Public sector official

The project will end in May 2022, resulting in a comprehensive report which will make it possible to test the potential of such a method in terms of it being used permanently in employment policy.

In June 2021 the Ministry of Social Affairs announced a second nudge project which was aimed at developing and testing interventions which are intended to support applications for a job by long-term unemployment benefit recipients before the end of the benefit period. Both projects have only recently been launched and as yet there are no final reports or results available. However, using the nudge approach in the identification of methods and testing future potential policy measures marks a development in national level social policies towards a more flexible on-demand notion.

4 Discussion and conclusions

This report examined the scales and dimensions of those areas of inequality which tend to affect young people in the Tallinn functional urban area (FUA). The aim was to provide an analysis of the main socio-economic trends and policies in the life domains of education, employment, and housing over the years 2000-2021, when two major-impact international crises affected the lives of young people.

We proposed three core research questions:

1. Which are the main socio-economic processes and policies at the national and local (FUA) level which serve to influence inequality?
2. How have they evolved during and after the financial crisis and the subsequent recovery period?
3. How have they influenced (in)equality?

When answering the research questions in brief, Estonia's rapid economic development has influenced the younger generation, providing improving incomes and better living conditions. However, the country's relatively homogenous society, as it was during the end of the Soviet period when compared to that of Western Europe, has fast reached the point at which socio-economic segregation is rising at one of the highest speeds in Europe (Tammaru et al, 2016b). The results show that throughout the domains, the core form of youth inequality in the Tallinn FUA runs along ethnic and gender dimensions. In order to zoom in, we present the core results of an analysis of those processes which serve to influence youth inequality, in close relation to the policy response or the lack of it.

In the domain of **education**, the core form of youth inequality in the Tallinn FUA runs along the ethnic divide. The data of school attendance, study results, and obtained higher education levels refers to the evident inequality between Estonians and Estonian-Russians (Estonian-speakers and Russian-speakers respectively). Our analysis has identified substantial differences in the study results between Estonian-language schools and Russian-language schools. Furthermore, Russian-speaking high school graduates usually do not continue onto higher education. This issue is targeted by national and local policies which aim to increase the number of subjects which are taught in the Estonian language within Russian-language schools. These policies aim to improve the situation for young people who have Russian as their mother tongue in terms of their Estonian language skills, as well as in terms of them continuing their studies in higher education and gaining a broader range of opportunities later on when they enter the labour market. Other than ethnic segmentations, gender segmentations can also be found in terms of Estonian education, with females usually being seen to perform better in education and males performing better in employment.

During the post-credit-crisis period (2010 onwards), one of the goals of contemporary educational policy strategies was to increase the use of modern forms of digital technology

in learning, teaching, and the improvement of digital skills. As has lately been revealed during the Covid-19 crisis, the selected policy direction towards e-learning has made it possible to switch over to distance learning in relative smoothness. Data about the impact upon education of the Covid-19 pandemic, however, has not yet been made available to use.

In the domain of **employment**, the core form of youth inequality in the Tallinn FUA runs along ethnic and gender dimensions. These have existed for a long time, and the recent Covid-19 crisis in 2020 and 2021 has had no long-term impact on youth employment in general, except for those few sectors which have experienced job losses (such as the accommodation and service sectors). Estonia has the largest horizontal and vertical gender segregation levels within the European Union, while also having the largest gender wage gap. According to data from 2013, the horizontal gender segregation rate (the concentration of men and women in different sectors) in those people who are employed was at 37.4% in Estonia. This figure has remained at about the same level, being at 37.0% in 2019. The vertical gender segregation rate (the concentration of men and women in different occupations) was at 40% in 2013, but this has decreased to 34.6%. The hourly wage gap between men and women in 2005 was at 25.4%.

Gender segregation in the labour market depends upon gender stereotypes and their impact on the educational, vocational, and professional choices of men and women. This often starts in education, where males and females tend to study different professions, with both sides being influenced by the strongly-rooted expectation in the labour market of there being 'men's jobs' and 'women's jobs'. Gender segregation is addressed mainly through national policies throughout the study period. This has become one of the core targets of recent employment policies. However, there is no single dominant factor which tends to affect the wage gap in Estonia and no single policy available to overcome the issue. This particularly emphasises the need for the integration of research and policymaking within and on the borderline of different domains, such as in terms of education and employment. One of the more innovative policies which have been undertaken in order to tackle gender segregation and to increase birth rates has been the reforms in childcare leave which now allow men to take paternity leave and to care for their children during the three first years of that child's life, putting them on an equal footing with women. As a result, Estonia has become a country which has particularly effective support measures in place for male parental leave, although this option is not yet being fully used due to the gender wage gap and gender roles in society.

Youth unemployment is well covered by national policies, despite the fact that youth employment enjoyed a rapid recovery after the 2008-2010 credit crisis, and youth unemployment is below the EU average. NEET young people have been the main target group in the latest round of youth policies which are included in this study. New national measures are being introduced which are aimed at increasing flexible forms of work (such as teleworking and part-time work). Their effect on the younger-age cohort is to encourage them to work during their studies at the vocational or higher education level. One of the core

issues could be a lowering of the barriers for Russian-Estonian youths to make it easier for them to enter the labour market.

Within the domain of **housing**, the core form of youth inequality in the Tallinn FUA runs along ethnic and family background dimensions, with these being related to the lower incomes of young people, along with lower levels of opportunities for Russian-speakers. Estonia has the fastest-growing property prices in the European Union, both in terms of house prices and rents. The 15-29 age cohort is in a more difficult situation in the housing market than other age groups because incomes for this group are lower, and individuals within the group do not have any start-up capital to be able to buy their own property. Even when looking at the case of 'favourable' bank loan options being offered by Estonian banks during the economic boom years, many young people are still not saving enough to be able to pay a home loan down-payment. The rental market also cannot be a viable option for many young people to get them into the housing market thanks to its instability. It is dominated by the private sector, while also being highly influenced by economic cycles and, during the last such cycle, suffering from the fact that the rental price range grew much faster than the average income. The result is approximately one quarter of young people have not been able to enter into the housing market by the time they are thirty years old. Young people are in a much better position when their parents support them financially or when they help them by providing their own property as security for a mortgage which can be taken out by their children.

The domain of housing is characterised by low levels of policy regulation. The high ownership rate which was a result of the mass restitution policies of the 1990s left the public sector with only minor options to be able to form housing policies. Until the 2000s, the state had almost entirely withdrawn from any housing policy, and the housing market operated on market economy principles. Since 2000, subsistence benefits and subsidies have been put in place which guarantee young people with the possibility of home loan down-payments. The main mechanism being used by local government authorities is offering affordable rental dwellings - social housing, which often has a rather negative reputation because it tends to be occupied by most of the lowest-income groups - for mid-income young people.

Urban planning as a form of market experimentation involving laissez-faire principles has led to massive suburbanisation and land-take. Estonians have higher levels of income and therefore more opportunities in terms of being able to move into single-family houses or new-build housing which is often located in the suburbs. Estonian-Russians rather tend to stay in dwellings which were built during the Soviet period. With increasing socio-economic and ethnic segregation, the divide between high-reputation and low-reputation schools, urban and rural, public and private, has tended to intensify. A geographically uneven distribution of students from wealthier families in the suburbs and high-quality schools, as well as in hobby education and universities in the city centre, forces suburban youths to spend a substantial part of their lives commuting.

Finally, we conclude in terms of the direction in which policy directions should be changed in order to decrease youth inequality. National policies are a much stronger area of influence in the domains of education and employment. Local policies are pretty strong within the domain of education, but they often tend to compete with national policies (such as enforcing a change of the language of instruction in Russian-language schools). Overall, there is lack of cooperation between local and national level policymakers. For the most part, young people meet with and utilise local policy implementers (such as NGOs or local municipality boards), but their voice should be heard at the national level too, where most of the educational policies and employment policies are being made. Furthermore, youth participation in policymaking has been relatively low. Based on the results for and links between inequality in different domains, we propose that the domain of education has a higher level of perspective when it comes to reducing youth inequality across all domains. A low level of education is one of the main factors which serves to increase the risk of future unemployment, which also then reduces youth opportunities in the housing market. The domain of housing also needs stronger policies in order to increase the role of the (public) rental market. There is currently no alternative to owning a home in Estonia. The rental market is relatively small and fragmented, and does not provide long-term security either for the tenant or the landlord.

As there exist evident relationships between the three domains, the act of defining so-called break-out points from any declining situation of vulnerable youth requires more attention. For example, if they became unemployed during the economic crisis, young people have been found to have been at a high risk of suffering in the housing market, whether they rented their dwelling or were paying a mortgage. Even if the economic crisis could be used as an excellent period in which to continue one's studies, retrain, or study a new profession, there was no support mechanism in place which made it possible for someone to remain in the housing market and still be active in terms of receiving an education.

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Annexes

Table 2: Main national policy documents analysed throughout the study periods within the domain of education.

2008-2012 (credit crisis)	2012-2020 (recovery)	2020+ (Covid-19)
General Education System Development Plan for 2007-2013 (Üldharidussüsteemi arengukava aastateks 2007-2013)	Lifelong Learning Strategy 2020 (Eesti elukestva õppe strateegia 2020)	Estonian Education Strategy 2021-2035 (Eesti haridusvaldkonna arengukava 2021-2035)
A Wise and Active Nation 2009-2012 (Tark ja tegus rahvas 2009-2012)	A Wise and Active Nation 2015-2018 (Tark ja tegus rahvas 2015-2018)	
Lifelong Learning Strategy 2005-2008 (Eesti elukestva õppe strateegia 2005-2008)	Youth Field Development Plan 2014-2020 (Noorte valdkonna arengukava 2014-2020)	
Estonian Integration Plan 2008-2013 (Eesti lõimumiskava 2008-2013)	Estonian Youth Guarantee (Eesti noortegarantii)	

Table 3: Main local policy documents analysed throughout the study periods within the domain of education.

2008-2012 (credit crisis)	2012-2020 (recovery)	2020+ (Covid-19)
Tallinn Basic and Secondary Education Development Plan 2009-2014 (Tallinna linna põhi- ja üldkeskhariduse arengukava 2009-2014)	Tallinn Municipal School Network Reorganisation Plan 2013-2021 (Tallinna munitsipaalüldhariduskoolide võrgu)	Tallinn Education Strategy 2020-2030 (Tallinna haridusstrateegia 2020-2030)

	korrastamise kava 2013–2021)	
Tallinn Hobby Education Development Plan 2007-2017 (Tallinna huvihariduse võrgu arengukava 2007-2017)	Tallinn Preschool Education Development Programme 2013-2021: ‘A kindergarten place for every child’ (Tallinna kooli-eelsete munitsipaallasteasutuste arendamise programm 2013-2021 "Lasteaiakoht igale lapsele")	
	Tallinn Development Plan 2014-2020 (Tallinna arengukava 2014-2020)	
	‘Supporting children who have special needs within Tallinn municipal educational institutions 2018-2020’ (Erivajadustega laste toetamise Tallinna munitsipaalharidusasutustes 2018-2020)	

Table 4: Main national policy documents analysed throughout the study periods within the domain of employment.

2008-2012 (credit crisis)	2012-2020 (recovery)	2020+ (Covid-19)
Development plan for the Ministry of Social Affairs 2009-2012 (Sotsiaalministeeriumi arengukava 2009–2012)	Welfare Development Plan 2016-2023 (Heaolu arengukava 2016–2023)	Proposal for the preparation of the Welfare Development Plan 2023-2030 (Heaolu arengukava 2023-2030 koostamise ettepanek)
Estonian Integration Plan 2008-2013 (Eesti lõimumiskava 2008-2013)	Development plan for the Ministry of Social Affairs for 2015-2018 (Sotsiaalministeeriumi valitsemisala arengukava aastateks 2015-2018)	
Estonian Action Plan for Economic Growth and Employment 2005-2007 to Implement the Lisbon Strategy (Eesti majanduskasvu ja tööhõive tegevuskava 2005-2007 Lissaboni strateegia rakendamiseks)	Employment Programme 2017-2020 (Tööhoiveprogramm 2017-2020)	
	Youth Field Development Plan 2014-2020 (Noorte valdkonna arengukava 2014-2020)	
	Estonian Youth Guarantee (Eesti noortegarantii)	
	The Youth Prop Up programme 2015-2021 (Noorte tugila 2015-2021)	

Table 5: Main local policy documents analysed throughout the study periods within the domain of employment.

2008-2012 (credit crisis)	2012-2020 (recovery)	2020+ (Covid-19)
Tallinn Innovation Strategy 2009-2013 (Tallinna innovatsioonistrateegia 2009-2013)	Tallinn Development Plan 2014-2020 (Tallinna arengukava 2014-2020)	'Tallinn 2035' strategy (Strateegia „Tallinn 2035')
	Tallinn Entrepreneurship and Innovation Strategy 2014-2018 (Tallinna ettevõtlus- ja innovatsioonistrateegia 2014-2018)	Tallinn Development Plan 2018-2023 (Tallinna arengukava 2018-2023)

Table 6: Main national policy documents analysed throughout the study periods within the domain of housing.

2008-2012 (credit crisis)	2012-2020 (recovery)	2020+ (Covid-19)
Estonian Housing Development Plan 2008–2013 (Eesti eluasemevaldkonna arengukava 2008–2013)	Energy Management Plan until 2030 (Energiamajanduse arengukava aastani 2030) ¹⁰	No policy documents (although the need for a strategy is frequently mentioned)

¹⁰ Composed in 2017.

Table 7: Main local policy documents analysed throughout the study periods within the domain of housing.

2008-2012 (credit crisis)	2012-2020 (recovery)	2020+ (Covid-19)
Tallinn's Second Municipal Housing Programme 2011 (Tallinna teine elamuehitusprogramm 2011)	Tallinn Social Welfare Development Plan 2012-2027 (Tallinna sotsiaalhoolekande arengukava 2012-2027)	Tallinn Development Plan 2018-2023 (Tallinna arengukava 2018-2023)
	Tallinn Development Plan 2014-2020 (Tallinna arengukava 2014-2020)	'Tallinn 2035' strategy (Strateegia „Tallinn 2035')

Table 8: Main national policy documents analysed throughout the study periods within the domain of social protection.

2008-2012 (credit crisis)	2012-2020 (recovery)	2020+ (Covid-19)
Development plan for the Ministry of Social Affairs 2009-2012 (Sotsiaalministeeriumi arengukava 2009–2012)	Welfare Development Plan 2016-2023 (Heaolu arengukava 2016–2023)	Proposal for the preparation of the Welfare Development Plan 2023-2030 (Heaolu arengukava 2023-2030 koostamise ettepanek)
	Development plan for the Ministry of Social Affairs for 2015-2018 (Sotsiaalministeeriumi valitsemisala arengukava aastateks 2015-2018)	
	Youth Field Development Plan 2014-2020 (Noorte valdkonna arengukava 2014-2020)	
	Estonian Youth Guarantee , (Eesti noortegarantii)	

Table 9: Main local policy documents analysed throughout the study periods within the domain of social protection.

2008-2012 (credit crisis)	2012-2020 (recovery)	2020+ (Covid-19)
	Tallinn Social Welfare Development Plan 2012-2027 (Tallinna sotsiaalhoolekande arengukava 2012-2027)	Tallinn Development Plan 2018-2023 (Tallinna arengukava 2018-2023)
	Tallinn Development Plan 2014-2020 (Tallinna arengukava 2014-2020)	

Table 10: Information about most relevant policies in three domains (evaluation based on desk research and interviews)

Field	Education	Employment	Housing
Policy	The shift in the language of instruction in Russian-language schools	Raising employment rates (working ability reforms in 2016)	Kredex programme
Level	National/local	National/local	National
Timeframe	2007 – 2021	2009 – 2021	2000 – 2021
Goals	- At least 60% of subjects have to be taught in Estonian, with Estonian literature, Estonian history, social studies, music, and geography having to be taught only in the Estonian language as a matter of course	- To activate people who came from inactive groups - To decrease the number of NEETs	- To support owner-occupancy for young people - To support home refurbishment for young and vulnerable people - To support local municipalities to building social housing

	- To improve the integration and study results of Russian mother tongue students		- To support private apartment associations to refurbish homes
Actors involved	Ministry of Education, Education boards of municipalities, Russian-language schools and their students	Ministry of Social Affairs, Estonian Unemployment Insurance Fund, municipalities, NGO's	State foundation Kredex, local municipalities, apartment associations, young people
Funding	State subsidies (e.g. to improve the language skills of teachers)	Hard to define (implemented though different policy programmes)	State funding based on annual budget
Monitoring mechanisms	None (no strict deadline)	Hard to define (implemented though different policy programmes)	Various monitoring mechanisms depending on the measure of subsidy

Statistical data analysis

The reference population for the ESS consists of all private households, whose usual place of residence is within Estonia, as well as the current members of those households. Persons who are living in institutions (such as an orphanage, a care home, convent, hospital, prison, etc), who amount to about 1% of Estonia's total population, are excluded from the survey. The ESS population is part of the EU-SILC population. The Estonian Population Register is administered by the Ministry of Social Affairs, and it is this which serves as a sampling framework which represents the population.

The ESS is a sample survey. Through this, the population is evaluated on the basis of data which has been collected from that sample. Proceeding from the aims of the ESS, data needs to be collected both from the cross-sectional statistical data which pertains to a given time and also from longitudinal statistical data which pertains to changes which have taken place over the years. Accordingly, the ESS has been designed as a longitudinal sample survey which uses a sample design with sub-samples or panels which are independent of one another. Every new panel is taken from the sampling framework by means of stratified systematic sampling, with the consequence being that it serves as a probability sample. The sample design is based on Eurostat's requirements and recommendations, the aim of which is to ensure that the estimations comply with a definite precision level, and to guarantee the international comparability of surveys. The size of the sample can be found in Table 10.

Table 11. Sample size of the Estonian Social Survey for 2007, 2012, and 2018.

	Households	Household members
2007	5,146	14,372
2012	5,433	14,257
2018	6,072	14,888

Table 12: Population by sex and age group.

	TOTAL	Sex		Age					Family type				Ethnicity		
		Total	Men	Women	Young age group (15-29)	Young age group (a) 15-19	Young age group (b) 20-29	30-64	65+	Couples with children	Couples without children	Singles with children	Singles without children	Estonian	Others
National (Estonia)	2007	1342920	624260	718660	291170	98420	192750	619790	2E+05	489668	216137	82644	192515	921062	42185
	2012	1325217	618138	707079	260906	68634	192272	624084	2E+05	489326	237861	73969	214782	917075	40814
	2018	1319133	621084	698049	220149	60173	159976	625376	3E+05	496984	255813	57423	242237	905677	41345
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	544170	250080	294090	128680	40790	87890	251870	85370	179263	88052	25312	74730	310736	23343
	2012	566741	261699	305042	116010	25012	90998	271167	88673	193509	94983	29207	81973	346320	22042
	2018	589610	272813	316797	99438	25103	74335	284429	1E+05	230997	110257	27391	102276	352939	23667
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	396770	179280	217490	95910	30420	65490	181440	66920	127548	70281	19067	60932	217938	17883
	2012	403862	182918	220944	86606	16513	70093	190907	67773	132936	75023	22388	64824	221210	18265
	2018	430805	194273	236532	76233	17232	59001	206273	79167	164057	84549	17306	81751	228494	20231
FUA Periphery (Harju County)	2007	147400	70800	76600	32770	10370	22400	70430	18450	51715	17771	6245	13797	92798	54602
	2012	162879	78781	84098	29404	8499	20905	80260	20900	60572	19960	6819	17149	125110	37769
	2018	158805	78540	80265	23205	7871	15334	78156	23381	66940	25708	10085	20525	124445	34360

Data of the population comes from the Statistics Estonia website (source: <https://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/dialog/statfile2.asp>).

Population data by sex and age groups can be found in the following Statistics Estonia data tables:

PO022: POPULATION BY SEX, AGE GROUP, AND COUNTY, 1 JANUARY

PO022U: POPULATION BY SEX, AGE GROUP, AND COUNTY, 1 JANUARY. ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION AS AT 01.01.2018

Population data by family type is based on data from the Estonian Social Survey of 2007, 2012, and 2018.

Population data by country of origin can be found in the following Statistics Estonia data tables:

PO07: NATIVE AND FOREIGN-ORIGIN POPULATION BY COUNTY, SEX, AND AGE, 1 JANUARY

PO071: NATIVE AND FOREIGN-ORIGIN POPULATION BY COUNTY AFTER THE 2017 ADMINISTRATIVE REFORMS, PLUS SEX AND AGE, 1 JANUARY

*The population of Estonia has been divided into native population and foreign-origin population as follows: **native population**: persons who are permanently living in Estonia, with at least one parent and at least one grandparent who was born in Estonia; **foreign-origin population**: persons who are permanently living in Estonia who do not belong to the native population. The country's foreign-origin population, in turn, has been divided into the first, second, and third generation as follows: **first generation**: persons who are permanently living in Estonia whose parents were born abroad; **second generation**: persons who are permanently living in Estonia and who were born in Estonia but whose parents were born abroad; **third generation**: persons who are permanently living in Estonia, with at least one parent who was born in Estonia but whose grandparents were all born abroad.

Population data by ethnicity is available from the following Statistics Estonia data tables:

PO0221: POPULATION BY SEX, AGE GROUP, AND COUNTY, 1 JANUARY. ESTONIANS

PO0221U: POPULATION BY SEX, AGE GROUP, AND COUNTY, 1 JANUARY. ESTONIANS. ADMINISTRATIVE DIVISION AS AT 01.01.2018

Table 13: Early leavers from education by level of education, sex, and nationality (%).

		TOTAL	Sex		Country of origin		Ethnicity	
		Total %	Men %	Women %	Foreign born	Natives	Estonians %	Others %
National (Estonia)	2007	14.4	21.4	7.2			16.5	13.9
	2012	10.3	13.3	7.3			11.7	8.8
	2018	11.3	16.1	6.4			11.2	12.2
Bigger region (only if not available for FUA)	2007							
	2012							
	2017/18/19							
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	11.1	-	-			-	-
	2012	8.2	-	-			-	-
	2018	9.8	-	-			-	-
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007							
	2012							
	2018							
FUA Periphery (Harju County)	2007							
	2012							
	2018							

*Early leavers refer to persons who are aged between eighteen and twenty-four who have finished no more than a lower secondary education and who are not involved in further education or training. The early leavers rate is expressed as a percentage of the total population within this age group.

Early leavers data by sex comes from the OECD.Stat page: <https://stats.oecd.org/Index.aspx?QueryId=90228#>.

Early leavers data by ethnic nationality comes from the Statistics Estonia website (source: <https://pub.stat.ee/px-web.2001/dialog/statfile2.asp>). The details are available from the following Statistics Estonia data tables:

HHS37: PERSONS AGED 18-24 WITH BELOW UPPER SECONDARY EDUCATION, NOT IN EDUCATION OR TRAINING, BY ETHNIC NATIONALITY.

Table 14: Unemployment and inactivity rates.

		EMPLOYED (%)*									
		TOTAL	Sex		Age			Ethnicity			
		Total	Men	Women	Young age group (15-29)	Young age group (15-24)	Young age group (a) 15-19	Young age group (b) 20-29	Other working age groups (30-64)		Estonian
National (Estonia)	2007	62.9	67.6	58.6	48.7	33.8	11.2	67.9	79.1	63.3	61.9
	2012	60.8	64.2	57.8	46.6	31.5	7.6	60.6	75.2	62.0	58.4
	2018	68.1	72.3	64.1	57.8	41.2	13.2	74.6	80.4	69.8	64.3
Bigger region (only if not available for FUA)	2007										
	2012										
	2017/18/19										

FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	68.8	73.9	64.4	56.0	40.7	14.9	71.3	84.8	69.8	67.4
	2012	67.2	72.4	62.8	54.5	38.2	9.9	66.8	80.6	69.2	64.5
	2018	74.0	78.6	69.4	64.7	47.3	17.9	78.2	85.0	76.5	70.2
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	68.90	74.2	64.6	56.4	39.4	15.3	70.6	85.3	70.4	67.4
	2012	67.20	72.6	62.6	56.5	39.9	10.2	68.1	80.0	69.9	64.4
	2018	74	78.8	69.6	67.4	51.4	18.9	79.2	84.8	76.5	71.3

***% EMPLOYED or employment rate (%):** the number of people who are employed and who are part of the working-age population (aged 15-74).

Employment rate (%) details come from the Estonian statistics page (source: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>), for the following groups: 'Total', 'Men', 'Women', 'Young age group (a) 15-19', 'Young age group 15-24', 'Young age group 20-29', 'Other working age groups (30-64)', 'Estonian', and 'Russian'. The following options have been selected in order to obtain the correct details: indicator type: ratio; indicator: 'Employment rate (%)'. In addition, we used several background features: sex ('sugu'), age groups (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age groups (5-year groups) ('vanuserühm (5a)'), age groups (10-year groups) ('vanuserühm (10a)'), county ('maakond'), 'Tallinn', and nation (two groups) ('rahvus 2 rühma').

For the 'Young age group 15-29' we computed the employment rate. Employment rate (%) = employed (in thousands) / working-age population in this age group x 100%. If necessary, we compounded age groups.

Details on the number of employed (in thousands) came from the Estonian statistics page (source: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>). The following options have been selected in order to obtain the data: indicator type: absolute number; and indicator: employed (in thousands). In addition, we used several background features: age groups (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age groups (5-year groups) ('vanuserühm (5a)'), and county ('maakond'), 'Tallinn'.

The data of the working-age population (in thousands) came from the Estonian statistics page (source: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>). The following options have been selected in order to obtain the information: indicator type: absolute number; and indicator: working-age population (in thousands). In addition, we used several background features: age groups (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age groups (5-year groups) ('vanuserühm (5a)'), county ('maakond'), and 'Tallinn'.

		UNEMPLOYED (%)**									
		TOTAL	Sex		Age					Ethnicity	
					Young age group (15-29)	Young age group (15-24)	Young age group (a) 15-19	Young age group (b) 20-29	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Others
		Total	Men	Women	(15-29)	(15-24)	(a) 15-19	(b) 20-29	(30-64)	Estonian	Others
National (Estonia)	2007	4.6	5.4	3.8	7.2	10.1	20.2	5.9	4.0	3.5	6.7
	2012	10.0	10.9	9.1	15.4	20.9	34.5	14.3	8.8	7.6	15.0
	2018	5.4	5.4	5.3	7.4	11.8	24.7	5.9	4.9	4.6	8.8
Bigger region (only if not available for FUA)	2007 2012 2017/18/19										
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	3.3	4.3	2.3	-	6.2	-	-	-	1.8	5.6
	2012	8.8	8.5	9.1	12.1	18.0	-	11.2	7.9	5.5	12.9
	2018	4.4	4.7	4.1	6.2	9.4	16.2	5.4	3.8	3.8	5.5
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	3.5	4.5	2.5	-	5.5	-	-	-	1.5	5.6
	2012	9.5	9.3	9.8	12.1	18.5	-	11.2	8.7	5.9	13.3
	2018	4.8	5.4	4.1	6.2	8.9	-	5.7	4.2	4.2	5,5

****% UNEMPLOYED or unemployment rate (%):** how many people are unemployed out of the entire labour force.

Data on the unemployment rate (%) came from the Estonian statistics page (source: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>) for the following groups: 'Total', 'Men', 'Women', 'Young age group (a) 15-19', 'Young age group 15-24', 'Young age group 20-29', 'Other working age groups (30-64)', 'Estonian', and 'Russian'. The following options have been selected in order to obtain the required data: indicator type: ratio; and indicator: unemployment rate (%). In addition, we used several background features: sex ('sugu'), age groups (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age groups (5-year groups) ('vanuserühm (5a)'), age groups (10-year groups) ('vanuserühm (10a)'), county ('maakond'), 'Tallinn', and nation (two groups) ('rahvus 2 rühma').

For the 'Young age group 15-29' we computed the unemployment rate. Unemployment rate (%) = unemployed (in thousands) / labour force in this age group x 100%. If necessary, we compounded age groups.

Data on the unemployed (in thousands) came from the Estonian statistics page (source: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>). The following options have been selected in order to obtain the required information: indicator type: absolute number; and indicator: unemployed (in thousands). In addition, we used several background features: age groups (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age groups (5-year groups) ('vanuserühm (5a)'), county ('maakond'), and 'Tallinn'.

Data about the labour force (in thousands) came from the Estonian statistics page (source: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>). The following options have been selected in order to obtain the required information: indicator type: absolute number; and indicator: labour force (in thousands). In addition, we used several background features: age groups (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age groups (5-year groups) ('vanuserühm (5a)'), county ('maakond'), and 'Tallinn'.

		% ECONOMICALLY INACTIVE (OUTSIDE THE LABOUR MARKET)***									
		TOTAL	Sex		Age				Ethnicity		
					Young age group (15-29)	Young age group (15-24)	Young age group (a) 15-19	Young age group (b) 20-29	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Others
		Total	Men	Women							
National (Estonia)	2007	34.1	28.5	39.2	47.5	62.4	86.0	27.9	17.6	34.4	33.6
	2012	32.4	28.0	36.4	44.8	60.1	88.5	29.3	17.5	32.9	31.3
	2018	28.1	23.6	32.3	37.6	53.2	82.6	20.7	15.4	26.8	30.8
Bigger region (only if not available for FUA)	2007										
	2012										
	2017/18/19										
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	28.8	22.7	34.0	41.4	56.7	83.3	25.8	12.7	28.9	28.7
	2012	26.3	21.0	30.9	38.1	53.5	86.7	24.7	12.5	26.8	25.6
	2018	22.7	17.5	27.6	31.0	47.9	78.8	17.4	11.6	20.5	25.8
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	28.6	22.3	33.8	41.0	58.3	83.2	26.6	11.8	28.6	28.7
	2012	25.7	19.9	30.7	35.8	51.1	85.7	23.3	12.3	25.7	25.7
	2018	22.2	16.7	27.4	28.3	43.6	77.8	16.2	11.5	20.2	24.6

***% **ECONOMICALLY INACTIVE:** how many people are economically inactive out of the working-age population (between 15-74). We computed this indicator: % economically inactive = inactive persons (in thousands) / working-age population in this age group x 100%.

The data regarding economically inactive persons (in thousands) came from the Estonian statistics page (source: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>), for the following groups: 'Total', 'Men', 'Women', 'Young age group (a) 15-19', 'Young age group 15-24', 'Young age group 15-29', 'Young age group 20-29', 'Other working age groups (30-64)', 'Estonian', and Russian. The following options have been selected in order to obtain the required information: indicator type: absolute number; and indicator: inactive persons (in thousands). In addition, we used several background features: sex ('sugu'), age groups (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age groups (5-year groups) ('vanuserühm (5a)'), age groups (10-year groups) ('vanuserühm (10a)'), county ('maakond'), 'Tallinn', and nation (two groups) ('rahvus 2 rühma').

Data of the working-age population (in thousands) came from the Estonian statistics page (source: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>) for the following groups: 'Total', 'Men', 'Women', 'Young age group (a) 15-19', 'Young age group 15-24', 'Young age group 15-29', 'Young age group 20-29', 'Other working age groups (30-64)', 'Estonian', and 'Russian'. The following options have been selected in order to obtain the required information: indicator type: absolute number; and indicator: working-age population (in thousands). In addition, we used several background features: sex ('sugu'), age groups (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age groups (5-year groups) ('vanuserühm (5a)'), age groups (10-year groups) ('vanuserühm (10a)'), county ('maakond'), 'Tallinn', and nation (two groups) ('rahvus 2 rühma').

Table 15: Sectoral distribution across the FUA (total by sex and young age groups + nationality).

Sectorial distribution*		A: agriculture, forestry, and fishing							
		TOTAL	Sex		Age		Ethnicity		
		Total	Men	Women	Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Russian
National (Estonia)	2007	30,800	21,200	9,600	2,100	3,800	25,400	28,900	1,300
	2012	27,600	19,900	7,700	2,300	4,800	21,300	25,900	1,500
	2018	21,900	16,600	5,300	1,900	3,400	16,800	20,100	1,500
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	4,200	2,900	-	-	-	-	3,700	-
	2012	2,500	1,700	-	-	-	-	2,100	-
	2018	2,100	1,600	-	-	-	-	1,600	-
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	1,600	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2012	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2018	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Sectorial distribution*		B-E: industry (excluding construction)							
		TOTAL	Sex		Age		Ethnicity		

		Total	Men	Women	Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Russian
National (Estonia)	2007	16,600	14,200	1,200	-	-	-	6,900	7,400
	2012	17,400	13,600	2,100	-	-	-	8,600	7,200
	2018	14,900	12,000	3,300	-	-	-	7,200	5,800
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	2,700	2,400	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2012	3,200	2,100	-	-	-	-	2,200	-
	2018	3,500	2,400	-	-	-	-	1,500	-
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	2,600	2,400	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2012	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2018	1,500	-	-	-	-	-	1,300	-

Sectorial distribution*	C: manufacturing								
	TOTAL	Sex		Age			Ethnicity		
	Total	Men	Women	Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups	Estonian	Russian	

							(30-64)		
National (Estonia)	2007	130,800	72,000	58,800	13,000	28,400	99,800	76,100	46,400
	2012	115,500	70,100	45,400	9,500	22,100	90,700	67,500	42,600
	2018	123,800	75,200	48,600	7,100	20,300	98,500	75,200	41,600
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	51,200	28,700	22,500	4,900	12,200	37,600	22,000	25,200
	2012	52,200	32,300	20,000	3,800	10,900	40,200	21,600	26,800
	2018	54,200	35,400	18,800	3,100	9,600	42,300	25,800	23,900
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	36,000	20,000	16,000	3,300	8,900	26,100	11,700	21,000
	2012	36,800	23,400	13,400	2,800	8,400	27,700	11,600	22,300
	2018	39,100	25,800	13,200	2,400	6,800	30,600	14,900	20,400

Sectorial distribution*	F: construction							
	TOTAL	Sex		Age		Ethnicity		
				Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Russian
	Total	Men	Women					

National (Estonia)	2007	82,600	74,800	7,800	14,000	27,200	54,400	53,600	22,100
	2012	58,200	53,400	4,900	4,700	12,500	44,900	41,100	14,700
	2018	58,300	53,800	4,500	3,800	10,200	47,200	38,900	15,300
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	35,600	31,400	4,200	6,100	12,600	22,300	17,600	13,100
	2012	24,300	21,900	2,300	1,900	5,700	17,900	13,300	9,300
	2018	24,900	22,400	2,600	1,800	4,200	20,500	13,200	9,100
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	25,900	22,600	3,200	4,600	9,500	-	10,800	11,200
	2012	16,900	15,300	1,500	1,500	4,100	12,200	7,800	7,500
	2018	15,900	14,400	1,500	-	-	13,200	6,000	7,600

Sectorial distribution*	G-I: wholesale and retail trade, transportation, accommodation, and food service activities								
	TOTAL	Sex		Age		Ethnicity			
	Total	Men	Women	Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Russian	
National (Estonia)	2007	163,300	78,300	85,000	19,800	37,700	121,200	108,800	46,900
	2012	148,900	72,000	77,000	19,400	34,900	111,100	98,000	42,700
	2018	164,800	85,100	79,700	20,900	40,900	116,100	109,000	47,300

FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	87,100	42,900	44,200	10,400	-	-	49,100	46,900
	2012	803,000	40,900	39,500	11,100	-	-	44,700	42,700
	2018	87,600	45,700	41,900	10,800	23,800	59,300	50,300	47,300
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	61,100	28,800	32,100	7,000	-	-	29,500	46,900
	2012	56,400	28,300	28,000	-	-	-	26,200	42,700
	2018	66,800	34,400	32,100	-	-	-	33,900	47,300

Sectorial distribution*	J: information and communication								
	TOTAL	Sex		Age			Ethnicity		
		Total	Men	Women	Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Russian
National (Estonia)	2007	13,700	8,300	5,400	1,800	5,500	-	12,000	1,600

	2012	18,500	10,600	7,900	1,900	6,700	11,200	15,300	3,100
	2018	29,800	20,200	9,500	2,500	9,800	19,300	21,600	6,800
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	10,000	5,600	4,300	-	-	-	8,600	-
	2012	13,200	7,500	5,700	-	-	8,700	10,700	2,400
	2018	21,800	14,900	6,900	2,000	6,500	1,500	14,700	6,200
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	8,200	4,600	3,600	-	-	-	7,300	-
	2012	10,900	6,100	4,800	-	-	-	8,800	2,000
	2018	18,300	12,700	5,500	1,700	5,500	12,200	11,800	5,500

Sectorial distribution*		K: financial and insurance activities							
		TOTAL	Sex		Age			Ethnicity	
		Total	Men	Women	Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Russian
National (Estonia)	2007	9500	2,600	6,900	1,200	-	-	7,200	1,600
	2012	10900	2,400	8,400	-	-	-	8,500	1,900
	2018	12400	4,200	8,200	-	-	8,900	9,200	2,400
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	6600	2,200	4,400	-	-	-	5,100	-

	2012	8300	1,900	6,500	-	-	-	6,200	1,600
	2018	10000	3,800	6,200	-	-	-	7,200	2,100
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	5200	-	3,500	-	-	-	3,900	-
	2012	5900	-	4,800	-	-	-	4,000	-
	2018	8000	3,100	4,900	-	-	-	5,200	2,100

Sectorial distribution*		L: property activities							
		TOTAL	Sex		Age			Ethnicity	
		Total	Men	Women	Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Russian
National (Estonia)	2007	9,800	4,000	5,800	-	-	-	4,900	4,000
	2012	10,700	3,800	7,000	-	-	-	5,100	4,300
	2018	9,800	4,700	5,100	-	-	-	5,700	3,200
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	6,000	2,200	3,800	-	-	-	2,300	2,800
	2012	6,200	2,000	4,200	-	-	-	2,200	3,000
	2018	5,300	2,300	2,900	-	-	-	2,600	2,200
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	4,500	1,700	2,700	-	-	-	1,400	2,500

2012	5,100	2,000	3,100	-	-	-	1,600	2,500
2018	3,900	1,800	2,200	-	-	-	1,400	2,000

Sectorial distribution*		M-N: professional, scientific, and technical activities; administrative and support service activities							
		TOTAL	Sex		Age		Ethnicity		
		Total	Men	Women	Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Russian
National (Estonia)	2007	36100	16,400	19,800	3,900	9,400	24,300	27,000	7,400
	2012	44500	20,000	24,500	-	-	-	31,000	10,700
	2018	55600	26,300	29,300	4,600	12,000	40,400	40,200	12,700
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	20200	7,900	12,200	-	-	-	14,500	4,500
	2012	28900	13,600	15,300	-	-	-	19,500	7,200
	2018	34800	15,200	19,600	3,100	8,000	24,700	22,600	9,800
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	16500	6,900	9,700	-	-	-	11,500	4,200
	2012	21600	10,700	10,900	-	-	-	13,700	6,700
	2018	28200	12,300	16,000	2,300	6,700	-	17,100	9,100

Sectorial distribution*		O-Q: public administration, defence, education, human health, and social work activities								
		TOTAL	Sex		Age		Ethnicity			
		Total	Men	Women	Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Russian	
National (Estonia)	2007	129,700	31,500	98,300	6,900	17,700	103,600	97,700	27,500	
	2012	136,400	34,300	102,100	6,500	18,600	109,000	104,500	26,700	
	2018	139,600	33,800	105,700	-	-	112,500	108,800	25,700	
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	52,400	13,100	39,200	-	-	40,100	35,900	13,400	
	2012	59,100	16,000	43,000	-	-	-	42,000	13,800	
	2018	60,400	16,500	44,000	-	-	47,400	44,000	13,800	
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	40,600	11,100	29,600	-	-	-	26,000	12,200	
	2012	43,900	12,300	31,600	-	-	-	29,400	12,200	
	2018	41,900	11,300	30,600	-	-	32,700	28,000	10,800	

Sectorial distribution*		R-U: arts, entertainment, and recreation; other service activities; the activities of household and extra-territorial organisations and bodies							
		TOTAL	Sex		Age			Ethnicity	
		Total	Men	Women	Young age groups (15-24)	Young age group (15-29)	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Russian
National (Estonia)	2007	34,600	11,600	23,100	2,900	-	-	23,700	8,800
	2012	26,300	9,400	16,900	-	-	-	21,100	4,300
	2018	33,800	10,400	23,500	-	-	24,000	25,100	7,100
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	19,200	6,200	13,100	-	-	-	12,500	5,400
	2012	13,500	5,600	7,900	-	-	-	9,700	3,300
	2018	18,400	6,300	12,100	-	-	-	12,800	4,100
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	15,200	3,600	10,200	-	-	-	9,000	4,800
	2012	10,600	3,000	6,500	-	-	-	7,500	1,600
	2018	14,000	5,200	8,800	-	-	-	8,800	3,800

* Sectorial distribution data of employed persons (in thousands) came from the Estonian statistics page (source: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>), for the following groups: 'Total', 'Men', 'Women', 'Young age group 15-24', 'Young age group 15-29', 'Other working age groups (30-64)', 'Estonian', and 'Russian'. The following options have been selected in order to obtain the required information: indicator type: absolute number; and indicator: employed (in thousands). In addition, we used several background features: field of activity ('tegevusala'), sex ('sugu'), age groups (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age groups (5-year groups) ('vanuserühm (5a)'), age groups (10-year groups) ('vanuserühm (10a)'), county ('maakond'), 'Tallinn', and nation (three groups) ('rahvus 3 rühma').

Table 16: Precariously employed by sex, age group, and ethnicity.

		Share of fixed term employees (%)*								
		TOTAL	Sex		Age			Ethnicity		
		Total	Men	Women	Young age group (15-24)	Young age group (a) 15-19	Young age group (b) 20-29	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Others
National (Estonia)	2007	2.1	2.7	1.6	6.6	16.3			1.8	2.8
	2012	3.7	4.7	2.7	13.1	41.0			3.3	4.5
	2018	3.5	3.7	3.3	13.5	38.8			3.4	3.8
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	1.8	2.4	1.3	5.7	-			1.1	2.9
	2012	3.9	5.0	2.9	11.7	-			2.8	5.4
	2018	3.1	3.3	3.0	11.6	29.6			2.6	3.9
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	1.4	1.8	1.0	-	-			-	2.3
	2012	3.9	4.9	3.0	11.0	-			2.9	5.0
	2018	3.1	3.4	2.9	9.7	-			2.7	3.7

	Share of underemployed amongst the employed (%)**
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		TOTAL	Sex		Age			Ethnicity		
		Total	Men	Women	Young age group (15-24)	Young age group (a) 15-19	Young age group (b) 20-29	Other working age groups (30-64)	Estonian	Others
National (Estonia)	2007	1.1	0.5	1.6	-	-	-	-	1.0	1.1
	2012	1.7	1.2	2.1	2.3	-	-	-	1.4	2.2
	2018	1.1	1.0	1.2	2.7	-	-	-	1.1	1.1
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	0.9	-	1.4	-	-	-	-	-	1.1
	2012	1.7	1.2	2.2	-	-	-	-	1.3	2.4
	2018	0.9	-	1.0	-	-	-	-	0.9	1.0
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	0.8	-	1.3	-	-	-	-	-	1.3
	2012	2.2	1.6	2.7	-	-	-	-	1.9	2.5
	2018	1.1	-	1.1	-	-	-	-	-	-

* This data came from the Estonian Statistics page: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>. The following options have been selected in order to obtain the required information: indicator type: ratio; and indicator: share of fixed-term employees (%) ('tähtajalise tööga palgatöötajate osatähtsus (%)'). In addition, we used several background features: sex ('sugu'), age group (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age group (5-year groups) ('vanusrühm (5a)'), county ('maakond'), 'Tallinn', and nation (two groups) ('rahvus 2 rühma').

* **Underemployed:** a part-time worker who wants to work more and is ready to accept additional work immediately (within two weeks). The data came from the Estonian Statistics page: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>. The following options have been selected in order to obtain the required data: indicator type: ratio; and indicator: share of underemployed amongst the employed (%) ('vaeghõivatute osatähtsus hõivatute hulgas (%)'). In addition, we used several background features: sex ('sugu'), age group (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), age group (5-year groups) ('vanusrühm (5a)'), county ('maakond'), 'Tallinn', and nation (three groups) ('rahvus 2 rühma').

Table 17: Tenure structure by sex, age, household composition, and nationality (%).

		% HOME OWNERSHIP														
		TOTAL		Sex		Age					Family type				Ethnicity	
		Total		Men	Women	Young age group (15-29)	Young age group (a) 15-19	Young age group (b) 20-29	30-64	65+	Couples with children	Couples without children	Singles with children	Singles without children	Estonians	Others
National (Estonia)	2007	86.8		86.9	86.7	82.6	90.0	78.8	89.4	87.4	87.7	88.5	79.3	71.4	84.2	92.6
	2012	82.2		82.4	82.1	72.6	86.7	67.8	87.0	82.2	84.9	81.5	72.8	68.0	80.3	87.0
	2018	82.4		82.0	82.8	84.7	87.1	65.3	79.4	83.6	85.2	84.4	79.8	66.1	81.6	84.4
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	87.0		86.7	87.3	82.7	93.7	78.7	89.9	86.5	87.5	85.3	85.2	68.0	82.5	93.7
	2012	81.0		81.4	80.6	69.0	86.0	64.3	86.7	80.4	83.1	79.9	74.8	65.8	78.2	85.6
	2018	81.8		81.4	82.2	69.4	87.4	63.2	85.0	85.2	84.2	82.0	85.4	64.3	81.2	82.9
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	87.2		87.0	87.3	82.9	95.0	78.9	90.4	85.7	88.5	84.7	83.9	68.5	81.6	93.8
	2012	79.7		79.7	79.6	66.2	86.1	61.7	85.8	81.3	82.1	77.7	74.2	63.3	75.7	85.1
	2018	79.2		78.4	79.9	64.0	84.8	57.7	75.4	84.1	81.0	81.6	87.1	61.4	77.5	81.7
FUA periphery (Harju County)	2007	86.7		86.0	87.3	82.2	90.4	78.2	88.1	90.1	84.9	87.8	89.4	65.9	84.6	93.3
	2012	85.1		86.3	84.0	79.7	85.6	76.8	89.4	76.2	85.3	88.1	76.6	75.3	84.2	87.9
	2018	89.0		89.7	88.5	84.4	93.1	80.6	90.1	88.5	92.1	83.1	82.5	75.8	88.9	89.4

		% RENTING													
		TOTAL	Sex		Age					Family type				Ethnicity	
		Total	Men	Women	Young age group (15-29)	Young age group (a) 15-19	Young age group (b) 20-29	30-64	65+	Couples with children	Couples without children	Singles with children	Singles without children	Estonians	Others
National (Estonia)	2007	5.9	6.2	5.7	9.5	4.2	12.1	4.7	2.5	6.4	4.3	11.9	11.7	7.2	3.0
	2012	6.2	6.2	6.1	12.4	5.3	14.9	4.3	2.8	4.9	6.5	11.5	10.4	7.5	3.0
	2018	7.1	7.5	6.8	15.3	6.4	18.7	6.1	2.5	5.8	8.9	12.2	20.7	7.7	5.7
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	7.7	8.8	6.7	12.3	3.6	15.5	5.6	3.7	8.8	6.8	11.4	17.4	11.2	2.4
	2012	8.3	8.5	8.1	18.7	7.6	21.7	5.3	3.9	6.1	10.0	12.8	16.0	10.8	4.2
	2018	8.6	9.0	8.1	17.3	7.1	20.8	7.4	3.1	6.4	8.4	5.7	17.8	9.2	7.4
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	8.1	8.8	7.6	13.6	3.5	17.0	5.6	4.0	9.1	6.8	15.2	17.9	13.2	2.1
	2012	9.5	10.2	8.9	21.0	7.3	24.2	6.2	4.3	6.8	12.4	12.0	18.4	13.4	4.3
	2018	10.4	11.1	9.9	21.3	9.1	25.1	8.8	3.4	7.9	9.2	9.0	19.9	11.9	8.4
FUA periphery (Harju County)	2007	6.1	8.9	3.6	7.9	3.8	9.9	5.4	2.5	8.2	7.0	0.0	15.4	6.7	4.3
	2012	4.5	3.5	5.4	9.4	8.3	10.0	2.8	2.1	4.5	0.8	15.2	7.0	4.7	3.8
	2018	3.4	3.5	3.3	6.0	2.8	7.4	3.4	2.3	2.8	5.9	0.0	9.5	3.7	2.1

The tenure structure is based on data which is supplied by the Estonian Social Survey of 2007, 2012, and 2018.

We do not have no data about people who are living in subsidised/municipally-owned housing, as such a form of tenure is practically non-existent in Estonia and, therefore, it was also not possible to separate this category when using data from the Estonian Social Survey.

Table 18: Persons receiving social allowances by sex, age, household composition, and nationality (%).

		TOTAL	Sex		Age					Family type
		Total	Men	Women	Young age group (15-29)	Young age group (a) 15-19	Young age group (b) 20-29	30-64	65+	Couples with children
National (Estonia)	2007	0.9	1.0	0.8	0.9	1.5	0.6	0.9	1.1	0.1
	2012	2.2	2.1	2.2	2.1	2.8	1.9	2.2	1.1	2.0
	2018	1.9	2.0	1.9	2.0	3.4	1.5	2.0	0.5	1.5
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.5	1.1	0.2	0.2	2.1	0.0
	2012	1.8	1.6	1.9	1.4	2.1	1.2	1.8	1.6	1.4
	2018	0.8	0.8	0.8	1	0.7	1.1	0.6	0.4	0.2
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	0.5	0.4	0.7	0.6	1.6	0.3	0.1	2.0	0.0
	2012	1.6	1.5	1.7	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.8	1.2	1.3
	2018	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.2	0.2	1.5	0.6	0.5	0.0
FUA periphery (Harju County)	2007	0.6	0.7	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.5	2.7	0.0
	2012	2.4	2.0	2.7	2.9	4.3	2.2	1.7	3.4	1.6
	2018	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	1.7	0.0	0.6	0.0	0.6

The percentage here shows the share of people who were in receipt of a **subsistence benefit**. This is a form of state assistance for those who find themselves in difficulties, with the funds being paid by the local government authority. In order to alleviate a person’s situation, the local government authority employs both social services and other forms of social assistance, depending upon the situation in question. The benefit is paid if all other measures for the alleviation of poverty and difficulties have proven ineffectual. The assistance consists of benefits which are paid in order to guarantee that the individual concerned is able to live at subsistence level on supplementary benefits. The share is calculated by using as a basis the Estonian Social Survey database.

The share of people who are in receipt of social allowances is the same as the share of people who are in receipt of housing allowances. In Estonia, a subsistence benefit is also designed to assist people who are paying expenses which are related to their housing needs.

Table 19: Teenage birth rate (%).

		Total	Sex		Ethnicity	
			Men	Women	Estonian****	Others*****
National (Estonia)	2007	1.43	0.46	2.47	2.32	2.96
	2012	0.88	0.32	1.48	1.42	1.67
	2018	0.57	0.19	0.97	0.94	1.07
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	1.02	0.37	1.68	1.94	1.37
	2012	0.58	0.25	0.91	0.79	1.17
	2018	0.34	0.13	0.57	0.41	0.87
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	-	-	1.45	1.76	1.18
	2012	-	-	0.84	0.65	1.18
	2018	-	-	0.47	0.34	0.66
FUA Periphery (Harju County)	2007	-	-	2.39	2.28	2.85
	2012	-	-	1.03	1.01	1.13
	2018	-	-	0.78	0.54	1.97

Table 20: The share of NEETs in the 15-24 age group (%).

		Sex			Ethnicity	
		Total	Men	Women	Estonian	Others
National (Estonia)	2007	9.4	8.8	10.1	9.3	9.6
	2012	12.2	11.2	13.2	11.2	15.0
	2018	9.8	10.8	8.9	9.1	12.2
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	6.3	4.5	7.9	6.1	7.0
	2012	10.1	8.3	11.7	9.2	10.3
	2018	8.9	10.1	7.6	8.0	10.3
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	5.3	3.6	6.8	-	7.2
	2012	10.0	9.8	10.1	9.8	10.2
	2018	7.9	10.1	5.6	6.0	10.8

* All indicators in the table are for the 15-24 age group. The data came from the Estonian Statistics page: <https://andmestikud.stat.ee/tooturg/>. The following options have been selected in order to obtain the required information: indicator type: ratio; and indicator: NEET rate (%). In addition, we used several background features: sex ('sugu'), age group (general) ('vanusrühm üldisem'), county ('maakond'), 'Tallinn', and nation (two groups) ('rahvus 2 rühma').

Table 21: Income distribution.

		Average income (€)	TOTAL				
			1st quintile	2nd quintile	3rd quintile	4th quintile	5th quintile
			%	%	%	%	%
National (Estonia)	2007	5,304.15	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0
	2012	7,118.65	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0
	2018	11,750.40	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0	20.0
FUA (Tallinn city region)	2007	6,625.26	11.6	15.5	17.9	23.5	31.5
	2012	8,489.98	12.3	16.5	17.8	23.4	30.0
	2018	13,471.58	14.8	15.6	18.7	22.3	28.5
FUA Core (Tallinn)	2007	6,601.59	11.7	16.6	18.7	22.1	30.8
	2012	8,396.81	11.2	17.9	17.9	23.1	29.9
	2018	13,414.18	15.0	16.3	18.4	21.9	28.4
FUA Periphery (Harju County)	2007	6,700.57	11.2	12.1	15.4	27.7	33.5
	2012	8,781.10	15.6	12.0	17.6	24.5	30.3
	2018	13,628.34	14.3	13.8	19.7	23.4	28.7

Table 22: The data for comparative analysis

The table below contains data/indicators that are able to display social inequalities in a way that is the most comparable with other urban areas. Each urban report includes this data table, which is also intending to show not only the scale and dimensions of inequalities in the functional urban area of Tallinn, but indicate also the scale of missing data that makes any comparative research difficult to implement.

Please note that FUA of Tallinn as it is defined in this report overlaps with regional level unit (NUTS2 region 'Northern-Estonia') and overlaps also with Harju County (LAU 1). Therefore, regional data and FUA data are the same.

	National data (Estonia)	Regional data (Northern Estonia NUTS2 region)	FUA data (Tallinn FUA)	City level data (Tallinn)
Population				
Population in 2007	1,342,920	544,170	544,170	396,770
Population in 2012	1,325,217	566,741	566,741	403,862
Population in 2018	1,319,133	589,610	589,610	430,805
Population aged 15-29 in 2007	291,170	128,680	128,680	95,910
Population aged 15-29 in 2012	260,906	116,010	116,010	86,606
Population aged 15-29 in 2018	220,149	99,438	99,438	76,233
Income/poverty				
Gini index 2007	.31	.30	.30	.29
Gini index 2012	.36	.36	.36	.36
Gini index 2018	.31	.30	.30	.30
Equalized personal income quintiles (mean for the 1 st quintile) 2018, EUR	2350.08	1993.79	1993.79	2012.13
Equalized personal income quintiles (mean for the 2 st quintile) 2018, EUR	2350.08	2101.57	2101.57	2186.51
Equalized personal income quintiles (mean for the 3 st quintile) 2018, EUR	2350.08	2519.19	2519.19	2468.21
Equalized personal income quintiles (mean for the 4 st quintile) 2018, EUR	2350.08	3004.16	3004.16	2937.71
Equalized personal income quintiles (mean for the 5 st quintile) 2018, EUR	2350.08	3839.40	3839.40	3809.63

	National data (Estonia)	Regional data (Northern Estonia NUTS2 region)	FUA data (Tallinn FUA)	City level data (Tallinn)
At risk of poverty rate 2007, %	19.4	11.2	11.2	11.3
At risk of poverty rate 2012, %	17.5	10.6	10.6	10.2
At risk of poverty rate 2018, %	21.9	16.3	16.3	16.6
At risk of poverty aged 15-29 2007, %	15.7	7.6	7.6	7.6
At risk of poverty aged 15-29 2012, %	18.1	10.8	10.8	9.7
At risk of poverty aged 15-29 2018, %	17.2	12.6	12.6	11.9
Housing				
Share of housing below market rates (social housing) 2007	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Share of housing below market rates (social housing) 2012	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Share of housing below market rates (social housing) 2018	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Average income 2007, EUR	5304.15	6625.26	6625.26	6601.59
Average income 2012, EUR	7118.65	8489.98	8489.98	8396.81
Average income 2018, EUR	11,750.40	13,471.58	13,471.58	13,414.18

Education

Early leavers from education and training 2007, %	14.4	11.1	11.1	n.a.
Early leavers from education and training 2012, %	10.3	8.2	8.2	n.a.
Early leavers from education and training 2018, %	11.3	9.8	9.8	n.a.
Share of inhabitants with a maximum ISCED 1 education 2007, %	28.8	20.8	20.8	18.7
Share of inhabitants with a maximum ISCED 1 education 2012,	19.4	12.7	12.7	11.4

	National data (Estonia)	Regional data (Northern Estonia NUTS2 region)	FUA data (Tallinn FUA)	City level data (Tallinn)
%				
Share of inhabitants with a maximum ISCED 1 education 2018, %	18.5	12.2	12.2	10.9
Enrolment in upper secondary school 2007, %	63.4	71.2	71.2	76.6
Enrolment in upper secondary school 2012, %	67.0	75.1	75.1	85.9
Enrolment in upper secondary school 2018, %	68.8	76.1	76.1	87.2
Employment				
NEET youth aged 15- 24 2007, %	9.4	6.3	6.3	5.3
NEET youth aged 15-24 2012, %	12.2	10.1	10.1	10.0
NEET youth aged 15-24 2018, %	9.8	8.9	8.9	7.9
Employment rate 2007, %	62.9	68.8	68.8	68.9
Employment rate 2012, %	60.8	67.2	67.2	67.2
Employment rate 2018, %	68.1	74.0	74.0	74.0
Employment rate aged 15-29 2007, %	48.7	56.0	56.0	56.4
Employment rate aged 15-29 2012, %	46.6	54.5	54.5	56.5
Employment rate aged 15-29 2018, %	57.8	64.7	64.7	67.4
Unemployment rate 2007, %	4.6	3.3	3.3	3.5
Unemployment rate 2012, %	10.0	8.8	8.8	9.5
Unemployment rate 2018, %	5.4	4.4	4.4	4.8
Unemployment rate aged 15-29 2007, %	7.2	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Unemployment rate aged 15-29 2012, %	15.4	12.1	12.1	12.1
Unemployment rate aged 15-29	7.4	6.2	6.2	6.2

	National data (Estonia)	Regional data (Northern Estonia NUTS2 region)	FUA data (Tallinn FUA)	City level data (Tallinn)
2018, %				
Share of precarious employment 2007, %	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Share of precarious employment 2012, %	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Share of precarious employment 2018, %	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Share of precarious employment aged 15-29 2007, %	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Share of precarious employment aged 15-29 2012, %	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Share of precarious employment aged 15-29 2018, %	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.	n.a.
Health				
Life expectancy 2007	73.2	74.3	74.3	n.a.
Life expectancy 2012	76.5	78.5	78.5	n.a.
Life expectancy 2018	78.4	79.8	79.8	80.0
Teenage birth rate 2007, %	1.43	1.02	1.02	n.a.
Teenage birth rate 2012, %	0.88	0.58	0.58	n.a.
Teenage birth rate 2018, %	0.57	0.34	0.34	n.a.