

STATISTIKAAMET  
STATISTICS ESTONIA

# NAISED JA MEHED WOMEN AND MEN



TALLINN 2006

Kogumik analüüsib naiste ja meeste olukorda tänapäeva Eesti ühiskonnas elutsüklite kaudu. Kajastatud on naiste ja meeste lapsepõlv, töö- ja pereastad ning vanuriaastad. Käsitletud on demograafilisi aspekte, haridust, ajakasutust, sissetulekut, vaesust, elustiili, tööturgu ja tervist.

Koostanud Statistikaameti sotsiaalstatistika osakond (Urve Kask, tel 625 9220).

*The publication analyses the situation of women and men in contemporary Estonian society by life cycles. The childhood, working and family years as well as elderly years of women and men have been reflected. Demographic aspects, education, time use, income, poverty, lifestyle, labour market and health have been discussed.*

*Compiled by the Social Statistics Department of Statistics Estonia (Urve Kask, tel +372 625 9220).*

## **MÄRKIDE SELETUS** **EXPLANATION OF SYMBOLS**

...	andmeid ei ole saadud või need on avaldamiseks ebakindlad <i>data not available or too uncertain for publication</i>
0,0	näitaja väärtus väiksem kui pool kasutatud mõõtühikust <i>magnitude less than half of the unit employed</i>
M/M	mehed <i>males</i>
N/F	naised <i>females</i>
K/T	kokku <i>total</i>

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## SAATEKS

Demokraatlikule ühiskonnale on omane tasakaal ja kõikide inimeste võrdsed võimalused osaleda nii töö- ja kultuurielus kui ka poliitilises ja sotsiaalses elus. Kogumik keskendub naiste ja meeste igapäevavõimalustele — nende sarnasustele ja erinevustele.

Kogumiku omapära on elutsükiline lähenemine. Millises elutsüklis erinevad naised ja mehed enim? Millal on nende käitumine kõige sarnasem? Kas Eesti ühiskonnas saab rääkida naiste ja meeste võrdsetest võimalustest nii hariduses, tööl, kodus kui ka toimetuleku puhul?

Esimeses osas on vaatluse all lapsepõlv, kodune kasvukeskkond ja kooliaeg. Teine osa keskendub tööelule, mis hõlmab kõige olulisemad aastad inimese elust. Tööeas soetatakse oma kodu ja luuakse pere, niisiis tuleb toime tulla kahe väga olulise valdkonna üheaegse juhtimisega: töö ja pere. Samasse perioodi langeb ka poliitilises elus osalemine. Kolmas osa keskendub vanurieleale.

Igal eluperioodil on naiste ja meeste käitumises nii sarnaseid kui ka erinevaid jooni. Kuhu peab püüdlema ühiskond? Ka poliitika väljatöötamisel on oluline arvestada, et ühiskond koosneb kahest sugupoolest, kelle käitumine ja elustiil võivad erineda. Võib-olla aitab soopõhise statistika integreerimine igapäevaellu võtta ka poliitikas vastu paremaid otsuseid. Näitena võib tuua vajaduse vähendada naiste töökoormust ja parandada meeste tervise-näitajaid, et pikendada nende eluiga.

### Head lugemist!

Autorite nimel

Urve Kask, sotsiaalstatistika osakonna juhataja

## FOREWORD

*Equilibrium is characteristic of democratic society, as is also equal possibilities for everybody to participate in working, cultural, political and social life. This publication focuses on opportunities in everyday life among men and women, their similarities and differences.*

*Unique for this publication is life-cycle approach. In which life-cycle do men and women differ the most, when is their behaviour most similar? Is it possible in Estonian society to talk about equal possibilities among men and women in education, working-life, family-life, as well as with regard to coping?*

*The first part concentrates on childhood, domestic growing environment and school-life. The second part focuses on working-life, which include the best years of one's life. During working-life, obtaining one's own house and establishing a family takes place. Therefore, one has to cope with managing two very important domains simultaneously: work and family. Also participating in political-life falls in the same period. The third part focuses on elderly years.*

*In each life period men and women have similarities as well as differences in their behaviour. What must the society strive for? Also in developing various policies it is important to consider the fact that society consists of two genders whose behaviour and life style may differ. Integration of gender-based statistics into everyday life might help to make better decisions in political arena; for example the necessity to reduce the work load of women and to improve the health indicators of men that could lengthen their life expectancy.*

### Enjoy the book!

On behalf of the authors

Urve Kask, Head of the Social Statistics Department

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# 1. LAPSE- JA NOORUKIAASTAD

## 1.1. Laste sünd ja kasvukeskkond

Poisse sünnib rohkem kui tüdrukuid. Keskmiselt sünnib maailmas 100 tüdruku kohta 105 poissi, kuid aastati ja piirkonniti on see erinev. 2005. aastal sündis Eestis 14 350 last — 7486 poissi ja 6864 tüdrukut (tabel 1.1). Seega sündis 2005. aastal poisse keskmisest rohkem — 109 poissi 100 tüdruku kohta. Sündides kaaluvad poisid tüdrukutest keskmiselt 150 grammi rohkem. 2005. aastal sündinud poiste keskmine sünnikaal oli 3570 grammi ja tüdrukutel 3430 grammi.

Tabel 1.1 **Elussündinud soo järgi, 1995, 2000, 2005**  
Table 1.1 *Live births by sex, 1995, 2000, 2005*

Aasta Year	Kokku Total	Poisid Boys	Tüdrukud Girls	Poisse 100 tüdruku kohta Boys per 100 girls
1995	13 509	6 942	6 567	106
2000	13 067	6 824	6 243	109
2005	14 350	7 486	6 864	109

**Poisse sünnib rohkem, soosuhe tasakaalustub kahekümnendate eluaastate lõpuks**

Kuigi poisse sünnib rohkem kui tüdrukuid, tasakaalustub soosuhe kahekümnendate eluaastate lõpuks kolmekümnendate alguseks meeste suurema suremuse tõttu. Seetõttu erineb märkimisväärselt ka meeste ja naiste oodatav eluiga sünnimomendil. 2005. aastal oli Eestis naiste keskmine oodatav eluiga 78,1 ja meestel 67,3 aastat (tabel 1.2). Euroopa Liidu liikmesriikidest erineb meeste ja naiste oodatav eluiga üle 10 aasta ka Lätis ja Leedus. Lisaks meeste ja naiste oodatava eluea suurele erinevusele torkab Eesti Euroopa Liidu liikmesriikide seas silma ka madalama eluea poolest. 2003. aastal oli Euroopa Liidu 25 liikmesriigi keskmine oodatav eluiga naistel 81,2 ja meestel 75,1 aastat.

Tabel 1.2 **Oodatav eluiga sünnil, 1995, 2000, 2005**  
Table 1.2 *Life expectancy at birth, 1995, 2000, 2005*  
(aastat — years)

Aasta Year	Mehed Males	Naised Females
1995	61,3	74,1
2000	65,1	76,0
2005	67,3	78,1

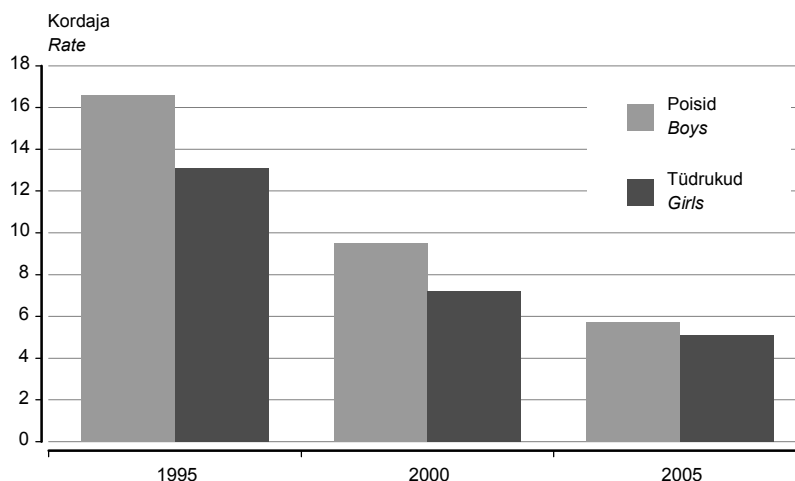
**Eestis imikusuremus Euroopa Liidu keskmisest veidi suurem**

Juba imikueas on poiste suremus mõnevõrra suurem kui tüdrukutel, kuid see erinevus on aastatega märkimisväärselt vähenenud. Vähenenud on ka imikusuremus. 2005. aastal oli imikusuremuskordaja (imikusurmade arv 1000 elussünni kohta) poistel 5,7 ja tüdrukutel 5,1, 1995. aastal vastavalt 16,6 ja 13,1 (joonis 1.1). Teiste Euroopa Liidu riikidega võrreldes on imikusuremus Eestis veidi suurem — 2004. aastal oli imikusuremuskordaja Euroopa Liidus 4,5. Kõige sagedasem surmapõhjus esimesel eluaastal on perinataalperioodi patoloogiad ja kaasasündinud väärarendid. Noorukieas juhtub poistega sagedamini õnnetusjuhtumeid, traumasad ja mürgistusi, seetõttu on nende suremus ka siis mõnevõrra suurem.

**Esimest korda saadakse emaks keskmiselt 25-aastaselt**

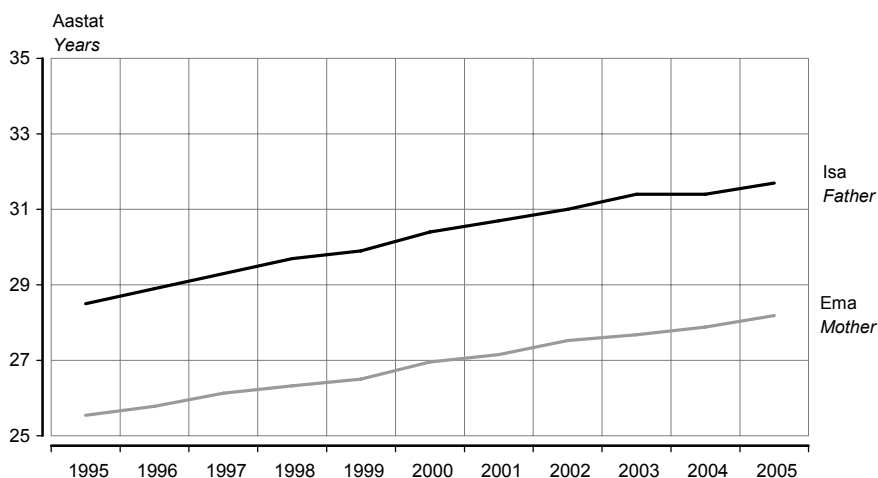
Viimasel aastakümnel sünnivad lapsed järjest vanematele emadele-isadele. Kui 1990. aastate keskel oli ema esimese lapse sünnil keskmiselt 23-aastane, siis praegu saadakse esimest korda emaks keskmiselt 25-aastaselt. Selle vanusega on Eesti emad Euroopa Liidu liikmesriikide hulgas koos mõne teise Ida-Euroopa riigi naistega ühed nooremad esmasünnitajad. Lääne-Euroopa riikides sünnitatakse esimene laps hiljem. Näiteks Hollandis ja Hispaanias olid emad esimese lapse sündimise ajal veidi vanemad kui 29 aastat. Kui Lääne-Euroopas hakkasid naised lapse sünni edasi lükkama juba 1970. aastatel, siis Ida-Euroopas levib selline suundumus alles 1990. aastatest.

Joonis 1.1 Imikusuremuskordaja soo järgi, 1995, 2000, 2005  
Figure 1.1 Infant death rate by sex, 1995, 2000, 2005



Nii nagu on suurenenud vanus esimese lapse sünnil, suureneb ka emade keskmine vanus sünnitusel. 2005. aastal oli Eesti keskmine sünnitaja veidi vanem kui 28-aastane. Sarnaselt emade vanuse suurenemisega saadakse ka isaks üha hilisemas eas (joonis 1.2). 2005. aastal oli mehe keskmine vanus lapse sünnil ligikaudu 32 aastat — mehed saavad isaks keskmiselt 3,5 aastat hilisemas eas kui naised emaks.

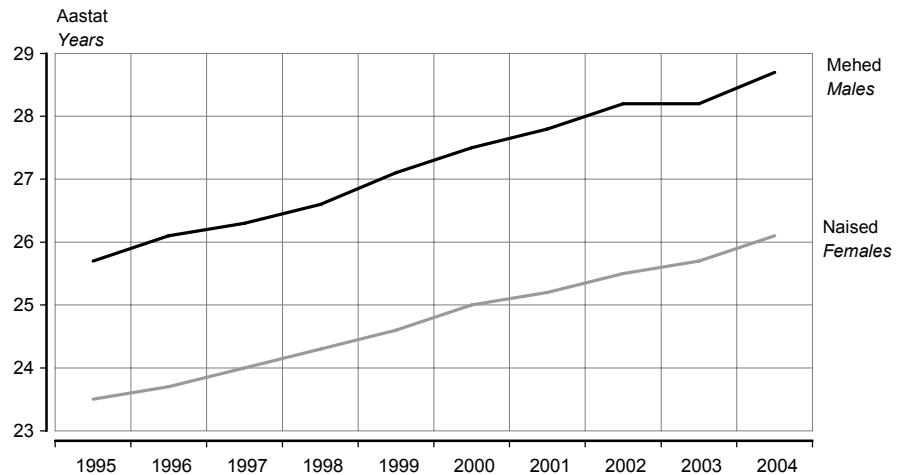
Joonis 1.2 Ema ja isa keskmine vanus lapse sünnil, 1995–2005  
Figure 1.2 Mean age of mother and father at childbirth, 1995–2005



Sarnaselt lapse sünni nihkumisega vanemasse ikka, lükkavad mehed ja naised edasi ka abielu sõlmimist. Esmasabiellujate vanus on viimasel kümnendil pidevalt suurenenud. 2004. aastal oli naine esimest korda abielludes 26,1-aastane ja mees 28,7-aastane (joonis 1.3). Mehed on esimest korda abielludes naistest 2–2,5 aastat vanemad. Viimastel aastakümnetel on abiellujate vanusevahe aeglaselt suurenenud.

Kui varasematel aastakümnetel sõlmiti abielu enne lapse sündi, siis tänapäeval registreeritakse abielu sageli alles pärast seda. 2004. aastal abiellunute oli vähemalt üks ühine laps 23% paaridest. Kümme aastat varem oli ühiste lastega abiellujaid vähem — 17%. Alates 1993. aastast on ema keskmine vanus esimese lapse sünnil väiksem kui naise keskmine vanus esmakordsel abiellumisel. Abiellumine pärast lapse sündi ei ole Eestile ainuomane, ka Rootsis sünnib laps sageli enne abielu registreerimist. Esmasünnitaja ja esmasabielluja keskmine vanusevahe on seal 2,2 aastat. Eestis on see näitaja praegu veel alla aasta.

Joonis 1.3 **Naise ja mehe keskmine vanus esmasabiellumisel, 1995–2004**  
 Figure 1.3 **Mean age at first marriage, 1995–2004**



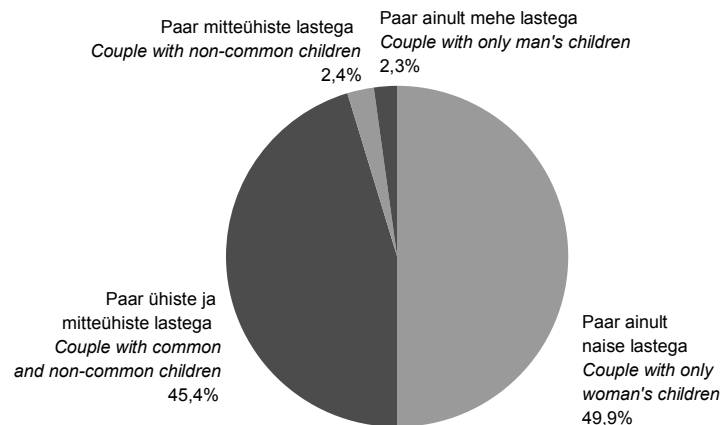
**Rohkem sünnib lapsi vabaabiellus vanematele**

Kuigi alates 1997. aastast sünnib üle poole lastest väljaspool abielu, ei tähenda see sünni ainult emaga perre. Suurenenud on eelkõige sünnid vabaabiellus vanematele. 2005. aastal registreeriti 100 sünnist 47 ema ja isa ühisavalduse alusel. Abielus vanematele sündis 42% lastest. Siiski ei sünni kõik lapsed kahe vanemaga perre. Ainult ema avalduse põhjal koostati sünniakt 11,5%-le lastest, kellest suur osa jääbki tõenäoliselt ema kasvatada. Ka Rootsis on ülekaalus abieluvälised sünnid. Teistes Euroopa Liidu riikides on abieluväliseid sünne alla poole.

Abielulahutused on Eestis küllaltki sagedased. Tõsi, viimastel aastatel on lahutuste arv 1000 elaniku kohta vähenenud. Osaliselt põhjustab seda 1990. aastatel märgatavalt vähenenud abielude arv. Väheneb ka ühiste alaealiste lastega lahutajate osatähtsus. Kui 1995. aastal oli 65% lahutajatest vähemalt üks ühine alaealine laps, siis 2004. aastal oli vähemalt üks ühine alaealine laps 58% lahutajatest.

Märkimisväärne on taasloodud perede hulk. Need on pered, kus vähemalt üks laps on ainult ühe kooselava partneri laps. 2000. aasta rahvaloenduse andmetel oli kõikidest alla 18-aastaste lastega perekondadest taasloodud perekondi kümnendik. Pool taasloodud perekondadest oli selliseid, kus kasvasid ainult naise alaealised lapsed. Arvestades, et lapsed jäävad sagedamini ema kasvatada, on ainult naise lastega taasloodud perede suur osatähtsus igati loomulik. Veidi vähem kui pooltes taasloodud peredes on peale mehe või naise laste kasvamas ka ühine laps või lapsed (joonis 1.4). Ainult mehe lastega peresid oli kõikidest taasloodud peredest vaid 2%.

Joonis 1.4 **Alaealiste lastega taasloodud perekonnad, 2000<sup>a</sup>**  
 Figure 1.4 **Reconstituted families with children aged under 18, 2000<sup>a</sup>**



<sup>a</sup> Rahvaloenduse andmed.  
<sup>a</sup> Data of the Population Census.



### Alaealiste poiste ja tüdrukute kasvukeskkond on samasugune

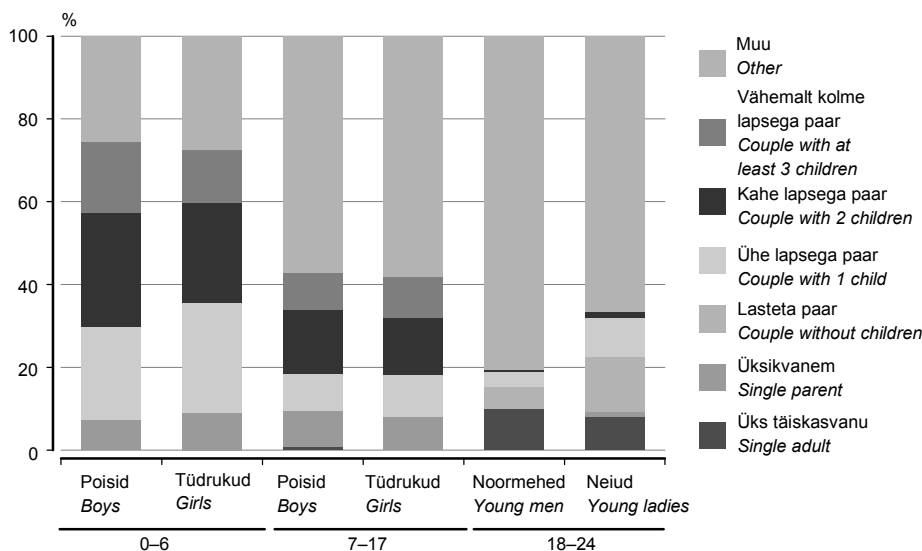
Kuni 18-aastaseks saamiseni ei ole poiste ja tüdrukute leibkondlikus kuuluvuses suuri erinevusi. 0–6-aastased poisid kuuluvad pigem kahe lapsega ning sama vanad tüdrukud ühe lapsega peredesse. Ühes leibkonnatüübis on 4% rohkem poisse ja teises sama palju rohkem tüdrukuid. Kolme lapsega peredes on 4% rohkem poisse. Suur osa lapsi kuulub muudesse leibkonnatüüpidesse (näiteks mitme põlvkonnaga leibkonnad). 7–17-aastaste laste seas on järsult suurenenud muudes leibkonnatüüpidel elavate laste osa, see on ligi 58%. Ka selles vanuses on tüdrukute ja poiste jaotumine leibkonnatüüpide vahel peaaegu võrdne.

Lapsena on siin käsitletud alla 16-aastasi leibkonnaliikmeid.

### 18–24-aastased tütarlapsed elavad koos elukaaslasega kaks korda sagedamini kui noormehed

18–24-aastaste noorte leibkondlikus kuuluvuses on suuremaid erinevusi. Selles vanuses alustatakse oma elu ja lahkutakse vanematekodust. Mehed ja naised käituvad selles suhtes erinevalt. Tütarlapsed lahkuvad vanematekodust kiiremini ja alustavad ka paarilisega kooselu varem kui noormehed — 18–24-aastastest tütarlastest elab juba koos elukaaslasega 13%, noormeestest ainult 5%. 18–24-aastastel paarina elavatel neidudel on ka laps juba 10%-l, noormeestel vaid 4%-l. Üksinda elab 2% rohkem mehi kui naisi.

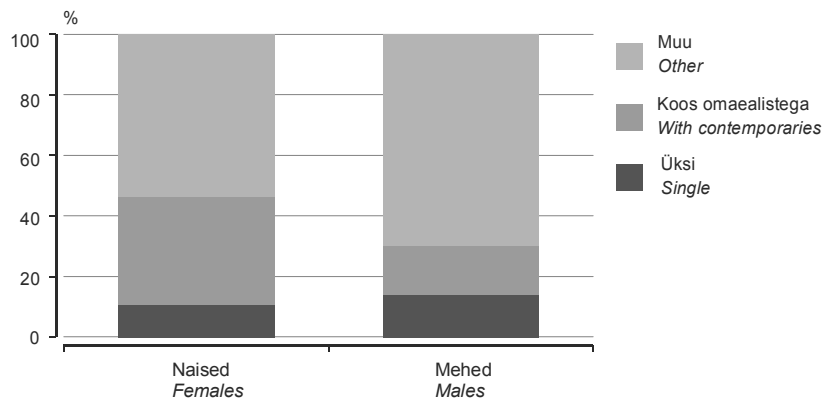
Joonis 1.5 **Naised ja mehed vanuse ja leibkonnatüübi järgi, 2005**  
Figure 1.5 *Women and men by age and household type, 2005*



### Peaaegu pool 20–24-aastastest naistest elab üksi või koos omavanustega

Vanematekodust lahkumise mediaanvanus on püsinud 20,5 aasta juures. Seega iseloomustab 20–24-aastasi noori teistsugune leibkondlik kontekst kui 18–24-aastasi — 2005. aastal elas 38% 20–24-aastastest naistest ja meestest vanematest eraldi. Ka selles vanuserühmas oli eraldi elavate naiste protsent suurem kui meestel. 20–24-aastastest naistest elas 2005. aastal üksi või koos 16–34-aastastega 46%, selliseid mehi oli vaid 30%.

Joonis 1.6 **20–24-aastased naised ja mehed leibkonnatüübi järgi, 2005**  
Figure 1.6 *Women and men aged 20–24 by household type, 2005*

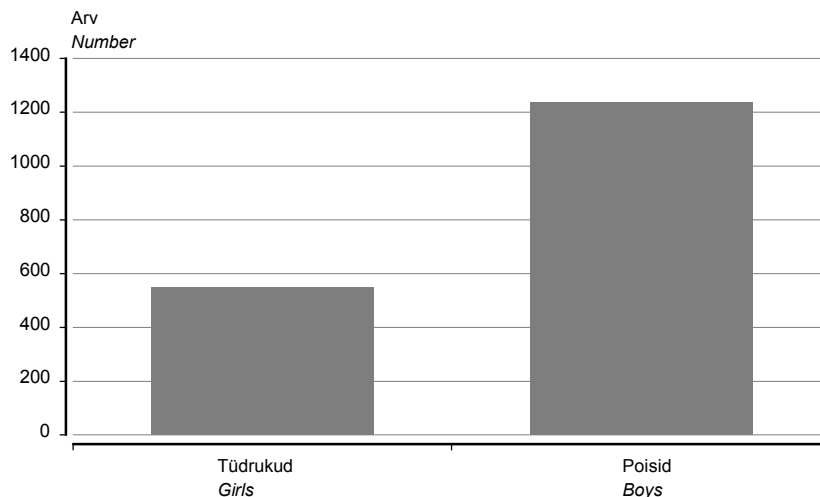


## 1.2. Haridustee

### Põhihariduses soolist eristumist ei esine

Põhihariduses soolist eristumist märgata ei ole. Kuni üheksanda klassini käib poisse ja tüdrukuid koolis peaaegu ühepalju. Siiski on murettekitav poiste suur väljalangemine koolist enne põhihariduse omandamist — 1235 poissi 547 tüdruku kohta (joonis 1.7).

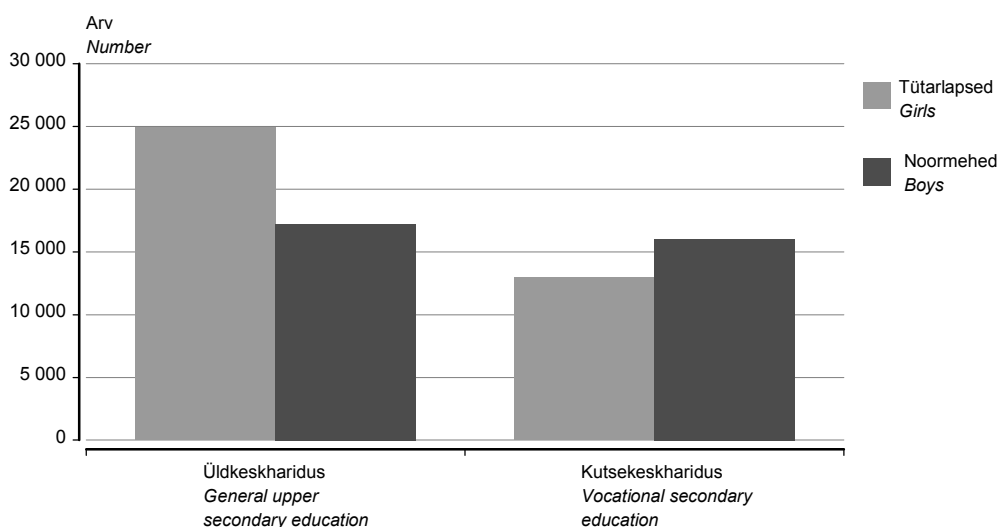
Joonis 1.7 Põhikooliõpingud katkestanud tüdrukud ja poisid päeva- ja õhtuõppes, 2003/2004  
 Figure 1.7 Dropouts from basic education in diurnal and evening type of study by gender, 2003/2004



Väljalangejate määr on suurim põhihariduse ülemisel astmel (7.–9. klass). Lõviosa väljalangejatest katkestavad õpingud koolikohustusliku ea lõppemise tõttu. Eesti õpilaste väljalangemine koolikohustuse täitmisest ei ole teiste Euroopa riikidega võrreldes suurem, samuti on ka enamikus teistes Euroopa Liidu riikides katkestajate hulgas rohkem poisse kui tüdrukuid.

Selgem sooline eristumine algab üldkeskhariduses, kus tüdrukuid on poistest juba mõnevõrra rohkem. Kutsekeskhariduses õpib aga rohkem poisse (joonis 1.8). Poiste alad kutsekeskhariduses on eelkõige loodus- ja täppisteadused, põllumajandus ning tehnika, tootmine ja ehitus.

Joonis 1.8 Tütarlapsed ja noormehed üld- ja kutsekeskhariduses, 2005  
 Figure 1.8 Girls and boys in general upper secondary education and in vocational secondary education, 2005



**Alates 17. eluaastast suureneb õppurite hulgas tütarlaste osatähtsus**

Kui vaadata kogu haridussüsteemis osalemist, siis algab sooline eristumine tüdrukute kasuks umbes 17. eluaastast, mil tüdrukute osatähtsus õppijate hulgas vanuse kasvades üha suureneb (tabel 1.3).

Tabel 1.3 **Õpingutega haaratud noorte vanuseline määr, 2005/2006<sup>a</sup>**  
Table 1.3 **Enrolment ratio for educational institutions, 2005/2006<sup>a</sup>**  
(õppeaasta alguses, protsenti — at the beginning of academic year, percentage)

Vanus Age	Kokku Total	Noormehed Males	Neiud Females
14	99,3	99,1	99,5
15	101,0	101,0	101,0
16	95,8	95,2	96,4
17	93,0	90,8	95,3
18	81,3	77,8	85,1
19	64,4	56,5	72,6
20	55,7	45,6	66,0
21	46,2	37,8	54,9
22	38,4	33,1	43,8
23	27,9	25,1	30,9
24	21,4	17,9	25,2
25	17,7	14,7	20,9

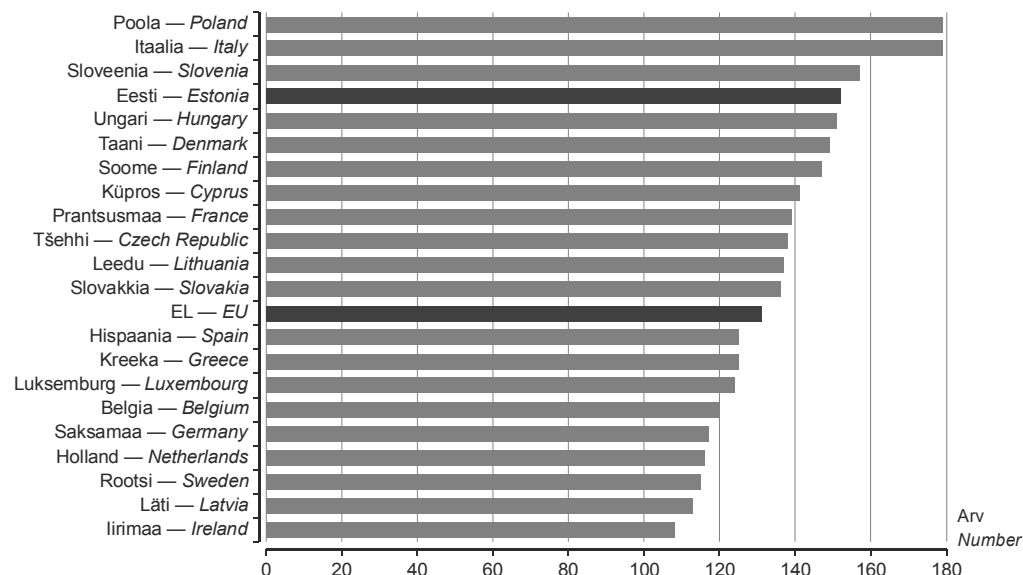
<sup>a</sup> Õppijate vanuselise määra arvutamiseks võrreldakse vastavas vanuses õppijate arvu samas vanuses elanike arvuga. Kasutatud on 2000. aasta rahvaloendusel põhinevat rahvaarvu, mille alakaetus võib olla vanuserühmades keskmiselt 1,2%. Seetõttu ulatub õpilaste määr mõnes vanuserühmas üle 100%.

<sup>a</sup> The enrolment ratio is the ratio of students of a certain age to the same age of population. The population number based on the 2000 Population Census has been used, the undercoverage of which in the age groups can be 1.2% on average. Therefore for some age groups the rate exceeds 100%.

**Eestis on üldkeskhariduse lõpetanud neidusid noormeeste kohta tunduvalt enam kui Euroopa Liidus keskmiselt**

Üldkeskhariduse lõpetanute hulgas on tütarlapsi juba tunduvalt rohkem kui noormehi ja nii ei ole see ainult Eestis, vaid ka teistes Euroopa Liidu riikides. Eestis on aga neide lõpetajate hulgas noormeestega võrreldes eriti palju — 2000. aastal 152 neidu 100 noormehe kohta. Euroopa Liidu keskmine näitaja on 131 (joonis 1.9).

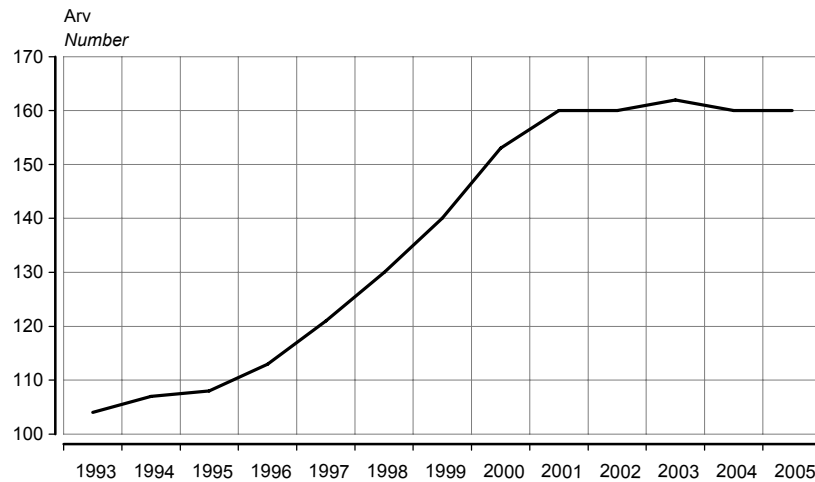
Joonis 1.9 **Naislõpetanuid 100 meeslõpetanu kohta üldkeskhariduses, 2000**  
Figure 1.9 **Female graduates per 100 male graduates in general upper secondary education, 2000**



Allikas: Eurostat, UOE (Suurbritannia, Austria, Malta ja Portugali andmed puuduvad).  
Source: Eurostat, UOE (data on United Kingdom, Austria, Malta and Portugal are missing).

Noormehi pääseb ka kõrgkooli vähem, sest sisseastumisel ei suuda nad neidudega konkureerida. 2005. aastal oli saja mehe kohta naissoost sissesaanuid 160. Kõrgharidust omandavate üliõpilaste koguarvust oli naisi 2005/2006. õppeaastal 61,6%. Naiste osatähtsus kõrghariduses suurenes 1990ndatel ja uue sajandi algul aasta-aastalt, viimasel viiel aastal on märgata aga stabiliseerumist (joonis 1.10).

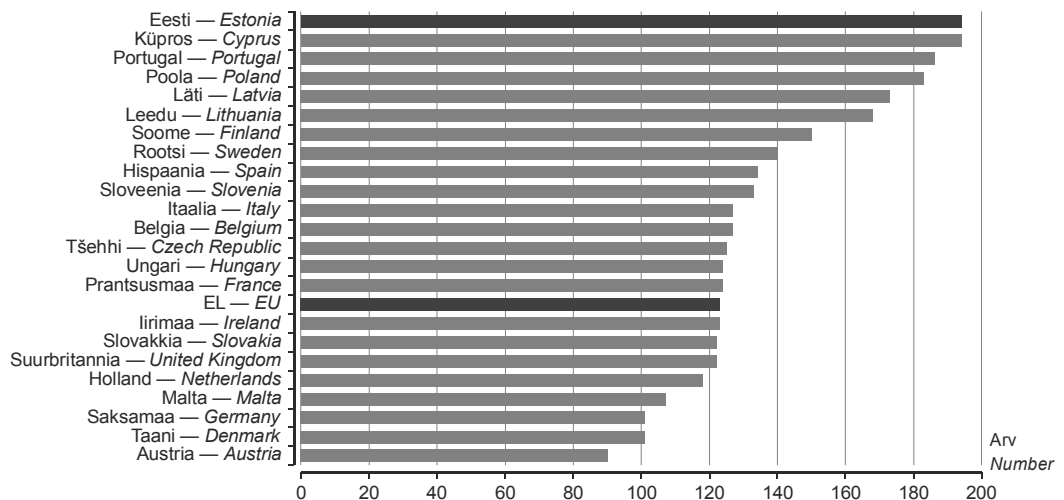
Joonis 1.10 **Naisi 100 mehe kohta akadeemilises ja rakenduskõrghariduses, 1993–2005**  
 Figure 1.10 *Female students per 100 male students in academic higher education and applied higher education, 1993–2005*



**Bakalaureuseõppes on naisi meestest rohkem viiendik, magistriõppes aga juba kolmandik**

Bakalaureuseõppes õppis 2005/2006. õppeaastal naisi 21% rohkem kui mehi, magistriõppes (sh integreeritud bakalaureuse- ja magistriõppes) aga koguni 30% rohkem. Doktorioõppes on seis suhteliselt võrdne — naisi õppis meestest vaid 6% rohkem. Soolise disproportsiooni tingib kindlasti ka tütarlastele suunatud õppekavade ülekaal. Näiteks bakalaureuseõppes domineerisid naised viies õppevaldkonnas kaheksast, kõige suurem oli neidude ülekaal hariduse (90% naisi) ning tervise ja heaolu õppevaldkonnas (89%). Noormehi õppis rohkem vaid tehnikas, tootmises ja ehituses (72% mehi), loodus- ja täppiseadustes (59%) ning põllumajanduses (58%).

Joonis 1.11 **Naisiõpetanuid 100 meesõpetanu kohta kõrghariduses (ISCED 5 ja 6), 2000**  
 Figure 1.11 *Women per 100 men graduating from tertiary education (ISCED 5 and 6), 2000*



Allikas: Eurostat, UOE (Kreeka ja Luksemburgi andmed puuduvad).  
 Source: Eurostat, UOE (data on Greece and Luxembourg are missing).

**Kõrghariduses lõpetab  
194 naist saja mehe  
kohta**

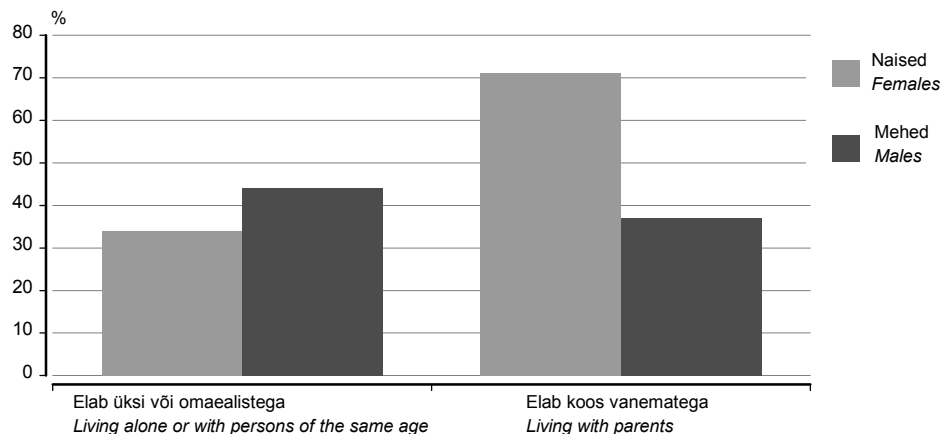
Paraku ei jää ka need noormehed, kellel on õnnestunud kõrgkooli sisse saada, sinna püsima. 2004/2005. õppeaastal katkestas õpingud 17,5% meesüliõpilastest, naisüliõpilastest katkestas samal õppeaastal vaid 11,6%. Peamine põhjus on siin ilmselt sotsiaalmajanduslikud tingimused. Paljud üliõpilased on sunnitud äraelamiseks käima õpingute kõrvalt kas osalise või isegi täiskoormusega tööl. Just meestelt oodatakse tihti rahateenimist, samuti on mehed tööturul naistega võrreldes otsitumad ja nõutumad (kui kõrgkoolides on rohkem tüdrukuid, siis tööturul on selles eas just rohkem noormehi).

Tulemuseks on, et kõrghariduses lõpetab palju rohkem naisi kui mehi. See tendents ei ole omane ainult Eestile, vaid peaaegu kõigile Euroopa Liidu riikidele (erandiks on Austria). Eesti jagab aga Küprosega lausa esikohta — 2000. aastal 194 naislõpetanut saja meeslõpetanu kohta (joonis 1.11).

**20–24-aastaste noorte õppimine ja töötamine leibkonnatüübi**

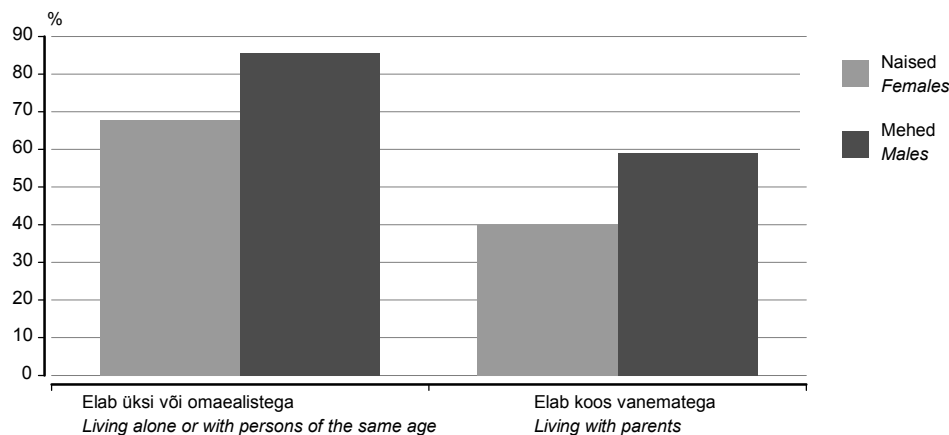
Vanematega koos elavaid ja õppivaid 20–24-aastasi naisi oli kaks korda rohkem kui omaette elavaid ja õppivaid naisi. Tervelt 71% vanematega koos elavatest naistest õppis. Noormeeste puhul õppisid pigem omaette elavad mehed. Vanematega koos elavatest meestest õppis 37% ning omaette elavatest 44%.

Joonis 1.12 **20–24-aastased haridust omandavad naised ja mehed leibkonnatüübi järgi, 2005**  
Figure 1.12 *Women and men aged 20–24 by household type in education, 2005*



2005. aastal oli tööga hõivatud 86% üksni või koos omaealiste noortega elavatest 20–24-aastastest meestest, koos vanematega elavatest meestest töötas vaid 59%. Naiste puhul kehtis sarnane seaduspära — vanematest eraldi elavatest naistest töötas 68% ning vanematekodus elavatest 40%.

Joonis 1.13 **20–24-aastased tööga hõivatud naised ja mehed leibkonnatüübi järgi, 2005**  
Figure 1.13 *Employed women and men aged 20–24 by household type, 2005*



### 1.3. Elustiil

#### Meeste ja naiste elukorraldus muutub sarnasemaks alles 25–29-aastaselt

Eestis on kodust lahkumise mediaanvanus püsinud 20,5 aasta juures, samas võib täheldada, et naised iseseisvuvad kiiremini kui mehed ning lahkuvad ka vanematekodust kiiremini. Mehed püsivad kauem vanematekodus ja elavad kauem üksi, naised seevastu lahkuvad kiiremini vanematekodust ja eelistavad kooselu elukaaslasega üksielamisele. Samasugune tendents on täheldatav ka teistes Euroopa Liidu riikides, kus juba noorukieas naised elavad enam väljaspool vanematekodu kui mehed. Naiste ja meeste käitumine muutub sarnasemaks vanuses 25–29, mil kümnendik naisi ja mehi elab üksinda, kolmandik (mehi veidi enam) elab koos vanematega ning 56–59% naistest-meestest (naisi veidi enam) elab koos elukaaslasega. Erinev elukorraldus ja elustiil toob kaasa ka erineva tarbimiskäitumise.

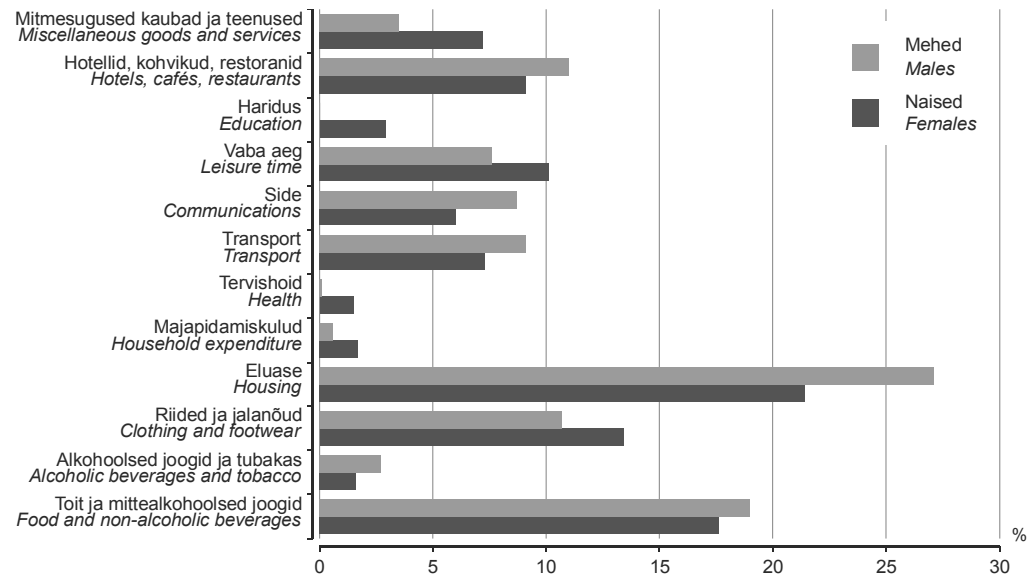
#### 1.3.1. Tarbimisstruktuur

#### 16–29-aastased naised kulutavad enam riidele, jalanõudele ja vabale ajale

16–29-aastastest elab üksinda üle viiendiku naistest ja peaaegu kolmandik meestest. Selles elutsüklis kulutavad naised kuus keskmiselt 5300 krooni ja mehed 4800 krooni. Kui vaadelda üksikute alla 30-aastaste tarbimisstruktuuri, võib ka siin täheldada naiste ja meeste käitumise erinevust. Naised kulutavad enam riidele ja jalanõudele ning vabale ajale, suuremad on kulutused ka majapidamisele ja tervishoiule, lisanduvad kulutused muudele kaupadele ja teenustele, kuhu alla lähevad ka kosmeetiku, juuksuri ja muud sellelaadsed teenused. Mehed kulutavad enam eluasemele ja toidule, samuti alkoholsetele jookidele ja tubakale, naistega võrreldes enam kulutavad mehed ka transpordile ja sidele ning suuremad on kohvikutes ja restoranides tehtavad kulutused. Selles elutsüklis peaaegu puuduvad meestel kulutused haridusele ja tervishoiule ning vähe kulutatakse ka majapidamisele. Tarbimisstruktuuri pildistus näitab, et juba noores eas pööravad mehed iseendale, oma tervisele ja haridusele ning selliste asjade väärtustamisele tunduvat vähem tähelepanu kui naised.

Joonis 1.14  
Figure 1.14

Üksikute alla 30-aastaste naiste ja meeste tarbimisstruktuur, 2005  
Consumption structure of single males and females aged under 30, 2005



Allikas: Statistikaamet, leibkonna eelarve uuring.  
Source: Statistics Estonia, Household Budget Survey.

#### 16–29-aastased mehed kulutavad alkoholsetele jookidele ja tubakale poolteist korda rohkem kui naised

Eesti 16–29-aastaste naiste ja meeste tarbimiskäitumine on sarnane Soome ja Suurbritannia samaealiste naiste ja meeste omaga, sealgi kulutavad mehed alkoholsetele jookidele ja tubakale peaaegu poolteist korda enam kui samas eas naised. Liikmesriikides on naiste ja meeste tarbimiskäitumine kulustruktuuri järgi sarnane (näiteks naised kulutavad enam riidele ja jalanõudele kui mehed).

**Mehed ostavad enam tehnikat kui naised**

Kuigi meestel on peaaegu kõigis elutsüklites naistega võrreldes tund aega enam vaba aega, on kulutused vabale ajale meestel 1,3 korda väiksemad kui naistel. Ka naiste ja meeste kulutuste struktuur on erinev. Naiste vaba aja kulutustest ühe viiendiku hõlmavad valmisreisid, mehed valmisreisidele raha peaaegu ei kuluta, küll aga on nende vaba aja kulutustes suur osatähtsus muudel kultuurikaupadel ja teenustel, mille alla kuulub ka videotehnika, arvutite jms tehnika ostmine. Seega võib öelda, et mehed on altimad tehnikat ostma kui naised.

**Koos vanematega elavad alla 25-aastased mehed kulutavad haridusele enam**

Eraldi võib vaadelda vanematega koos elavate alla 25-aastaste naiste ja meeste tarbimist. On selge, et kooselamine võimaldab noortel oma tarbimisstruktuuri nihutada enam oma kasuks, üldine tarbimise jaotus seda ei kajasta. Üksinda elavate meestega võrreldes kulutavad alla 25-aastased vanematega koos elavad mehed tunduvalt rohkem haridusele, seda ka samas elutsüklis naistega võrreldes. Niisiis võib öelda, et selles vanuses koos vanematega elavad noormehed õpivad ega ole kodust väljunud. Kui üksikudel noormeestel on vaba aja kulutused väiksemad kui samas eas tütarlastel, siis koos vanematega elavatel noormeestel on sama elukorraldusega tütarlastega võrreldes vaba aja kulutused suuremad. Koos vanematega elavad tütarlapsed kulutavad aga rohkem kohviku- ja restoraniteenustele kui noormehed. Huvitav on ka see, et selles elutsüklis on naiste ja meeste tarbimisstruktuuri erinevused väiksemad kui üksinda elavatel alla 30-aastastel.

Tabel 1.4 **Alla 25-aastaste koos vanematega elavate naiste kulutuste osatähtsus sama elukorraldusega meeste kulutustes, 2005**

Table 1.4 *Share of expenditure of women aged under 25 living together with parents in the expenditure of men of the same life arrangement, 2005*

Kulutuse liik	%	Type of expenditure
Toit ja mittealkohoolsed joogid	92,4	Miscellaneous goods and services
Alkohoolsed joogid ja tubakas	82,4	Hotels, cafés, restaurants
Riided ja jalanõud	104,3	Education
Eluase	150,4	Leisure time
Majapidamiskulud	120,8	Communications
Tervishoid	101,5	Transport
Transport	82,2	Health
Side	106,6	Household expenditure
Vaba aeg	87,3	Housing
Haridus	42,5	Clothing and footwear
Hotellid, kohvikud, restoranid	157,2	Alcoholic beverages and tobacco
Mitmesugused kaubad ja teenused	113,6	Food and non-alcoholic beverages

Allikas: Statistikaamet, leibkonna eelarve uuring.  
Source: Statistics Estonia, Household Budget Survey.

**1.3.2. Laste ja noorte tervisekäitumine**

Siin on kasutatud Maailma Terviseorganisatsiooni egiidi all 11-, 13- ja 15-aastaste koolinoorte seas nelja-aastase intervalliga korraldatava koolilaste tervisekäitumise uuringu (*Health Behaviour in School-aged Children*) viimaseid kättesaadavaid rahvusvahelisi võrdlusandmeid aastast 2001/2002. Uus uuring toimus õppeaastal 2005/2006, neid andmeid ei ole võimalik veel kasutada. 16–24-aastaste tervisekäitumise analüüsimiseks kasutati 2004. aasta Euroopa sotsiaaluuringu ja Eesti täiskasvanud rahvastiku tervisekäitumise uuringu andmeid.

Oluline terviseemasid käsitlevate uuringute näitaja on tervisehinnang, mille puhul mõeldakse elanike subjektiivset hinnangut oma tervisele.

**Tütarlapsed hindavad oma tervist kehvemaks kui noormehed**

Eesti elanikud hindavad oma tervist suhteliselt halvemaks kui teiste Euroopa riikide elanikud. Laste puhul kehtib sama tendents — nende osatähtsus, kes hindavad oma tervist kehvaks või keskmiseks, on Eesti laste hulgas suurem. Nii 11-, 13- kui ka 15-aastaste hulgas on tühikud need, kes annavad oma tervisele madalama hinnangu ning vanusega kasvab oluliselt nende neidude osatähtsus, kes oma tervist kehvaks hindavad. Niisiis on tühikutel oma tervisele suuremad probleemid kui poistel ning kohati on madalama tervisehinnanguga tühikutel osatähtsus kaks korda suurem kui poiste vastav näitaja. Tegemist ei ole Eestile eriomase nähtusega, samasugune trend valitseb kogu Euroopas.

Tabel 1.5 **Keskmise ja halva tervisehinnanguga koolinoored soo ja vanuse järgi, 2001/2002**  
 Table 1.5 *School-aged children with medium and bad health assessment by sex and age, 2001/2002*  
 (protsenti — percentage)

	11-aastased Aged 11		13-aastased Aged 13		15-aastased Aged 15		
	M/M	N/F	M/M	N/F	M/M	N/F	
Eesti	11,4	16,8	16,7	16,9	15,7	27,5	<i>Estonia</i>
Leedu	23,4	35,3	23,1	40,4	25,1	47,2	<i>Lithuania</i>
Läti	19,4	26,7	20,0	31,6	23,7	43,2	<i>Latvia</i>
Norra	12,5	18,2	14,9	17,7	20,4	27,2	<i>Norway</i>
Rootsi	9,4	9,9	10,1	14,7	12,2	23,0	<i>Sweden</i>
Soome	7,2	9,1	8,7	12,6	12,4	15,9	<i>Finland</i>
Taani	10,9	14,5	9,3	19,1	15,3	19,6	<i>Denmark</i>
Ukraina	27,2	43,7	30,0	53,9	31,5	63,1	<i>Ukraine</i>
Venemaa	22,3	34,4	22,2	40,9	27,2	44,3	<i>Russia</i>

Allikas: Currie et al 2004.  
 Source: Currie et al 2004.

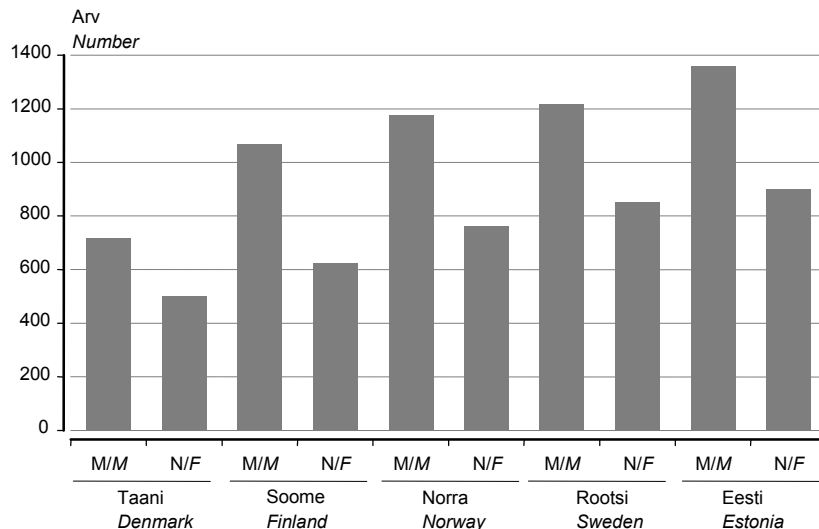
Tüdrukute madalama tervisehinnangu põhjusena on nimetatud nende sotsiaalse ja kehalise küpsemisega seonduvat, mistõttu on tütarlapsed emotsionaalselt vastuvõtlikumad, kriitilisemat suhtumist oma kehasse ning menstruatsiooni algusega seotud ebameeldivusi, mis kokkuvõttes mõjutavad tugevalt tervisele antavat hinnangut. Ühe põhjusena on toodud esile ka soostereotüüpidest tulenevaid erinevusi. Kurtmine ei ole tavapäraselt aktsepteeritud mehelik käitumine, mistõttu arvatakse, et noormeeste puhul on kehvade enesetunde osatähtsus alahinnatud.

Kõige suurem on selliste noorte osatähtsus, kes oma tervist kas kehvaks või keskmiseks hindavad, Ukrainas, Venemaal ja Leedus. Vanusega kasvab kõigis uuringus osalenud 33 riigis selliste laste arv, kes hindavad oma tervist muul viisil kui hea või väga hea. Meie lähimatest naabritest on Põhjamaades laste hinnang oma tervisele tunduvalt parem kui Eestis või ülejäänud Baltimaades. Ainult Norras hindavad 11- ja 15-aastased poisid ja tüdrukud oma tervist kehvemaks kui samas vanuses lapsed Eestis.

Laste tervise suuremaid probleeme Eestis on liiga suur vigastuste arv. Eestis on vigastusest või mürgistusest põhjustatud tervisehädaga haiglaravil rohkem lapsi kui Põhjamaades. 2003. aastal oli Eestis 1360 vigastust ja mürgistust 100 000 poisi kohta ning 900 vigastust ja mürgistust 100 000 tüdruku kohta (0–14-aastased).

**0–14-aastased poisid on poolteist korda enam vigastuste ja mürgistuste tõttu haiglaravil kui samas eas tüdrukud**

Joonis 1.15 **Vigastuste või mürgistusega haiglaravil olnuid 100 000 lapse kohta soo järgi (0–14-aastased), 2003**  
 Figure 1.15 *Children who have undergone hospital treatment due to health problems caused by injuries or poisoning per 100,000 children (aged 0–14) by sex, 2003*



Allikas: Health in Statistics in the Nordic Countries 2003, NOMESCO 73:2005; Sotsiaalministeerium.  
 Source: Health in Statistics in the Nordic Countries 2003, NOMESCO 73:2005; Ministry of Social Affairs of Estonia.



Tervisehinnangut mõjutab tervisekäitumine, mis seondub nii kehalise aktiivsuse, toitumise, regulaarse tervisekontrolli kui ka riskikäitumisega (suitsetamine, alkoholi ja narkootikumide tarbimine jms), millega on omakorda tihedalt seotud individuaalne tervisehinnang ja tervelt elatud eluaastate arv. Tervelt elatud eluaastate arvu paremaks interpreteerimiseks on oluline vaadata riskikäitumist lähemalt. Selle analüüsimisel ilmnevad soolised erinevused kõige selgemini.

**Eestis suitsetab 11-aastastest tütarlastest 15% — peaaegu kaks korda rohkem kui Soomes**

Suitsetamine on tervist kahjustava riskikäitumise alaliik. Mida nooremalt suitsetama hakatakse, seda ulatuslikumalt mõjutab see tervist. Kogu Euroopas kasvab igapäevasuitsetajatest naiste, eriti just noorte naiste arv ning sellest tulenevalt ka hingamisteede haigusi põdevate naiste osatähtsus. Laste hulgas on samuti märgata suitsetavate tütarlaste osatähtsuse suurenemist, Põhjamaades ületab see kohati juba noormeeste vastava näitaja.

Tabel 1.6 **Kunagi elus suitsetanud noored soo ja vanuse järgi, 2001/2002**  
Table 1.6 *Young people having smoked at least once by age and sex, 2001/2002*  
(protsenti — percentage)

	11-aastased Aged 11		13-aastased Aged 13		15-aastased Aged 15		
	M/M	N/F	M/M	N/F	M/M	N/F	
Eesti	37,0	15,1	68,9	46,2	80,5	65,0	Estonia
Leedu	42,0	24,9	73,9	50,3	88,7	72,7	Lithuania
Läti	42,2	16,9	73,1	49,7	82,6	70,9	Latvia
Norra	12,1	10,8	36,3	39,5	60,2	65,6	Norway
Rootsi	12,9	8,0	39,9	33,7	59,6	56,1	Sweden
Soome	17,6	7,9	46,5	45,6	65,2	70,8	Finland
Taani	15,0	9,2	38,7	31,8	54,7	60,5	Denmark

Allikas: Currie *et al* 2004.  
Source: Currie *et al* 2004.

Tubakatoodete tarbimisele on paljudes riikides seatud vanusepiirangud. Eestis on tubaka-seaduse järgi suitsetamine alla 18-aastastele keelatud, samuti on keelatud neile tubakatooteid müüa. Keelust hoolimata on üle nelja viiendiku noormeestest ja kolm viiendikku neidudest tõmmanud 15. eluaastaks vähemalt ühe sigareti või sigari.

**Eestis on vähemalt korra suitsetanud poiste osatähtsus umbes kolmandiku suurem kui tütarlastel**

Eestis on vähemalt korra suitsetanud poiste osatähtsus kolmandiku kuni poole suurem kui vastavas eas tüdrukutel. Sarnane on pilt ka Lätis ja Leedus, kuid Põhjamaade noored erinevad oma käitumise poolest Eesti, Läti ja Leedu eakaaslastest. Soomes, Rootsis ja Taanis on vähemalt kord elus tubakatooteid tarvitanud tüdrukute osatähtsus väiksem kui poiste vastav näitaja ainult 11- ja 13-aastaste hulgas. Norra on siin erandiks, sest seal oli õppeaastal 2001/2002 vähemalt korra elus suitsu proovinute seas tüdrukuid proportsionaalselt rohkem kui poisse alates 13. eluaastast. Soomes ja Taanis jõuti samasuguse tulemuseni 15. eluaastaks ning ainult Rootsi puhul oli poiste vastav riskikäitumise näitaja kõigis vanuserühmades tüdrukute omast suurem. Vähemalt kord elus suitsetanute arv näitab terviseriskiga rahvastiku olemasolu, kuid pikaajalist ning terviseseisundit olulisemalt mõjutavat käitumist saab analüüsida, kui võtta aluseks teine oluline terviseriski indikaator — igapäevasuitsetajate olemasolu noorte hulgas.

Tabel 1.7 **Igapäevasuitsetajad soo ja vanuse järgi, 2001/2002**  
Table 1.7 *Daily smokers by sex and age, 2001/2002*  
(protsenti — percentage)

	11-aastased Aged 11		13-aastased Aged 13		15-aastased Aged 15		
	M/M	N/F	M/M	N/F	M/M	N/F	
Eesti	1,5	0,3	7,6	3,9	23,3	11,6	Estonia
Leedu	1,2	0,5	6,2	3,6	26,6	11,2	Lithuania
Läti	0,5	0,3	8,8	2,5	21,8	14,4	Latvia
Norra	0,2	0,4	3,1	4,3	15,6	19,9	Norway
Rootsi	0,0	0,0	2,8	3,9	5,7	13,8	Sweden
Soome	0,3	0,1	6,6	6,1	23,3	22,1	Finland
Taani	0,0	0,2	3,0	2,8	13,7	15,8	Denmark

Allikas: Currie *et al* 2004.  
Source: Currie *et al* 2004.

**Eestis on 11-aastaste noormeeste seas igapäevasuitsetajaid viis korda enam kui Soomes**

Eestis, Lätis ja Leedus on igapäevasuitsetajate seas rohkem noormehi. Rootsis, Taanis ja Norras jällegi on 13- ja 15-aastaste seas pigem rohkem iga päev suitsetavaid tütarlapsi. Üldiselt näitab trend seda, et mida rohkem on tubakatooteid vähemalt korra elus proovinuid, seda rohkem leidub ka iga päev suitsetavaid noori. Põhjamaadest on eriti suur igapäevasuitsetajatest neidude osatähtsus Soomes ja Eestiski kasvab see näitaja pidevalt, kuid jääb lähiaastatel ilmselt siiski noormeeste osatähtsusele alla.

Vigastuste ja mürgistuste suurem esinemissagedus noorte, sealhulgas suhteliselt rohkem poiste kui tüdrukute seas, on muu hulgas seotud nii alkoholi kui ka narkootikumide kasutamisega. Eesti noorte alkoholitarbimine jääb alla koolilaste tervisekäitumise uuringus osalenud riikide keskmise, kuid on siiski suhteliselt suur Läti või Põhjamaadega kõrvutades. Leedul selle näitaja kohta andmeid ei ole. Regulaarselt (vähemalt kord nädalas) alkoholi tarbivate tüdrukute ja poiste osatähtsus kõigis kolmes vanusegrupis on võrreldud riikide seas suurim Taanis. Sageli alkoholi tarbivate noormeeste ja neidude hulk on väga range alkoholipoliitikaga Soomes muu Euroopa eakaaslastega võrreldes üsna väike, kuigi näiteks suitsetajate osatähtsus noorte hulgas on Soomes suur.

Tabel 1.8 **Regulaarselt (vähemalt kord nädalas) alkoholi tarbinud soo ja vanuse järgi, 2001/2002**  
 Table 1.8 **Regular (at least once a week) alcohol drinkers by sex and age, 2001/2002**  
 (protsenti — percentage)

	11-aastased		13-aastased		15-aastased		
	Aged 11		Aged 13		Aged 15		
	M/M	N/F	M/M	N/F	M/M	N/F	
Eesti	6,5	2,8	12,1	7,6	29,7	18,1	Estonia
Leedu	...	...	...	...	...	...	Lithuania
Läti	3,7	1,0	10,7	5,5	19,4	14,6	Latvia
Norra	2,7	1,2	8,1	5,6	20,3	19,2	Norway
Rootsi	6,0	1,8	11,8	8,0	23,2	16,8	Sweden
Soome	2,9	1,0	7,3	7,4	18,1	15,5	Finland
Taani	4,0	1,7	15,2	7,5	49,7	43,6	Denmark
Uuringuriikide keskmine	7,3	3,0	15,3	9,2	34,3	23,9	Average of HBSC countries

Allikas: Currie et al 2004.  
 Source: Currie et al 2004.

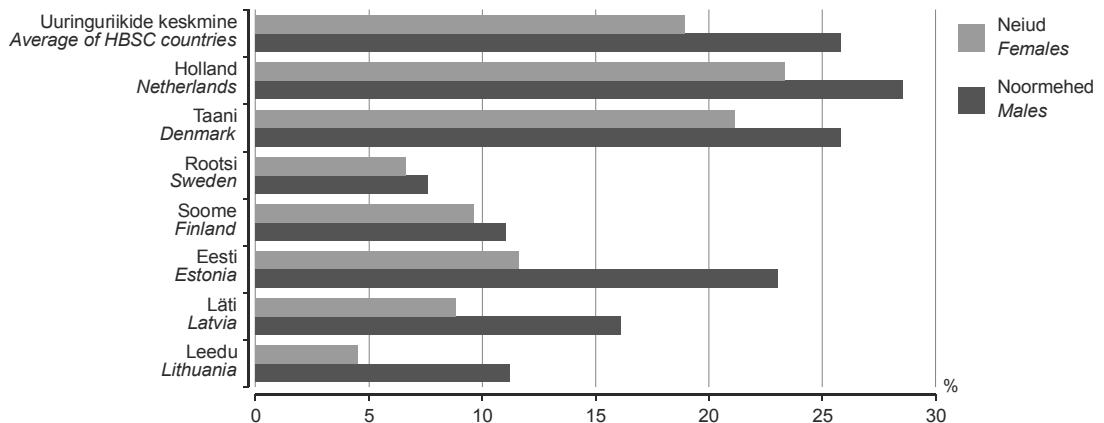
**Noormehed on aktiivsemad alkohoolsete jookide tarbijad kui neid**

Alkoholsete jookide puhul on kõigis uuringus osalenud riikides selge tendents, et noormehed on aktiivsemad tarvitajad kui neid (erinevalt näiteks suitsetamisest, kus ilmnesid vanuse kasvades vastupidised arengud). Suhteliselt uutes demokraatlikes riikides nagu Baltimaad on neidude tervist kahjustava käitumise osatähtsus noormeeste omast väiksem, ent nii nagu suitsetamise, võib ka alkoholi tarbimise puhul üsna suure kindlusega eeldada kasvutrendi, kui ei toimu muudatusi riigi üsna liberaalses alkoholipoliitikas.

**Peaaegu veerand Eesti 15-aastastest noormeestest on tarvitanud kanepit**

Rahvusvaheliselt mõõdetakse narkootiliste ainete tarvitamist kanepi kasutamise järgi, sest üldjuhul alustatakse tutvust narkootikumidega just sellest. Vähemalt korra elus kanepit tarvitanud 15-aastaste poiste ja tüdrukute osatähtsus oli suurim Suurbritannias, samuti oli see suur Šveitsis ja Ameerika Ühendriikides. Eesti jäi riikide võrdluses teise kolmandiku lõppu ja meist tagapool olid nii Läti, Leedu kui ka Põhjamaad (v.a Taani).

Joonis 1.16 **Kanepit tarvitanud 15-aastased noormehed ja neid, 2001/2002**  
 Figure 1.16 **Young people aged 15 having consumed cannabis, 2001/2002**



Allikas: Currie et al 2004.  
 Source: Currie et al 2004.

Erinevalt tubakatoodetest on kanepi tarvitajate hulgas meessoos esindajaid rohkem. Võiks arvata, et Hollandis, kus kanepi tarvitamine ei ole illegaalne, on seda proovinud noorte osatähtsus suur. Holland jääb aga riikide pingereas teise kolmandiku algusesse — üle veerandi 15-aastastest noormeestest ning alla veerandi samavanadest neidudest on seal kanepit proovinud.

Terviseseisundit saab analüüsida ka kaaluindeksi abil.

Kehamassiindeks on samuti rahvusvaheliselt võrreldav indikaator, mis arvutatakse kehakaalu jagamisel pikkuse ruuduga.

Tervise seisukohalt peetakse kõige sobilikumaks kehakaalu, mille tulemusena jääb indeksi väärtus vahemikku 20–24,9. Kui indeks on alla 20, loetakse inimest alakaaluliseks, kaaluindeks 25–29,9 näitab, et tegemist on ülekaaluga, ning rasvumise korral on indeksi väärtus 30 või suurem.

2001/2002. õppeaastal oli Eestis ülekaalulisi või rasvunud poisse nii 13- kui ka 15-aastaste seas alla kümne protsendi ja tüdrukuid mõlemas vanuserühmas alla viie protsendi. Laste ülekaalulisus ei ole meil veel nii terav probleem kui mujal maailmas. Tunduvalt suurem kui Eestis on ülekaaluliste laste osatähtsus Põhjamaades, väiksem aga Lätis ja Leedus.

**16–24-aastased noormehed on ülekaalu või rasvumisega üle kahe korra enam kimpus kui naised**

2004. aasta Eesti täiskasvanud rahvastiku tervisekäitumise uuringu andmetel oli 16–24-aastaste meeste keskmine kaaluindeks 22,4 ja naistel 20,9. Samas oli rohkem kui kahel viiendikul (42,3%) küsitlud noortest naistest kehakaal väiksem, kui on tervislik. Noorte meeste hulgas alakaalulisus nii levinud ei ole (17,9%). Ülekaalu või rasvumisega olid enam kimpus pigem noored mehed kui naised (vastavalt 16,4% ja 6,9%). Ülekaaluliste arv on noorte naiste hulgas aastatega vähenenud ja meeste hulgas veidi suurenenud. Küsitlusele eelnenud 12 kuu jooksul oli kaalulangetamiseks dieeti pidanud 3,6% noortest meestest ja 19,1% naistest. Naised on meedia loodud ideaalsele kehapildile vastuvõtlikumad, seetõttu pööravad kehakaalule suuremat tähelepanu ning selle äärmuslikust vormist tingitud söömishäired on levinud peamiselt nooremate naiste seas.

2004. aasta andmetel võib väita, et tervisesporti harrastab rohkem kui kord nädalas vähemalt poole tunni vältel 16–24-aastastest meestest peaaegu 60% ja sama vanadest naistest 45%. Seega on mehed sportlikumad kui naised ja naised hoiavad end suhteliselt sagedamini vormis (või alavormis) dieetide abil.

Oma tervisele andis keskmise hinnangu 10,6% naistest ja 13,9% meestest vanuses 16–24. Halvaks või väga halvaks hindasid oma tervist selles vanuses noored väga harva. Seega on puberteedieas koolinoored oma tervist hinnates tunduvalt kriitilisemad, osaliselt võib see olla seotud sel ajal toimuvate ealiste muutustega ning noore emotsionaalse ja sotsiaalse kohanemisega. Erinevalt 11–15-aastastest koolilastest on 16–24-aastaste noorte puhul oma tervist paremaks hinnanud pigem noored naised kui mehed. Mõlema soo esindajatest alla 17% kinnitab, et neil on mõni pikaajaline terviseprobleem, ja ligikaudu üheksa protsenti naistest ning iga kümnes 16–24-aastane mees leiab, et tervise tõttu on tema igapäevategevused mõningal määral piiratud.

**Mehed surevad küll nooremalt, kuid elavad kauem tervena**

Tervist kahjustava käitumise tulemused ilmnevad kõige selgemini, kui kõrvutada noormeeste ja neidude tervelt elatud eluaastaid. Kuigi tütarlaste keskmine eluiga sünnimomendil ja edaspidi on rohkem kui kümme aastat pikem poiste keskmisest oodatavast elueast, näitab tervelt elatud eluea suhe keskmisesse eluikka seda, et naised naudivad tervena elatud elu lühemat aega kui mehed. Mehed surevad küll nooremalt, ent elavad kauem tervena. Siin on seos nende riskialtimate käitumisega, samuti vigastussurmade sagedasema esinemisega just meeste hulgas. Pikemast elueast tingituna on naistel rohkem tervisehädasid, sealhulgas kroonilisi haigusi, mis vähendavad tervelt elatud eluaastate arvu.

Nagu eespool mainitud, kinnitab noortest meestest iga kümnes terviseiga seotud piirangute olemasolu igapäevategevustes. Sellest tulenevalt on tervelt elatud eluaastate arv Euroopa sotsiaaluuringu andmete põhjal tehtud arvutustele tuginedes 20-aastastel meestel 31,5 ja naistel 34,4 aastat. Hoolimata suuremast aastate arvust naiste puhul on selles vanuses meeste tervelt elatud eluaastate osatähtsus keskmises oodatavas elueas 8% suurem kui naistel. Selline tendents kestab 40. eluaastani, mil vahe hakkab veelgi kasvama, olles vanurieas meestel juba ligikaudu kaks korda suurem. Hoolimata varasemas eas suremisest jääb meeste elukvaliteet naiste omast paremaks, sest lühema elu jooksul on pikaajaliste haiguste põdemise risk väiksem — tavaliselt kasvab see just vanaduspõlves (tabel 1.9).

Tabel 1.9 Oodatav eluiga, tervelt elatud eluaastad ning tervelt elatud eluaastate osatähtsus soo ja vanuse järgi, 2004

Table 1.9 Life expectancy, healthy life years and the share of healthy years by sex and age, 2004

Mehed Males				Naised Females			
vanus age	oodatav eluiga life expectancy	tervelt elatud eluaastad healthy life years	tervelt elatud eluaastaid oodatavas elueas, % healthy life years in life expectancy, %	vanus age	oodatav eluiga life expectancy	tervelt elatud eluaastad healthy life years	tervelt elatud eluaastaid oodatavas elueas, % healthy life years in life expectancy, %
0	66,2	49,2	74,2	0	77,8	52,5	67,4
5	61,8	44,9	72,7	5	73,4	48,1	65,6
10	56,8	40,3	70,8	10	68,4	43,5	63,5
15	51,9	35,6	68,6	15	63,5	38,8	61,1
20	47,2	31,5	66,7	20	58,6	34,4	58,7
25	42,7	27,5	64,5	25	53,7	30,1	56,1
30	38,2	23,9	62,6	30	48,8	26,0	53,3
35	33,9	20,1	59,3	35	44,0	22,3	50,6
40	29,6	16,6	56,0	40	39,2	18,4	46,8
45	25,6	13,4	52,4	45	34,6	14,6	42,1
50	21,9	10,7	48,6	50	30,1	11,4	38,0
55	18,6	8,1	43,4	55	25,8	8,6	33,2
60	15,4	5,9	37,9	60	21,7	6,4	29,6
65	12,7	4,3	33,9	65	17,7	4,4	25,0
70	10,2	3,2	31,6	70	13,9	2,8	20,4
75	8,0	2,5	31,6	75	10,5	1,8	17,4
80	6,1	1,9	31,6	80	7,6	1,3	17,4

Allikas: Statistikaamet, Euroops sotsiaaluuring.

Source: Statistics Estonia, EU Survey on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC).

Alla 14-aastaste poiste ja tüdrukute haigestumine näitab, et kõige sagedamini esinevad haigusrühmad on samad, kuid haiguste esikolmik sõltub soost. Esikohal on nii tüdrukute kui ka poiste seas hingamisteede haigused, mida esineb keskmiselt 120–140 haigusjuhtu 100 000 poisi või tüdruku kohta aastas. Üsna ootuspäraselt on poiste puhul haigestumuse pingereas teisel kohal vigastused ja mürgistused, mis 0–14-aastaste tüdrukute puhul on alles viiendal kohal. Järgmised kaks sagedamini esinevat haigusrühma peale hingamisteede haiguste on tüdrukutel naha- ja nahaaluskoe ning nakkushaigused, poistel aga hõivavad kolmanda-neljanda koha kõrva- ja nibujätkehaigused ning nakkushaigused. 15–24-aastaste hulgas on märgata mõningat haigestumusstruktuuri muutust. Meestel on esikohal taas hingamiselundite haigused ja teisel kohal vigastused ja mürgistused. Naistel järgnevad hingamiselundite haigustele kuse- ja suguelundite haigused. Sageduselt kolmandana esinevad meestel lihaskonna ja sidekoe haigused, naistel aga nakkushaigused.

**16–24-aastaste seas on iga päev suitsetavaid noormehi kaks korda enam kui neidusid**

Analüüsid tervisekäitumise seisukohalt riskialust rahvastikku, selgub, et igapäeva-suitsetajatest meeste osatähtsus on 16–24-aastaste seas alates aastast 2000, kui sellesse gruppi kuulus iga kolmas vastavas vanuses mees, aeglaselt suurenenud ning 2004. aasta andmed näitavad, et iga päev suitsetavaid noori mehi on 41,6%. Naiste näitaja oli 2004. aastal peaaegu poole väiksem — 21,4%, kuid alates aastast 2000 on nende osatähtsus samuti suurenenud. Muu maailma suundumuste põhjal võib eeldada, et tõusutrend jätkub ja pigem kasvab kiiremini just suitsetavate naiste osatähtsus.

**Peaaegu pooled 16–24-aastased noormehed pruugivad alkoholi vähemalt kord nädalas või tihedamini**

Kui kuni 15-aastasi noormehi, kes kord nädalas või sagedamini alkoholi tarbisid, oli peaaegu 30%, siis 16–24-aastastest meestest joob nädalas korra või tihedamini alkoholi 48,3%. Naiste hulgas on nii sagedast alkoholi tarbimist vähem — 28,4%. Noorte meeste oluliselt suuremat alkoholilembust iseloomustab ka see, et üsna sageli juuakse korraga vähemalt kuus alkoholiannust.

Kuus alkoholiannust võrdub kuue pitsi kange alkoholi, kuue pokaali veini või kuue pudeli õllega.

Kord kuus või sagedamini kuue alkoholiannuse joomist kinnitab 44,3% uuringus osalenud 16–24-aastastest meestest ja 16,1% samaealistest naistest. Kuue annuse alkoholi korraga tarbimist peetakse suureks terviseriskiks.

Maailma Terviseorganisatsiooni ekspertide arvamusele tuginedes on liigse alkoholi tarbimisega kimpus ühiskondade puhul kõige efektiivsem (mõjususe ja kulude vähesuse seisukohalt) alkoholiaktsiisi suurendamine ja reklaamipiirangu seadustamine. Maksustamine

on kõige efektiivsem rahvatervist hõlmava poliitika vastus koormusele, sealhulgas haiguskoormusele, mis tekib liigsest alkoholitarbimisest. Sellele meetmele järgnevad alkoholi müügipiirangute kehtestamine ja alkoholireklaamide keelustamine (Chisholm, Rehm, Ommeren van, Monteiro 2004).

Noortest meestest oli 2004. aasta andmetel narkootikume proovinud või tarvitanud iga kolmas ja naistest iga viies. Neist tarvitajate hulka kuulus üle kuue protsendi 16–24-aastastest meestest ja üle kahe protsendi sama vanadest naistest. Tarvitamine tähendab narkootikumide kasutamist mingi kindla intervalliga. Tegemist on ka riskialuse rühma viimase vanusegrupiga, sest vanuse kasvades kahaneb oluliselt nii tarvitajate kui ka kunagi elus proovinute osatähtsus. Samas ei saa kindlalt väita, et narkootikumide proovimise ja regulaarsema tarbimise risk väheneb oluliselt 25. eluaastaks, vaid tähtis on edasiste uuringutega jälgida, mida teevad riskialused kohordid vanuse kasvades. Võimalik, et oma elustiili, kuhu kuulub ka narkootikumide tarbimine, jätkatakse ning riskikäitumine levib järgmistesse vanuserühmadesse.

## 2. TÖÖ- JA PEREAASTAD

### 2.1. Töö- ja pereelu ühitamine

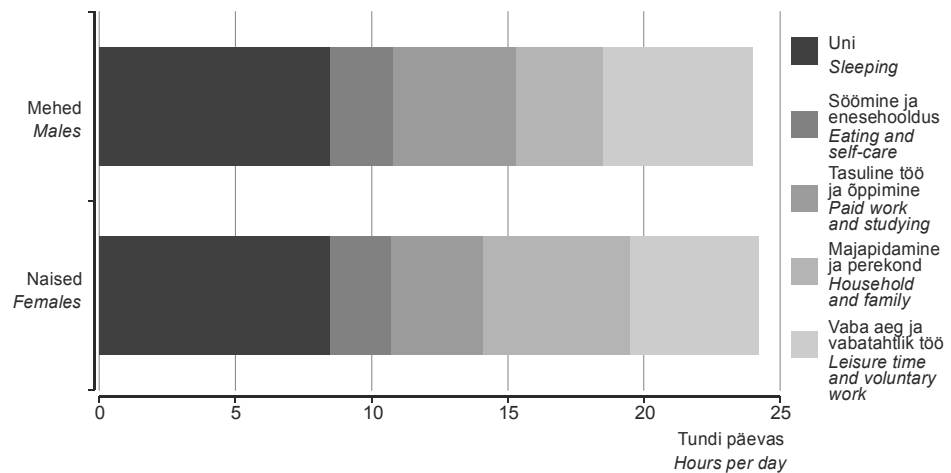
Euroopa tööturgude suurim ja püsivaim trend on viimastel aastakümnetel olnud naiste osatähtsuse suurenemine tööhõives. Selle nähtuse teine külg on traditsioonilise peremudeli (ainus leivateenija on mees) esinemise vähenemine ning nende leibkondade arvu suurenemine, kus mõlemad partnerid käivad tööl. Enamikus Euroopa Liidu riikides ongi viimasest saanud kahe tööealisega leibkondade seas kõige arvukam leibkonnatüüp. Töö- ja pereelu ühitamise probleemiga seisavad aga vastakuti pigem naised. Kuigi ka suur osa meestest veedab aega laste ja teiste pereliikmete eest hoolitsedes, ei sega see oluliselt nende töötegemist. Naise jaoks tähendab aga laste eest hoolitsemine töölkäimisest loobumist või pigem osalise kui täisajaga töötamist. Samuti sõltub naiste töötamine laste arvust ja vanusest, meeste töölkäimist mõjutab see vähe.

#### Naiste ja meeste ajakasutus

Kõik ajakasutuse kohta käivad andmed baseeruvad 1999.–2000. aasta ajakasutuse uuringul, välja on toodud keskmine tegevusele kulunud aeg päevas inimese kohta.

Eurooplased kulutavad oma aega üsna sarnaselt. Pääaegu pool ööpäevast kulub magamisele, söömisele ja enesehooldusele. Erinevalt teistest Euroopa riikidest, kus naised kulutavad magamisele veidi rohkem aega kui mehed, on Eestis meeste ja naiste uneaeg võrdne. Sama kehtib ka enesehoolduse kohta. Nendele tegevustele kulub ööpäevas kokku keskmiselt 11 tundi. Tasulisele tööle, õppimisele, kodustele töödele ja nende tegevustega seotud liikumistele kulutatud keskmine aeg on päevas veidi üle 8 tunni. Ülejäänud vaba aeg kulutatakse televisioonile või muule meediale, spordile, hobidele, puhkamisele ja sotsialiseerumisele ning vabatahtlikule tööle. Nagu mujal Euroopaski, kulub suur osa vabast ajast televiisori vaatamisele — 1999.–2000. aastal võttis see poole vabast ajast.

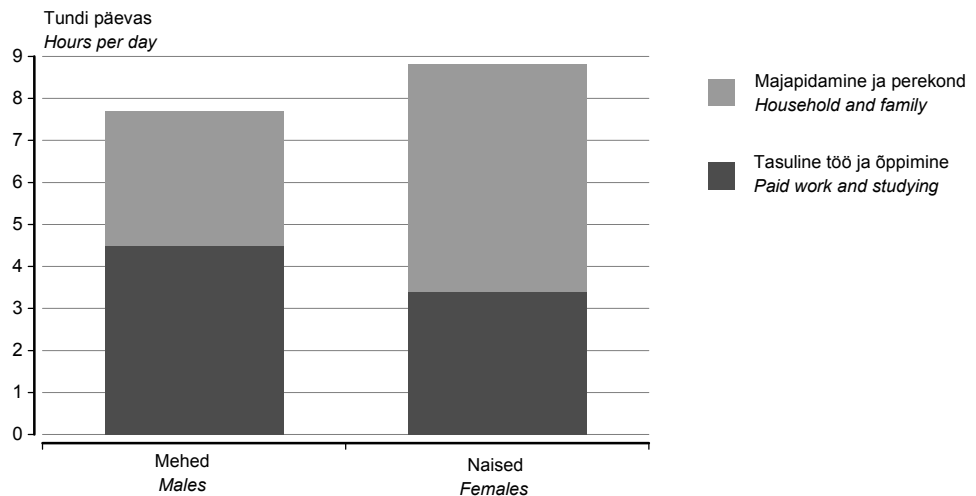
Joonis 2.1 **25–64-aastaste naiste ja meeste keskmine ajakasutus, 1999–2000**  
 Figure 2.1 *Average time use of women and men aged 25–64, 1999–2000*



#### 25–64-aastased mehed teevad tasulist tööd päevas keskmiselt üks tund enam kui naised

Kui vaadata naiste ja meeste ajakasutust eraldi, ilmnevad kõige suuremad erinevused tasulisele tööle, majapidamisele ning perele ja vabadele tegevustele kulutatud ajas. Töö- ja pereelu ühitamise seisukohalt on eelkõige oluline uurida tasustatud töö ja kodutöö osatähtsust meeste ja naiste päevas. Olgugi et meeste osalus majapidamistöodes ja naiste hõivemäär on järjest kasvanud, on asi võrdsusest veel kaugel. Mehed kulutavad tasulisele tööle keskmiselt rohkem aega kui kodutöödele — vastavalt 4,5 ja 3,2 tundi päevas. Naistel seevastu on majapidamisele ja perekonnale kulutatud aeg päevas keskmiselt pikem kui tasulisele tööle kulutatud aeg — vastavalt 5,4 ja 3,4 tundi. 25–64-aastased mehed veedavad naistest keskmiselt ühe tunni rohkem tasulist tööd tehes, naised aga pühendavad kodutöödele meestest veidi üle kahe tunni rohkem aega. Seega kui vaadata tasulist tööd ning majapidamisele ja perele kulunud aega koos, on naiste kogutööaeg meeste omast tunni võrra pikem.

Joonis 2.2 **25–64-aastaste naiste ja meeste keskmine kogutööaeg, 1999–2000**  
 Figure 2.2 *Total average working time of women and men aged 25–64, 1999–2000*



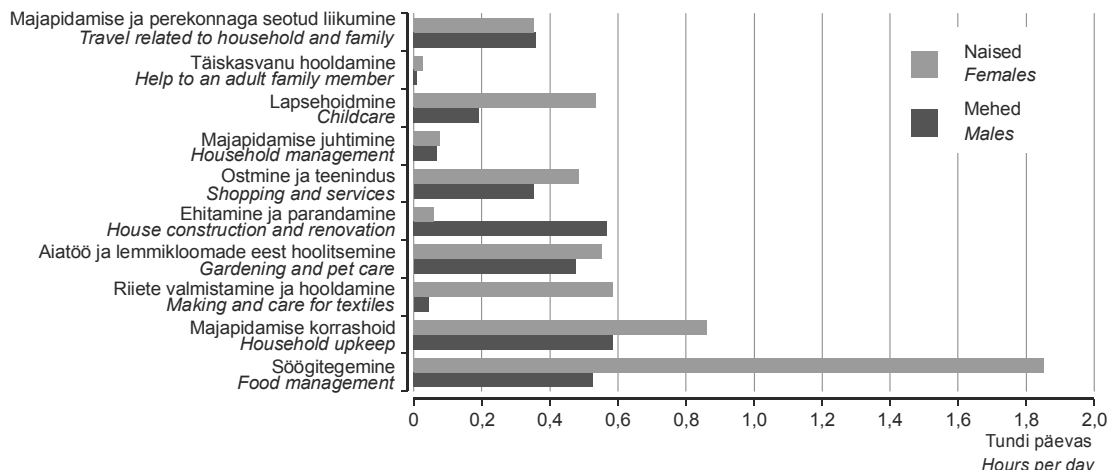
Töötavad mehed ja naised kulutavad keskmiselt rohkem aega tasulisele tööle ja õppimisele kui majapidamisele ja perekonnale. Kuigi naistel on tasulise töö aeg 1,2 korda lühem kui meestel, kulub neil majapidamisele ja perele meestest 1,7 korda rohkem aega. Ka töötavatel naistel on kogutööaeg ligi tunni võrra pikem kui töötavatel meestel.

**25–64-aastaste meeste põhilised kodutööd on ehitus- ja parandustööd ning majapidamise korrashoiuga seonduvad tööd**

25–64-aastaste naiste kodutöödest võtab keskmiselt kõige rohkem aega (peaaegu 2 tundi päevas) söögitegemine (söögi valmistamine, küpsetamine, nõude pesemine, hoidistamine), see hõlmab 34% kodutööde mahust. Teine aeganõudev tegevus on majapidamise korrashoid (16% kodutööde mahust), mille alla kuuluvad mitmesugused koristustööd nii toas kui ka aias. Umbes samapalju aega (9–11% kodutööde mahust) kulub riiete valmistamisele ja hooldamisele, aiatööle ja lemmikloomade eest hoolitsemisele, lapsehoidmisele ning ostmisele ja teenindusele.

Meeste puhul on kodutööde jaotus võrdsem, ei ole suuri erinevusi töödele kulunud ajas. Kõige rohkem aega kulutavad mehed majapidamise korrashoiule (18% kodutööde mahust), ehitamisele ja parandamisele (18% kodutööde mahust) ning söögitegemisele (17% kodutööde mahust). Kõigile nendele tegevustele kulub umbes pool tundi. Lastehoidmisele kulub meestel kõigest 6% kodutöödele kulutatud ajast. Ajaliselt on see 2,5 korda vähem kui naistel. Silmas tuleb pidada aga seda, et tihti toimuvad tegevused paralleelselt — siin on vaadatud ainult põhitegevusi, kuid lastega saab tegelda ka teiste tööde kõrvalt. Seega on lastega veedetud aeg tegelikult märksa suurem. Kui võrrelda naisi ja mehi tööde järgi, on näha, et ehitamine ja parandamine on põhiliselt meeste töö, sellega tegelemine hõlmab vaid 1% naiste kodutöödest. Sarnaselt on ainult naiste tööks riiete valmistamine ja hooldamine, milleks meestel kulub vaid 1% kodutöödele kulutatud ajast.

Joonis 2.3 **25–64-aastaste naiste ja meeste kodutööde jaotus, 1999–2000**  
 Figure 2.3 *Distribution of housework of women and men aged 25–64, 1999–2000*



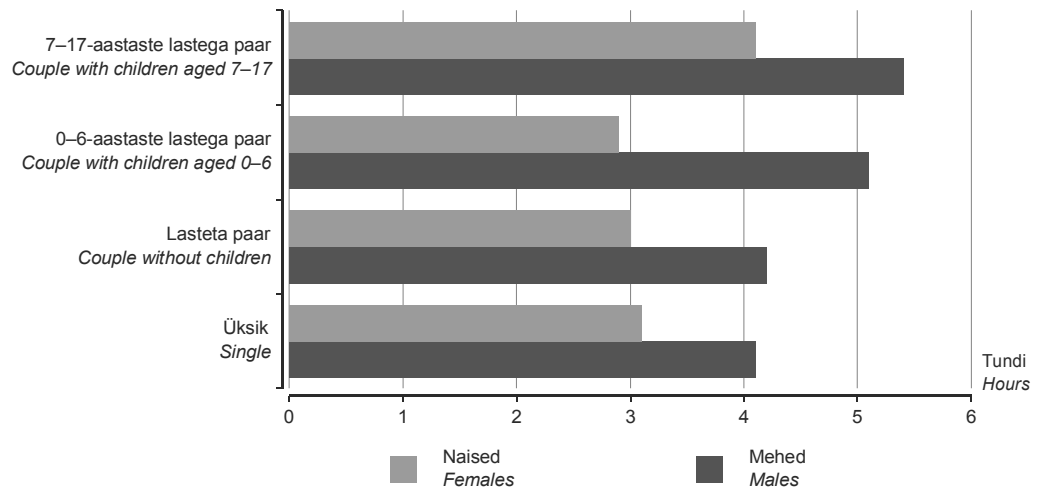
Naiste ja meeste ajakasutus on tihedalt seotud leibkonnatüübiga ja laste olemasoluga. Põhilised erinevused esinevad tasulise töö ning kodutöö jaotuses ja koguses. Paaris elavate naiste ja meeste aja jaotumine tasulise ja kodutöö vahel sõltub eelkõige laste olemasolust. See erinevus on veelgi suurem, kui lapsed on väikesed (alla 7-aastased). Leibkonnatüübid on grupeeritud noorima lapse vanuse järgi, seega võib leibkonnas, kus noorim laps on 0–6-aastane, olla ka vanemaid lapsi.

**0–6-aastaste laste emad töötavad tasulisel tööil keskmiselt 3 tundi päevas**

Naiste tasulisele tööle ja õppimisele kulutatud aeg on lühim, kui leibkonnas on alla 7-aastasi lapsi, sõltumata sellest, kas tegemist on paarisuhtega või üksikvanemaga. Mõlemal juhul on kulutatud aeg keskmiselt 3 tundi päevas. Keskmiselt kõige kauem, ligi tundi aega rohkem kui 0–6-aastaste laste emad, töötavad päevas 7–17-aastaste lastega naised. Selles vanuses käivad lapsed juba koolis, võimaldades naistel rohkem kodust eemal viibida. Lastega perede kulutused on tihti suuremad kui üksi või ilma lasteta paarina elades, seega saavad viimased endale lühemat tööaega lubada.

Joonis 2.4 **20–64-aastaste naiste ja meeste keskmine tasulise töö aeg laste olemasolu ja vanuse järgi, 1999–2000**

Figure 2.4 *Average time of paid work of women and men aged 20–64 in different household types, 1999–2000*



Kõige rohkem aega kulutavad kodutöödele paarisuhtes naised, kellel on 0–6-aastased lapsed — keskmiselt 6 tundi ja 48 minutit päevas. Kuigi nendel naistel on keskmine tasulisele tööle kulunud aeg lühim, teevad nad kokku siiski pikemalt tööd kui teised naised — 9 tundi ja 42 minutit. Paarisuhtes olevatest naistest on kodutöödele kulutatud aeg keskmiselt lühim naistel, kellel on 7–17-aastased lapsed. Seda võib seletada asjaoluga, et selles vanuses lapsed ei vaja enam pidevat järelevalvet ja lisaks saavad nad ema kodutöodes abistada. Et nendel naistel on ka tasulise töö aeg pikem, ei jää neil kodutöödeks ka nii palju aega.

**Meeste tasulise töö mahtu ei mõjuta laste vanus**

Laste olemasolu ja vanus ei mõjuta meeste ajakasutust nii tugevasti kui naiste oma. Tasulisele tööle kulutatud aeg on veidi suurem, kui peres on 7–17-aastasi lapsi. Paaris elavate lasteta meestega võrreldes on paaris elavatel lastega meestel tasulisele tööle kulutatud aeg keskmiselt ligi tunni pikem. Naistega võrreldes on meeste tasulisele tööle kulunud aeg muidugi pikem. Paaris elavad 0–6-aastaste lastega mehed viibivad naistest 1,8 korda kauem tööil. Kodutöödele ja perele kulutatud aeg ei sõltu meestel eriti lastest, see jääb ikka 3 tunni piirimaile. Sarnaselt naistega kulub kodutöödele siiski kõige vähem aega paarisuhtes meestel, kellel on 7–17-aastasi lapsi.

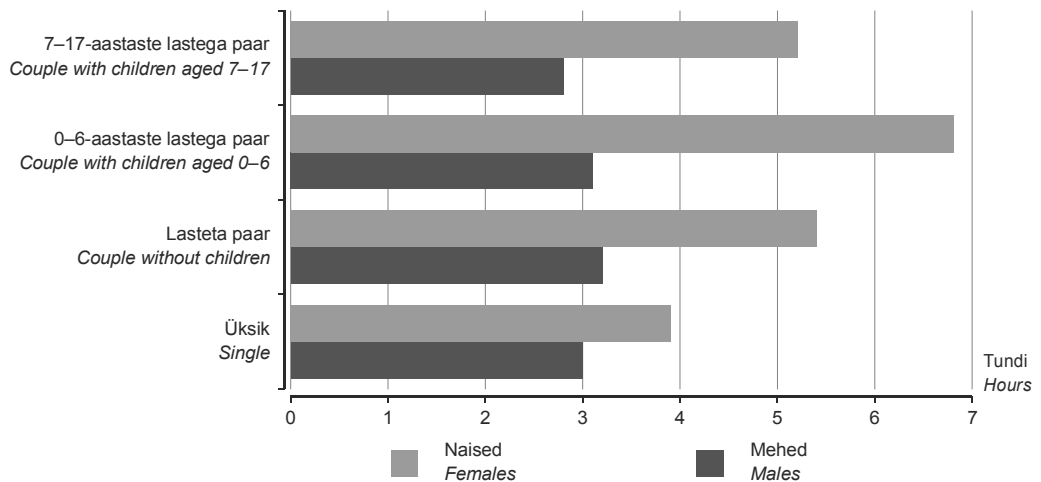
**Üksikud naised kulutavad kodutöödele kõige vähem aega**

Kuigi meeste tasulise töö aeg on pikem kui naistel, kulutavad naised majapidamistöodele ja tasulisele tööle kokku rohkem aega. Kõige suuremad erinevused on 0–6-aastaste lastega paaride seas. Sellistes leibkondades on naiste kogutöö kestus meeste omast keskmiselt poolteist tundi pikem. Ka suuremate lastega ja lasteta paaride puhul töötavad naised meestest keskmiselt tundi aega kauem. Üksnes üksikute meeste ja naiste töömahud on võrdsed. Nende hulgas kulutavad mehed naistest keskmiselt tunni rohkem tasulisele tööle ja naised tunni rohkem majapidamisele. Üksikute naiste seas on ka kodutöödele kulutatud aeg lühim — alla nelja tunni päevas.



Joonis 2.5 **20–64-aastaste naiste ja meeste majapidamisele ja perekonnale kulutatud keskmine aeg laste olemasolu ja vanuse järgi, 1999–2000**

Figure 2.5 *Average time in household work and family of women and men aged 20–64 in different household types, 1999–2000*



### 0–3-aastaste lastega naistest töötab kolmandik

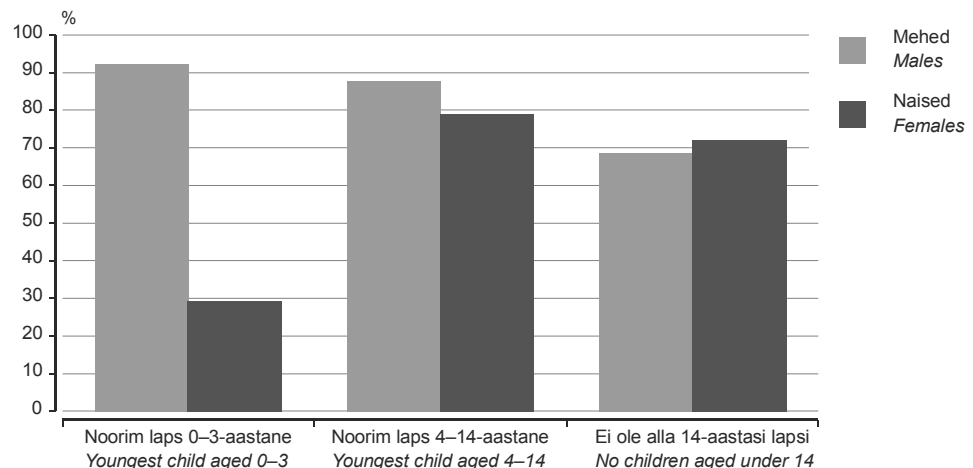
Nagu selgus, on lastega naiste keskmine töötatud aeg päevas lühem kui lastega meestel. Erinevus on seda suurem, mida nooremad on lapsed. Väiksemat keskmist tööaega põhjustab väikeste lastega naiste madal tööhõive määr. 0–3-aastaste lastega naistest töötas 2005. aastal kõigest 29%. Et lapse kolmeaastaseks saamiseni on õigus võtta lapsehoolduspuhkust, on väike hõivemäär arusaadav. Seda võimalust kasutasid siiski enamasti naised, väikeste lastega meeste hõivemäär oli koguni 92% ehk meeste kõrgeim. Laste suuremaks saades pöörduvad paljud naised tööle tagasi. 4–14-aastaste lastega naiste hõivemäär oli 79%, meeste seas oli tööga hõivatuid 10% rohkem. Meeste hõivemäär laste suuremaks saades eriti ei muutu ning pigem langeb kui kasvab. Kõige rohkem oli töötavaid naisi 4–14-aastaste lastega naiste seas. Selles vanuses lapsed käivad lasteaias või koolis ning aitavad vanemaid kodutöodes, võimaldades emal rohkem aega tasulisele tööle pühendada. Töötamise vajadus on suurem ka seetõttu, et lastega peres on kulutused suuremad kui lasteta peres. Alla 14-aastaste lasteta meeste ja naiste hõivemäär oli peaaegu võrdne, naistel oli see isegi veidi kõrgem kui meestel.

### Üle poole 0–14-aastaste lastega naistest sooviksid vähem töötada ja rohkem lastega tegelda

Lastega naiste ja meeste hõive määr on niivõrd erinev, seetõttu on huvitav, kas nad ka ise oma töö- ja pereelu korraldusega rahul on. Selgub, et 0–14-aastaste lastega naistest pole sellega rahul 21%. Neist 39% sooviks rohkem töötada ja vähendada laste hooldamisele pühendatavat aega, suurem osa (61%) aga tahaks veelgi vähem töötada ning rohkem lastega tegelda. Lastega meestest polnud töö- ja pereelu korraldusega rahul vaid 12%. Aga ka nendest sooviks suurem osa pühendada rohkem aega laste hooldamisele.

Joonis 2.6 **20–64-aastaste naiste ja meeste aastakeskmine hõivemäär laste olemasolu ja vanuse järgi, 2005**

Figure 2.6 *Annual average employment rate of women and men aged 20–64 by the existence and age of children, 2005*



## 2.2. Tööelu

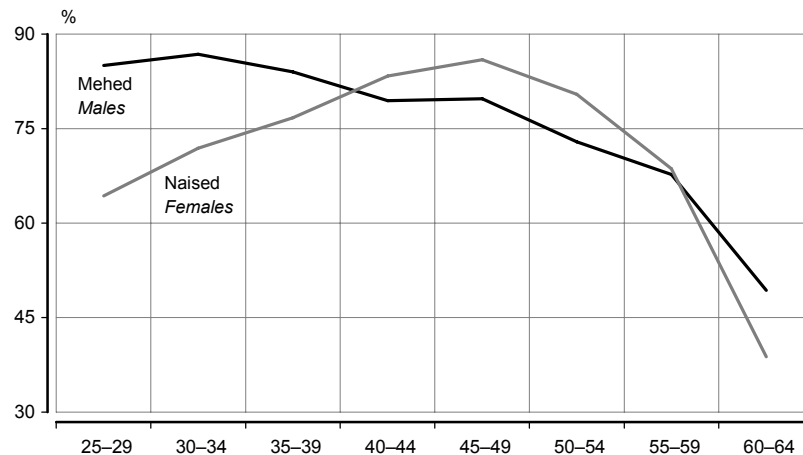
### 2.2.1. Töötamine

Naiste ja meeste töötee on erinev nii sektoriaalse jaotuse, ametiala kui ka töö laadi poolest.

**Mehed saavutavad maksimaalse hõivemäära juba 25–29-aastaselt**

Naistel on haridustee pikem kui meestel ja seetõttu sisenevad nad tööturule hiljem. Naiste ja meeste hõivemäär vanuse järgi toob esile naiste ja meeste erineva töökäitumise. Naistel langeb esimese lapse sünnitamine 25. eluaastasse ja naise keskmine vanus laste sünnil on veidi üle 28 eluaasta. Seega on 25–34-aastaste naiste hõivemäär meeste omast madalam, sest põhiliselt on nad seotud lastekasvatamisega ja seetõttu kodused. 35. eluaastast naasevad naised tööellu ja järgmistel eluastmetel ületab naiste hõivemäär meeste oma. Alates 55. eluaastast naiste hõivemäär väheneb, see on seotud meestega võrreldes varasema pensionile jäämisega. Mehed sisenevad hõivesse varem ja saavutavad maksimaalse hõivemäära 25–29-aastaselt, samas langevad mehed hõivest välja kõige paremas tööeas — 50–54-aastaselt. See on tingitud terviseprobleemidest ja sellest, et tööõnnetusi ja tööga seotud terviseprobleeme (nt üleväsimus) esineb meestel enam. Samas on nendel meestel, kes tööturule jäävad, töötee pikem kui naistel. 2005. aastal oli üldine hõivemäär 25–64-aastaste naiste hulgas 72% ja meestel veidi kõrgem, 77%.

Joonis 2.7 **25–64-aastaste naiste ja meeste hõivemäär, 2005**  
 Figure 2.7 *Employment rate of women and men aged 25–64, 2005*



Paarilisega kooselavatel naistel, kellel on kuni 6-aastasi lapsi, on tasulise töö maht meeste tasulise töö mahust vaid 44%. Enamik tööd tehakse selles elutsüklis kodus, tehes majapidamistöid ja hoolitsedes laste ja perekonna eest ehk tehakse nn tasustamata tööd. Samas hõlmab järgmises elutsüklis naistel, kes elavad koos paarilisega ja kelle lapsed on vanuses 7–17, tasulise töö maht meeste omast ligikaudu kolmveerandi (74%). Seega on täheldatav, et lapse vanuse kasvades naasevad naised tasulisele tööle. Mehed on tasulisele tööle enam orienteeritud kui naised. Meestel on tasulise töö maht suurim elutsüklis, mil nad elavad koos paarilisega ja lapsed on vanuses 7–17.

**Üle poole naistest töötab tertsiaarsektoris**

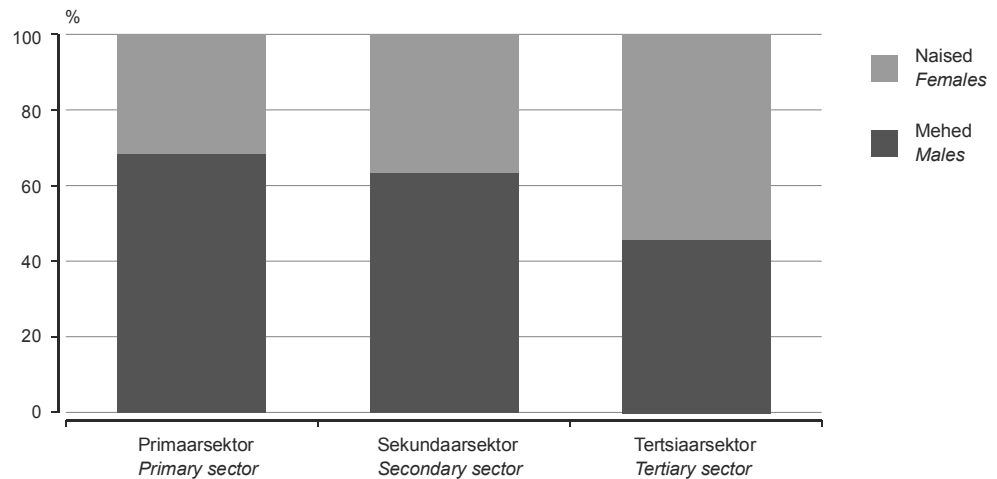
Koguhõive jaotuse järgi on kolmandik naisi primaarsektoris, veidi üle kolmandiku sekundaarsektoris ja üle poole tertsiaarsektoris. Seega on primaar- ja sekundaarsektoris meeste ülekaal (joonis 2.8).

Vaid 3% naishõivatutest töötab primaarsektoris, ligikaudu viiendik sekundaarsektoris ja kaks kolmandikku tertsiaarsektoris.

**Peaegu neljandik 25–54-aastastest naistest töötab töötlevas tööstuses**

Kui rahvusvaheliselt prevaleerivad naiste tegevusalade hulgas tervis ja sotsiaaltöö, kaubandus ja haridus, siis Eesti naised suudavad üllatada — peaaegu neljandik kõige aktiivsemas tööeas naistest (25–54) töötab töötlevas tööstuses. Arvata võib, et naiste suur esindatus töötleva tööstuse tegevusalal on pärit juba nõukogude ajast ja on seotud immigrantrahvastiku tegevusalade jaotusega. Seda näitab ka vanemaeealiste naiste (55–64) tööalane jaotus — viiendik neist töötab töötlevas tööstuses.

Joonis 2.8 Nais- ja meeshõivatud majandussektori järgi, 2005  
Figure 2.8 Female and male employees by sector of economy, 2005



Allikas: Statistikaamet.  
Source: Statistics Estonia.

#### Viiendik 55–64-aastastest naistest tegutseb hariduse valdkonnas

Vanuse kasvades töötab enam mehi töötlevas tööstuses (koguni kolmandik 55–64-aastastest) ning veonduse, laonduse ja side tegevusalal. Ehituse osatähtsus väheneb peaaegu kaks korda. Vanemaealiste (55–64) naiste puhul kasvab oluliselt hariduse, tervise ja sotsiaalhoolekande osatähtsus. Nii võib öelda, et ligikaudu viiendik (18,3%) 55–64-aastastest naistest tegutseb hariduses.

Tabel 2.1 25–64-aastased mehed ja naised viie populaarsema tegevusala järgi, 2005  
Table 2.1 Men and women aged 25–64 by five most popular economic activities, 2005  
(protsenti — percentage)

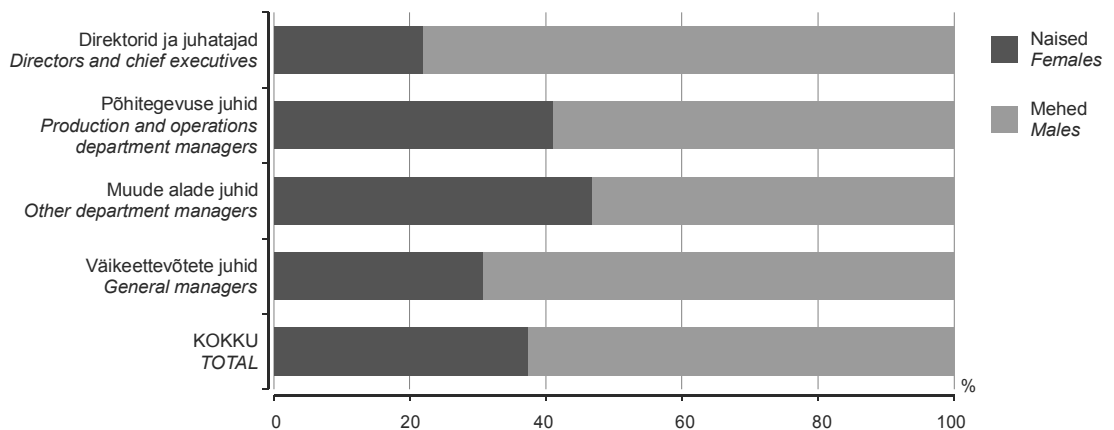
Mehed Men		Naised Women	
Töötlev tööstus Manufacturing	22,6	Töötlev tööstus Manufacturing	23,6
Ehitus Construction	15,6	Hulgi- ja jaekaubandus Wholesale and retail trade	15,4
Veondus, laondus ja side Transport, storage and communication	13,6	Haridus Education	14,8
Hulgi- ja jaekaubandus Wholesale and retail trade	12,4	Tervishoid ja sotsiaalhoolekanne Health and social work	9,1
Kinnisvara, rentimine ja äritegevus Real estate, renting and business activities	8,1	Avalik haldus ja riigikaitse Public administration and defence	6,6

Allikas: Statistikaamet, Eesti tööjõu-uuring.  
Source: Statistics Estonia, Labour Force Survey.

#### Meesdirektoreid on kolm ja pool korda rohkem kui naisdirektoreid

25–64-aastaste juhtide seas on mehi 62% ja naisi 38%, kuid juhtimise eri tasanditel on naiste ja meeste disproportsioon tunduvalt suurem. Nii on direktorite ja juhatajate seas meesjuhte koguni kolm ja pool korda enam kui naisi. Suur on erinevus ka väikeettevõtete juhtide puhul, kus mehi on kaks korda enam. Naisi on kõige rohkem muude alade juhtide hulgas (47%), see hõlmab personalijuhte, müügi- ja turundusjuhte, reklaami- ja suhtekorraldusjuhte jm valdkonnajuhte. Muude juhtide kategooria on naiste ja meeste vahel kõige võrdsemalt jaotunud.

Joonis 2.9 25–64-aastased juhid soo järgi, 2005  
 Figure 2.9 Managers aged 25–64 by gender, 2005



Allikas. Statistikaamet, Eesti tööjõu-uuring.  
 Source: Statistics Estonia, Labour Force Survey.

Naiste ja meeste kolm populaarsemat ametiala on erinevad. Naised on enamikus tippspetsialistid ja keskastme juhid, mehed aga oskus- ja käsitöölised ning seadme- ja masinaoperaatorid. Arvata võib, et olulist mõju avaldab siin ka omandatud haridus. Kõrgharidusega naised on tööturul enam kui mehi ning mehed omandavad enam kutseharidust kui naised.

Samas tuleb tõdeda, et naised on enam ka lihttöölise hulgas, kõikidest 25–64-aastastest hõivatutest on lihttöödel 7% naised, mehi aga kaks korda vähem — 3%. Lihttööd hõlmavad välimüüjaid, koduabilisi, koristajaid, majahoidjaid, kütjaid, käskjalgu, pakikandjaid, aga ka tootmise lihttöötajaid, näiteks põllumajanduse, mäetööstuse ja ehituse lihttöölised, tootmislihttöölised jt.

Tabel 2.2 25–54-aastased mehed ja naised populaarsema ametiala järgi, 2005  
 Table 2.2 Men and women aged 25–54 by most popular occupation, 2005  
 (protsenti — percentage)

Mehed Men	Naised Women
Oskus- ja käsitöölised Craft and related trades workers	27,3 Tippspetsialistid Professionals
Seadme- ja masinaoperaatorid Plant and machine operators and assemblers	19,1 Keskastme spetsialistid ja tehnikud Technicians and associate professionals
Seadusandjad, kõrgemad ametnikud ja juhid Legislators, senior officials and managers	17,9 Teenindus- ja müügitöötajad Service workers and shop and market sales workers

Allikas. Statistikaamet, Eesti tööjõu-uuring.  
 Source: Statistics Estonia, Labour Force Survey.

### 2.2.2. Naised ja mehed poliitiliste otsuste tasandil

#### Riigikogus on naised alla viiendiku

Naiste ja meeste osatähtsus poliitiliste otsuste tasandil on demokraatia arengutaseme põhinäitajaid. Mida hierarhilisem ja autoritaarsem on kultuur, seda raskem on naistel poliitikas kõrgele jõuda.

Kuigi naiste osatähtsus seadusandliku ja täitevvõimu tasandil aastatel 1992–2004 kasvas, on see viiel viimasel aastal jäänud muutumatuks. Riigikogus on naised alla 20%, valitsuses alla 15% ja kohalike omavalitsuste volikogudes alla 30%. 2003. aastal sai Riigikogu esimese esinaise.

Riigikokku pääsenud parteide liikmetest on ligi pool naised, kuid parteide juhatustes ja partei allüksuse juhtide hulgas on naised vaid 15–20%. Naiste pääs Riigikokku sõltub eelkõige partei soovist naiskandidaate esile tõsta ja partei valimisedust, aga ka valijate eelistustest.

Naiste osatähtsus on keskmisest väiksem suuremate linnade ja kesksete piirkondade kohalikes omavalitsustes, keskmisest suurem aga väiksemates keskustes ja perifeerses omavalitsusüksustes. Viieteistkümne maavanema seas oli 2005. aastal üks naine.

Eesti valitsuses on naisi olnud keskmiselt 12,5%.

### Naiste osatähtsuse järgi parlamendis on Eesti 56. kohal

Eesti on naiste osatähtsuse järgi parlamendis (18,8%) maailmas 56. kohal (Rahvusvahelise Parlamentide Liidu andmed 31. maist 2006). Euroopa Liidu riikide seas jääb Eesti alla keskmise nii naiste osatähtsuse poolest parlamendis (15. koht) kui ka valitsuses (23. koht).

Tabel 2.3 **Eesti naised Euroopa Parlamendi valimistel, 2004**  
Table 2.3 *Estonian women in the elections to the European Parliament, 2004*

Valimised	Aeg Time	Kandidaadid Candidates			Mandaadid Mandates	Valitud naised Elected women		Elections
		kokku total	naised women arv number	%		arv number	%	
Euroopa Parlamendi valimised	13.06.2004	95	23	24,2	6	2	33,3	Elections to the European Parliament

Allikad: Raitviir 1996; Vabariigi Valimiskomisjon.  
Sources: Raitviir (1996); National Electoral Committee

Tabel 2.4 **Naised Eesti Vabariigi valitsuses, 1990–2005**  
Table 2.4 *Women in the Government of the Republic of Estonia, 1990–2005*

Valitsus Government	Aeg Period	Liikmed Members		Naiste osatähtsus, % Share of women, %	Naisministri funktsioon <sup>b</sup> Function of the female minister <sup>b</sup>
		kokku total	naised women		
Edgar Savisaar <sup>a</sup>	03.04.90–30.01.92	22	1	4,5	S
Tiit Vähi, 1. valitsus <sup>a</sup> 1st government <sup>a</sup>	30.01.92–21.10.92	21	1	4,8	S
Mart Laar, 1. valitsus 1st government	21.10.92–08.11.94	14	3	21,4	B; E; S
Andres Tarand	08.11.94–17.04.95	15	1	6,7	E
Tiit Vähi, 2. valitsus 2nd government	17.04.95–06.11.95	15	2	13,3	E; S
Tiit Vähi, 3. valitsus 3rd government	06.11.95–17.03.97	17	2	11,8	S; S
Mart Siimann	17.03.97–25.03.99	15	2	13,3	S; S
Mart Laar, 2. valitsus 2nd government	25.03.99–28.01.02	15	2	13,3	S; S
Siim Kallas	28.01.02–10.04.03	14	5	35,7	B; E/I; S; S; S
Juhan Parts	10.04.03–05.04.04	14	1	7,1	B
	05.04.04–13.04.05	14	2	14,3	B; E
Andrus Ansip	Alates 13.04.05 Since	14	2	14,3	E; S
Kokku / keskmine Total / average		162	20	12,3	

Allikad: Toomla 1999, 161–164, 192–193; Vabariigi Valitsus.  
Sources: Toomla 1999, 161–164, 192–193; Government of the Republic.

<sup>a</sup> Üleminekuvalitsused. Eesti Vabariigi iseseisvus taastati 20.08.92.

<sup>b</sup> Kasutatakse BEIS-tüpoloogiat, mille kohaselt jagatakse ministrid järgmiselt:  
B-funktsiooni ehk alusfunktsiooni täitjad: välis-, sise-, kaitse- ja justiitsminister, mõnikord ka rahandusminister;  
E-funktsiooni ehk majandusega tegelevad ministrid: majandus-, kaubandus-, tööstus- ja põllumajandusminister;  
I-funktsiooni ehk infrastruktuuriga tegelevad ministrid: teede-, side-, informatsiooni- ja keskkonnaminister;  
S-funktsiooni ehk sotsiaal-kultuurilist funktsiooni täitvad ministrid: sotsiaalminister (või tööturu-, tervishoiu-, rahvastiku-, perekonna-, laste ja eakate minister), kultuuri- ja haridusminister.

<sup>a</sup> Transition governments. The independence of the Republic of Estonia was restored on 20.08.92.

<sup>b</sup> BEIS-typology has been used, according to which the ministers have been divided as follows:

Executors of B-function or basic function: Ministers of Foreign Affairs, Internal Affairs, Defence, Justice, sometimes also Minister of Finance;

Ministers dealing with E-function or economy: Ministers of Economic Affairs, Trade, Industry and Agriculture;

Ministers dealing with I-function or infrastructure: Ministers of Transport, Communications, Information and Environment;

Ministers dealing with S-function or social-cultural function: Minister of Social Affairs (or Ministers of Labour Market, Health, Population, Family, Children and Elderly People), Minister of Culture and Education.

**2.2.3. Naised teaduses**

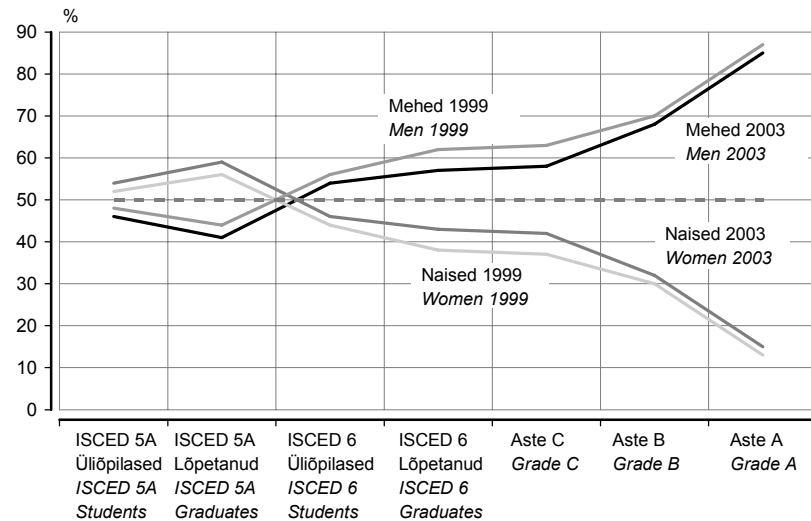
Teadus- ja arendustegevusega (T&A) hõivatud töötajaid on tööjõust vaid paar protsenti, sellegipoolest on selles valdkonnas toimuv olulise tähtsusega. Teadus, tehnoloogia ja innovaativsus on tänapäeval saanud majanduskasvu peateguriteks, sest jätkub liikumine teadmispõhise majanduse suunas. Samas võib just T&A töötajate hulgas täheldada suuri soolisi erinevusi. Naised on praeguses Euroopas haritumad kui mehed, kuid teadusliku uurimistöö tegijate hulgas on nad suures vähemuses. Lissabonis püstitatud Euroopa Liidu strateegiliste ülesannete seas on tähtsal kohal eesmärk viia teadus- ja arendustegevuse (T&A) kulutused 3% tasemele sisemajanduse koguproduktist. Seda eesmärki ei ole võimalik saavutada, ilma et värvataks, hoitaks ja edutataks naisi, kes moodustavad olulise osa Euroopa teadlaste ja inseneride ressursist. Teadus- ja arendustegevusest huvitatud noored koolides, laboratooriumides, ülikoolides ja uurimiskeskustes peavad nägema, et teadus on tasuv karjäärivalik. Et sellise valiku teinute hulgas kasvaks naiste osa, peab T&A keskkond olema vaba soolistest eelarvamustest ja eelistustest. Enamgi veel, tuleb luua tingimused, mis soodustaksid naiste töötamist T&A keskkonnas.

Kui lähtuda kahest lihtsast faktist — üliõpilaste hulgas on ülekaalus naised, professorite hulgas mehed —, kerkib kohe küsimus: kuhu need õpihulmised noored naised hiljem kaovad? Kas on põhjuseks naissoo vähenenud huvi teaduskarjääri vastu või soosib meeste enamusega keskkond just mehi karjäärireedelil edasi jõudma? Missugune ka ei oleks põhjus, on tendents kõigis Euroopa riikides sarnane. Kuju järgi nimetatakse seda nähtust iseloomustavat joonist kääride diagrammiks.

**Teaduskarjääris mehed naistest edukamad**

Joonis 2.10 **Naised ja mehed akadeemilise karjääri tüüpilistel astmetel Euroopa Liidus (EL-25), 1999, 2003**

Figure 2.10 *Women and men in a typical academic career in the European Union (EU-25), 1999, 2003*



**Akadeemilise personali astmed:**

- A — kõrgeim uurimistööga seotud teadustöötaja või õppejõu ametikoht.
  - B — uurimistööga seotud ametikoht, mis oma positsioonilt on astmest A madalam, kuid kõrgem kui ametikoht, kuhu värske doktorikraadi omanik tööle asub.
  - C — ametikoht, kuhu astme ISCED 6 (doktoriõppe) vastlõpetanu harilikult tööle asub.
- Hariduse liigituse ISCED astmed:
- 5A — kolmanda taseme õppekavad, mis annavad küllaldase ettevalmistuse, et võtta osa kõrgetasemelisest uurimistööst või asuda tööle kõrgetasemega oskusi nõudval ametialal.
  - 6 — kolmanda taseme õppekavad, mis annavad kõrgetasemeliseks uurimistööks vajaliku kvalifikatsiooni (doktoriõpe).

**Grades of academic staff:**

- A — The single highest grade/post at which research is normally conducted.
- B — Researchers working in positions not as senior as top position (A) but more senior than newly qualified PhD holders.
- C — The first grade/post into which a newly qualified PhD (ISCED6) graduate would normally be recruited.

**Levels of ISCED:**

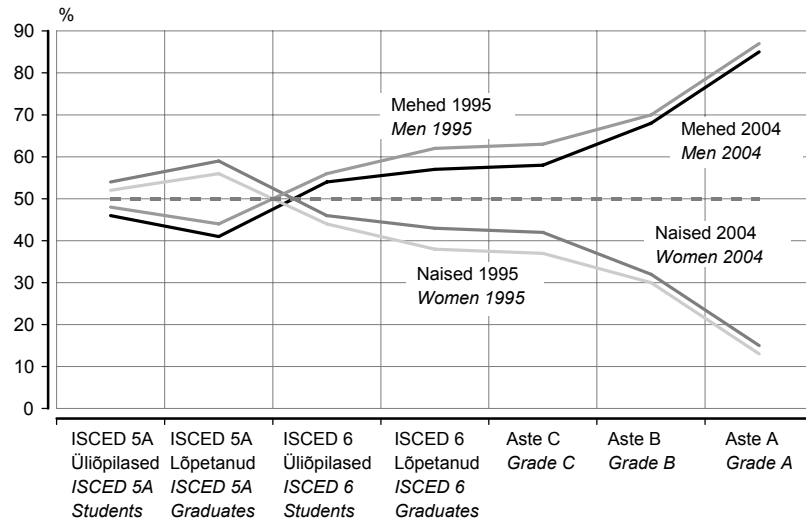
- 5A — Tertiary programmes to provide sufficient qualifications to enter into advanced research programmes and professions with high skills requirements.
- 6 — Tertiary programmes which lead to an advanced research qualification (PhD).

Allikas: Eurostati UOE andmekogum, DG Research WiS andmebaas.  
Source: Eurostat UOE data collection, DG Research WiS database.

Euroopa Liidu liikmesriikide käärde diagrammid on kõik sarnased, erinevusi on vaid detailides. Eesti ja Soome paistavad teiste hulgas välja suure naiste ülekaalu poolest üliõpilaste hulgas. Saksamaa diagrammil on aga kõigil astmetel naisi alla 50%, sellegipoolest on üldtendents sama — karjääriredelil edenedes muutub meeste ülekaal üha suuremaks.

Joonisel 2.10 on võrreldud vastavaid suhtarve nelja-aastase vahe järel. Euroopa Liidus on kõikidel astmetel tulemus ühtlane — naiste osatähtsus suureneb. Akadeemilises kõrghariduses süveneb femineerumine igal aastal umbes poole protsendi jagu.

Joonis 2.11 **Naised ja mehed akadeemilise karjääri tüüpilistel astmetel Eestis, 1995, 2004**  
Figure 2.11 *Women and men in a typical academic career in Estonia, 1995, 2004*



**Akadeemilise personali astmed:**

A — professorid ja juhtivateadurid  
B — dotsendid ja vanemteadurid  
C — lektorid, vanemõpetajad ja teadurid  
Hariduse liigituse ISCED astmed:  
5A — bakalaureuse- ja magistriõpe  
6 — doktoriõpe

**Grades of academic staff:**

A — Professors and leading researchers  
B — Senior lecturers and researchers  
C — Lecturers, senior teachers and researchers  
Levels of ISCED:  
5A — Bachelor and master courses  
6 — Doctor courses

Allikas: Statistikaamet.  
Source: Statistics Estonia.

**Iga naisprofessori kohta tuleb 6–7 meesprofessorit**

Eesti käärde diagrammil (joonis 2.11) on vaadeldud paar korda pikemat ajavahemikku. Kuigi üldtendents on Euroopa Liidu keskmisega sarnane, torkab silma ka erinevusi. Akadeemilise kõrghariduse femineerumise tendents on kaks korda kiirem, ulatudes vaadeldaval ajavahemikul protsendini aastas. Kui keegi räägib hariduspoliitika muutmise vajalikkusest, ei tohiks ta kahe silma vahele jätta fakti, et Eestis oli 2004. aastal bakalaureuse- ja magistriõppes 100 meeslõpetanu kohta 228 naislõpetanut. Tõsi, doktoriõppes valitseb meil veel sugudevaheline tasakaal, millega oleme Euroopast sammukese ees, kuid kauaks sedagi. Professorite tasemel on aga pilt Euroopaga identne — meie kõrgemates õppeasutustes on iga naisprofessori kohta koguni 6–7 meesprofessorit.

Käärde diagramm paljastab asjaolu, et millalgi pärast esimest akadeemilises keskkonnas tööleasumist tekib naistel karjääriredelil teatud takistus, mida tabavalt võrreldakse selle nähtamatuse tõttu klaaslaega. Kas siin on tegemist meeste paika pandud tsunfireeglitega, naiste vähese innuga edasipürgimisel või hoopis naiste sooviga pühendada end rohkem lastele ja perekonnale — seda diagramm ei paljasta. Sellest hoolimata võib riike võrrelda klaaslae indeksi (KLI) abil, mis arvutatakse järgmiselt.

$$\text{Klaaslae indeks (KLI)} = \frac{\text{naiste osatähtsus akadeemilise personali astmetel A, B ja C}}{\text{naiste osatähtsus akadeemilise personali astmel A}}$$

Tabel 2.5 **Naised akadeemilise personali kõrgeimal astmel ja klaaslae indeks, 2004**  
 Table 2.5 *Women at the highest grade of the academical staff and Glass Ceiling Index, 2004*  
 (protsenti — percentage)

Riik	Naiste osatähtsus astmel A <i>Proportion in grade A</i>	Klaaslae indeks <i>Glass Ceiling Index</i>	Country
Euroopa Liit (EL25)	15,3	2,1	<i>European Union (EU25)</i>
Austria (2002)	9,5	2,7	<i>Austria (2002)</i>
Belgia	9,0	1,7	<i>Belgium</i>
Eesti	17,2	2,6	<i>Estonia</i>
Hispaania	17,6	1,9	<i>Spain</i>
Holland	9,4	2,0	<i>Netherlands</i>
Iirimaa	...	...	<i>Ireland</i>
Itaalia	16,4	1,9	<i>Italy</i>
Kreeka	11,3	2,0	<i>Greece</i>
Küpros (2003)	10,2	2,9	<i>Cyprus (2003)</i>
Leedu	12,1	3,2	<i>Lithuania</i>
Luksemburg	...	...	<i>Luxembourg</i>
Läti	26,5	2,2	<i>Latvia</i>
Malta	2,3	11,7	<i>Malta</i>
Poola	19,5	1,8	<i>Poland</i>
Portugal (2003)	20,9	1,8	<i>Portugal (2003)</i>
Prantsusmaa (2001)	16,1	2,0	<i>France (2001)</i>
Rootsi	16,1	2,1	<i>Sweden</i>
Saksamaa	9,2	1,9	<i>Germany</i>
Slovakkia	13,5	2,9	<i>Slovakia</i>
Sloveenia	12,9	2,2	<i>Slovenia</i>
Soome	21,2	1,8	<i>Finland</i>
Suurbritannia	15,9	2,4	<i>United Kingdom</i>
Taani	10,9	2,3	<i>Denmark</i>
Tšehhi	10,3	3,1	<i>Czech Republic</i>
Ungari	15,4	2,3	<i>Hungary</i>

Allikas: DG Research WiS andmebaas.  
 Source: DG Research WiS database.

Tabeli esimese veeru põhjal selgub, et Euroopas keskmisena on ainult iga kuues professor naine, samamoodi Eestis. Eranditena paistavad silma Läti, kus iga neljas professor on naine, ja Saksamaa, kus seda on vaid iga kümnes (muidugi ka Malta, kuid viimase väiksus ei luba teda õigupoolest võrdlusmaterjalina kasutada).

Klaaslae indeksi interpreteerimisel tuleb tähele panna, et kui naiste osatähtsus kõigil akadeemilise personali astmetel oleks ühesugune, võrduks indeks ühega ehk naiste ja meeste karjäär kulgeks samas tempos. Mida kõrgem on aga indeks, seda jõudsamalt pürgivad mehed naistega võrreldes karjääriredelil edasi. Kui väikses Maltas poleks ühtegi naisprofessorit, oleks seal klaaslae indeksi väärtuseks lõpmatus. Tegelikult on klaaslae indeksi väärtus riikides üsna sarnane ja kontsentreerunud Euroopa Liidu keskmise — 2,1 — juures, seda isegi Läti ja Saksamaa puhul. See tähendab, et akadeemilise personali alumistel astmetel on naiste osatähtsus paar korda suurem kui professorite hulgas. Niisiis toimivad Euroopa kultuuriruumis riigiti üsna ühetaolised protsessid, mis ei soosi naiste akadeemilise karjääri edenemist.

**Ettevõtlussektoris on naisteadlaste ja -inseneride osatähtsus tunduvalt väiksem**

Teadustegevus ei piirdu ainult akadeemilise keskkonnaga, arenenud riikides toimub kaks kolmandikku uurimistööst ja arendustegevusest ettevõtetes. Ka Eesti ettevõtlussektor astub jõudsate sammudega edasi, aastatel 1999–2004 ettevõtete kulutused ettevõttesisesele T&A-le peaaegu neljakordistusid. Kuid just ettevõtlussektoris on naisteadlaste ja -inseneride osatähtsus tunduvalt väiksem kui kasumitaotluseta institutsionaalsetes sektorites. Arusaadavalt on see asjaolu korrelatsioonis naisüliõpilaste väikese osatähtsusega teaduse ja tehnoloogiaga seotud õppekavadel. Seetõttu tekib huvitav vastuolu (tabel 2.6): suure T&A potentsiaaliga riikides (Saksamaa, Holland jt) on naisteadlaste ja -inseneride osatähtsus väike, vähemarenenud riikides (Portugal, Kreeka, Baltimaad) aga suur, ulatudes Lätis isegi ettevõtlussektoris üle 50%.



Tabel 2.6 **Naised teadlaste ja inseneride hulgas, 2003**  
 Table 2.6 *Woman among researchers, 2003*  
 (protsenti — percentage)

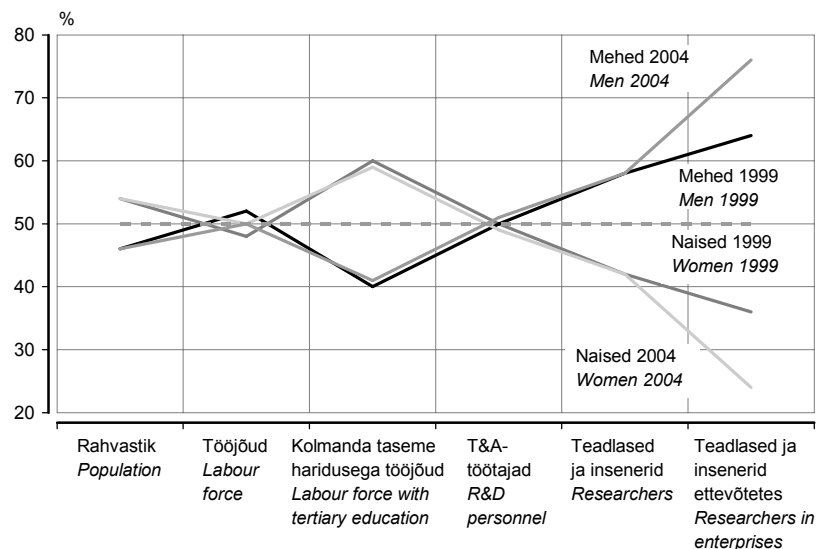
Riik	Teadlased ja insenerid kokku <i>Total researchers</i>	Teadlased ja insenerid ettevõtetes <i>Researchers in enterprises</i>	Country
Euroopa Liit (EL25)	28,5	17,9	European Union (EU25)
Austria (2002)	20,7	10,4	Austria (2002)
Belgia	28,3	18,3	Belgium
Eesti	43,1	23,7	Estonia
Hispaania	36,3	26,6	Spain
Holland	17,2	8,7	Netherlands
Iirimaa	31,0	20,3	Ireland
Itaalia	29,3	19,3	Italy
Kreeka	36,8	34,7	Greece
Küpros	30,9	22,3	Cyprus (2003)
Leedu	48,3	36,5	Lithuania
Luksemburg	17,4	14,2	Luxembourg
Läti	53,1	54,0	Latvia
Malta	...	...	Malta
Poola (2000)	39,0	28,2	Poland (2000)
Portugal	44,3	29,7	Portugal
Prantsusmaa	27,8	20,3	France
Rootsi	35,5	25,2	Sweden
Saksamaa	19,4	11,8	Germany
Slovakkia	40,6	30,9	Slovakia
Sloveenia	34,4	28,3	Slovenia
Soome (2002)	29,9	18,4	Finland (2002)
Suurbritannia	...	...	United Kingdom
Taani	28,4	25,1	Denmark
Tšehhi	28,3	19,5	Czech Republic
Ungari	35,1	24,5	Hungary

Allikas: Eurostat.  
 Source: Eurostat.

**Aastatel 1999–2003 ületas naisteadlaste ja -inseneride juurdekasv meeste oma 1,2 protsendipunktiga**

Muidugi ei huvita poliitikuid ja analüütikuid ainult hetkeseis, vaid ka trendid. Nii nagu käärde diagrammi puhul, töötab ka teadlaste ja inseneride hulgas aeg naiste kasuks. Aastatel 1999–2003 oli Euroopa Liidus naisteadlaste ja -inseneride arvu keskmine aastane juurdekasv 4,0%, meeste puhul vaid 2,4%. Eestis olid need arvud naistel — 5,1% ja meestel — 3,9%. Eriti suur oli nimetatud ajavahemikul naisteadlaste ja -inseneride aastane juurdekasv Lätis (9,7%) ja Hispaanias (10,8%), kuid kõiki trumpas üle Island — 23,1%.

Joonis 2.12 **Naised ja mehed rahvastikus, töajõus ning T&A-s Eestis, 1999, 2004**  
 Figure 2.12 *Women and men in population, labour force and R&D in Estonia, 1999, 2004*



Allikas: Statistikaamet.  
 Source: Statistics Estonia.

**Naiste osatähtsus ettevõtlussektori teadlaste ja inseneride hulgas on viimase viie aastaga vähenenud 12 protsendipunkti**

Jooniselt 2.12 peegeldub veel kord tõsiasi, et Eesti naised on meestest enam haritud: kui kogu tööjõus valitseb sooline tasakaal, siis kolmanda taseme haridusega (kõrgharidusega või keskkoolijärgse tehnikumiharidusega) tööjõust hõlmavad naised juba 60%. T&A-ga hõivatud töötajate puhul leiame eest käärde diagrammiga sarnase situatsiooni — teadlaste ja inseneride hulgas on naised vaid 40%. Et kõigi T&A-ga hõivatud töötajate hulgas valitseb jällegi sooline tasakaal, tähendab see, et naised leiavad enam rakendustehnikutena ja abipersonalina, mitte uurimis- või arendustöö tegijatena. Juba mainitud oluline ettevõttesise T&A kasv viimastel aastatel langetas naiste osatähtsuse ettevõtlussektori teadlaste ja inseneride seas 1999. aasta 36%-lt 2004. aastal 24%-le. Tabeli 2.6 põhjal võib väita, et Eesti areng on lähedane Saksamaale, mitte Portugalile. Et suurendada ettevõtetes uurimistööd ja arendustegevust tegevate naiste arvu, tuleb muuta soorolle juba alusharidusest alates ja panna pisitüdrukud autode ja robotitega mängima.

Sooline ebavõrdsus uurimis- ja arendustööga seotud spetsialistide hulgas ei peitu ainult erinevates võimalustes karjäärideleil edasi pürgida. Vähemhinnatud ametikohtadel töötamise ning sama töö eest kehvema töötasu maksmise tõttu jääb naiste tunnitöötasu meeste omast madalamaks ning selline on olukord kogu majanduses.

Palgabevõrdsust mõõdetakse keskmiste brutotunnipalkade vahe suhtena meeste brutotunnipalka protsentides:

$$\text{sooline palgalõhe} = 100\% \frac{(\text{meeste brutotunnipalk} - \text{naiste brutotunnipalk})}{\text{meeste brutotunnipalk}}$$

Tabel 2.7 **Spetsialistide sooline palgalõhe, 2002, 2004**  
 Table 2.7 *Gender pay gap of professionals, 2002, 2004*  
 (protsenti — percentage)

ISCO kood ja ametiala	EL		Eesti		ISCO code and occupation
	EU	2002	Estonia	2004	
<b>200 Tippspetsialistid</b>	...	<b>29</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>26</b>	<b>200 Professionals</b>
210 Füüsika, keemia, matemaatika ja inseneriteaduse tippspetsialistid	15	26	21	21	210 Physical, mathematical and engineering science professionals
220 Loodusteaduse ja tervishoiu tippspetsialistid	27	13	14	14	220 Life science and health professionals
230 Pedagoogikaspetsialistid	14	21	19	19	230 Teaching professionals
240 Muud tippspetsialistid	26	30	26	26	240 Other professionals
<b>300 Keskastme spetsialistid ja tehnikud</b>	...	<b>33</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>300 Technicians and associate professionals</b>
310 Füüsika, keemia, matemaatika ja inseneriteaduse keskastme spetsialistid	19	34	49	49	310 Physical and engineering science associate professionals
320 Loodusteaduse ja tervishoiu abispetsialistid	10	27	17	17	320 Life science and health associate professionals
330 Pedagoogika abispetsialistid	19	35	31	31	330 Teaching associate professionals
340 Muud keskastme spetsialistid	20	24	20	20	340 Other associate professionals

Allikas: Eurostati ja Statistikaameti töötasu struktuuri vaatlus.  
 Source: Eurostat and Statistics Estonia Structure of Earnings Survey.

**Keskastme spetsialistide ja tehnikute hulgas naiste ja meeste palgavahe suurim**

Võttes arvesse, et kõikidel ametialadel kokku ulatus sooline palgalõhe Euroopa Liidus 2002. aastal 16%-ni ja Eestis nii 2002. kui ka 2004. aastal 24%-ni, tuleb teatud üllatusena kogeda, et spetsialistide hulgas (tabel 2.7) on see ebavõrdsus omajagu suurem. Siinkohal on sobilik märkida, et Eesti on selle näitaja järgi Euroopa Liidu autsaider, vaid Küprosel mõõdeti 2004. aastal suurem soolise palgalõhe näitaja — 25%. Läti ja Leedu vastav näitaja langes kokku Euroopa Liidu keskmisega, kuid Soome, Saksamaa ja Suurbritannia said samuti pisut 20% ületava tulemuse.

Ametialade kitsamate rühmade puhul võib öelda, et kõikides rühmades on sooline palgalõhe kahe aastaga vähenenud. Välja arvatud ühes, kus ebavõrdsuse kasv on tingitud põhiliselt meestest koosneva IT-spetsialistide kontingendi kõrgest tunnipalgast, mis ületas 2004. aastal neljakordselt naiste keskmise tunnipalga (rühm koodiga 310).

Eri valdkondade statistika näitab, et uurimis- ja arendustööga seotud spetsialistide hulgas leidub nii kogu Euroopa Liidus kui ka Eestis veel küllalt soolist ebavõrdsust, seda nii karjääritegemise kui ka töö tasustamise poolel. Ebavõrdsuse põhjuseid tuleb otsida ajalooliselt välja kujunenud soosüsteemist ja sooideoloogiast. Kõik trendid näitavad, et ebavõrdsus kahaneb, kuigi mitte poliitikute soovitud tempoga. Naisinseneride arvu võrdsustamiseks meesinseneride omaga kulub veel paar põlvkonda.

### 2.2.4. Naised põllumajanduses

2005. aasta struktuuriuuringu andmetel oli Eesti ligi 28 000 põllumajanduslikus majapidamises 90 850 hõivatut. Põhilise osa põllumajanduses hõivatud töajast (75,7%) hõlmas peretöajast, alalisi töötajaid oli 15,8% ja ajutisi töötajaid 8,5%. Püsitöajast (peretöajast ja alalised töötajad) oli mehi 51,1% ja naisi 48,9%.

Peretöajast moodustavad ainuvaldaja, ainuvaldaja abikaasa ja ainuvaldaja muud pereliikmed.

Töajast-uuringu meetodika põllumajanduslike majapidamiste struktuuri uuringus erineb üldisest töajast-uuringu meetodikast. Arvesse võetakse kõik loendusmomentidele eelnenud viimase 12 kuu jooksul talutöös osalenud vähemalt 17-aastased või põhihariduse omandanud isikud. Ainuvaldaja ja ainuvaldaja abikaasa on loetud hõivatuks ka siis, kui nad ei osale talutöös. Ka on töajast arvestus majapidamise keskne — töajast andmed riigi kohta saadakse majapidamiste töajast andmete summana. Üks isik võib aga olla samal ajal hõivatud mitmes majapidamises (näiteks töötada põllumajanduslikus osaühingus ja ka oma isiklikus majapidamises).

Põllumajanduslik majapidamine on tootmisüksus, kus on vähemalt üks hektar kasutatavat põllumajandusmaad või kus on vähem kui üks hektar kasutatavat põllumajandusmaad ja kus toodetakse põllumajandussaadusi peamiselt müügiks või mille majanduslik suurus on üks Euroopa suurusühik (ESÜ)<sup>a</sup> või rohkem.

2005. aasta struktuuriuuringu andmetel oli Eestis ligi 28 000 põllumajanduslikku majapidamist. Neist 10 257 majapidamisel (37%) oli naisjuht. Naisjuhtidega põllumajanduslike majapidamiste kasutuses oli 17% põllumajandusmaast ja need andsid 16% standardkogutulust<sup>a</sup>.

#### Naised juhivad väikesi põllumajanduslikke majapidamisi

83% põllumajanduslike majapidamiste naisjuhtidest juhtis majapidamist, mille majanduslik suurus oli alla 2 ESÜ<sup>a</sup>, s.o majapidamisi, kus toodetakse põllumajandussaadusi põhiliselt oma tarbeks. Selliseid põllumajanduslikke majapidamisi on Eestis üle 21 000, nende kasutuses on 16% kasutatavast põllumajandusmaast ja nad annavad 13% standardkogutulust.

Tabel 2.8 Põllumajanduslikud majapidamised majandusliku suuruse (ESÜ)<sup>a</sup> järgi, 2005  
Table 2.8 Agricultural holdings by economic size ESU<sup>a</sup>, 2005

	Kokku Total	<2 ESÜ <2 ESU	2–16 ESÜ 2–16 ESU	>= 16 ESÜ >=16 ESU	
Majapidamiste arv — Number of holdings					
Kokku	27 747	21 022	5 616	1 108	Total
meesjuhtidega	17 490	12 529	3 985	975	operated by men
%	63	60	71	88	%
naisjuhtidega	10 257	8 493	1 631	133	operated by women
%	37	40	29	12	%
Põllumajandusmaa, ha — Agricultural area, ha					
Kokku	828 926	136 689	200 863	491 373	Total
meesjuhtidega	690 731	85 865	154 489	450 375	operated by men
%	83	63	77	92	%
naisjuhtidega	138 195	50 824	46 374	40 998	operated by women
%	17	37	23	8	%
Standardkogutulu, ESÜ — Standard gross margin, ESU					
Kokku	135 381	17 129	26 717	91 535	Total
meesjuhtidega	113 105	10 290	19 723	83 092	operated by men
%	84	60	74	91	%
naisjuhtidega	22 276	6 839	6 994	8 443	operated by women
%	16	40	26	9	%

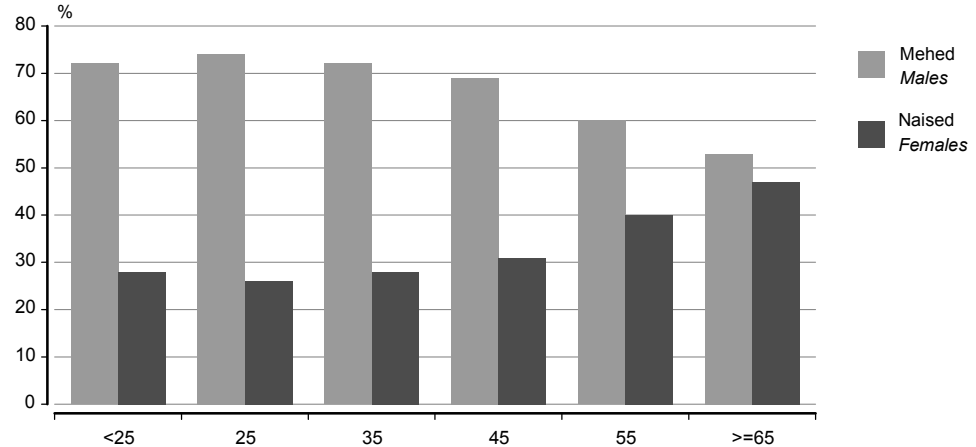
<sup>a</sup> Euroopa suurusühik (ESÜ) vastab standardkogutulu väärtusele 1200 eurot (18 768 krooni). Standardkogutulu on majapidamises toodetud põllumajandustoodangu väärtuse ja selle tootmiseks tehtud erikulutuste vahe, mis arvutatakse põllumajanduskultuuride kasvupinnast, loomade arvust ja standardkogutulu koefitsiendist lähtudes.

<sup>a</sup> The European Size Unit (ESU) is equal to the value of the standard gross margin of 1,200 euros (18,768 kroons). Standard gross margin is the difference of the holding's output and the value of specific costs, calculated on the basis of crop area, number of animals and SGM coefficients.

**Eesti põllumajanduse naisjuhid on vähemalt 55-aastased**

Eesti põllumajandusele on iseloomulik, et suur osa majapidamise juhte on 55-aastased või vanemad. Selles vanuses on 48% majapidamiste meesjuhtidest ja 63% naisjuhtidest.

Joonis 2.13 **Majapidamiste juhid soo ja vanuse järgi, 2005**  
Figure 2.13 *Managers of holdings by sex and age, 2005*



Nooremates vanuserühmades on meesjuhtide ülekaal — ligikaudu kaks kolmandikku juhtidest on mehed ja üks kolmandik naised. Soolised erinevused hakkavad vähenema alles 65-aastaste ja vanemate juhtide puhul. Alla 35-aastaseid juhte on majapidamiste meesjuhtidest vaid 8% ja naisjuhtidest 5%.

**Meesjuhtidel on parem põllumajanduslik ettevalmistus**

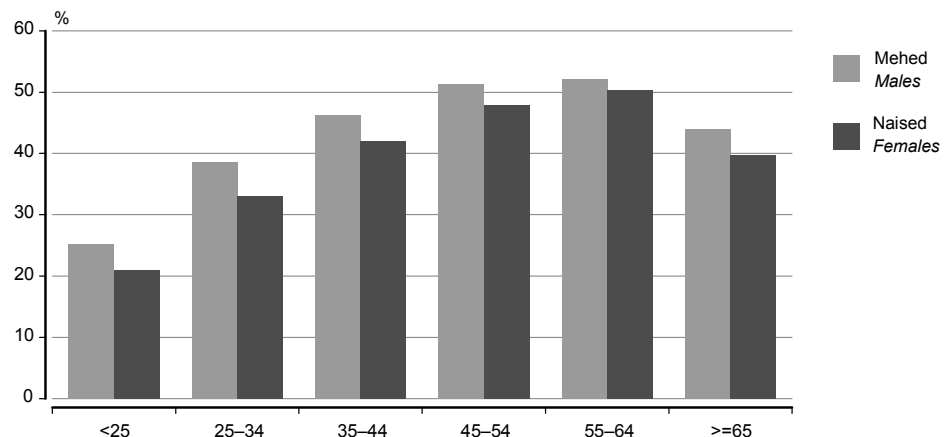
Majapidamiste meesjuhtidest on 61% ainult praktiliste kogemustega ja 26% täieliku ettevalmistusega. Naisjuhtidest on ainult praktiliste kogemustega koguni 77% ja täielik ettevalmistus on ainult 16% naisjuhtidest.

Peretöötajad hõlmas 2005. aastal 68 781 hõivatut. Meeste ja naiste osatähtsus peretöötajades on peaaegu võrdne (vastavalt 50,3% ja 49,7%). 65-aastasi ja vanemaid oli peretöötajatest 21%.

Majapidamistes kokku töötas 2005. aastal alaliselt 14 377 hõivatut. Mehi oli alaliste töötajate seas 10 protsendipunkti enam kui naisi (55% ja 45%).

Püsitöötajad koosneb peretöötajatest ja alalistest töötajatest.

Joonis 2.14 **Püsitöötajõu keskmine tööaeg vanuserühma ja soo järgi, 2005**  
Figure 2.14 *Average working time of permanent labour force by age group and sex, 2005*



Püsitöötajõu keskmine tööaeg oli 43,1% aasta täistööajast, sealhulgas meestel 44,6% ja naistel 41,5%. Ka vanuserühma järgi ei ole meeste ja naiste keskmine tööaeg oluliselt erinev, naistel on see alati lühem ja pikeneb töötajate vanuse suurenedes kuni 64 aasta

vanuseni. Alates 65. eluaastast hakkab keskmine tööaeg jälle vähenema. Kõige enam panustavad ajaliselt 55–64-aastased mehed ja naised. Noorima vanuserühmaga (alla 25-aastased) võrreldes on erinevus kahekordne.

### 2.2.5. Elukestev õpe

Kui koolitee on lõppenud ja algab tööelu, muutub õppimine põhitegevusest kõrvaltegevuseks. Inimeste soov ennast arendada on väga erinev ja ka võimalused selleks on väga erinevad. Tänapäeva kiire tehnoloogiline areng tingib siiski vajaduse ennast koolitada ja oma oskusi pidevalt täiendada. Täienduskoolituseks on mitmeid viise, valik sõltub vaid koolitusvajadusest ja rahakotist. Elukestev õpe hõlmab mitmesuguseid koolitusmeetmeid, alustades tasemeõppest ehk haridustee jätkamisest järgmisel tasemel kuni konverentside ja seminarideni välja.

2005. aasta tööjõu-uuringu raames uuriti peamiselt täienduskoolituskursustel osalemist, mis on ühtlasi ka kõige levinum erialase enesetäiendamise viis. Uuringus vaadeldi kõige hilisemat perioodi ehk uuringule eelnenud nelja nädalat.

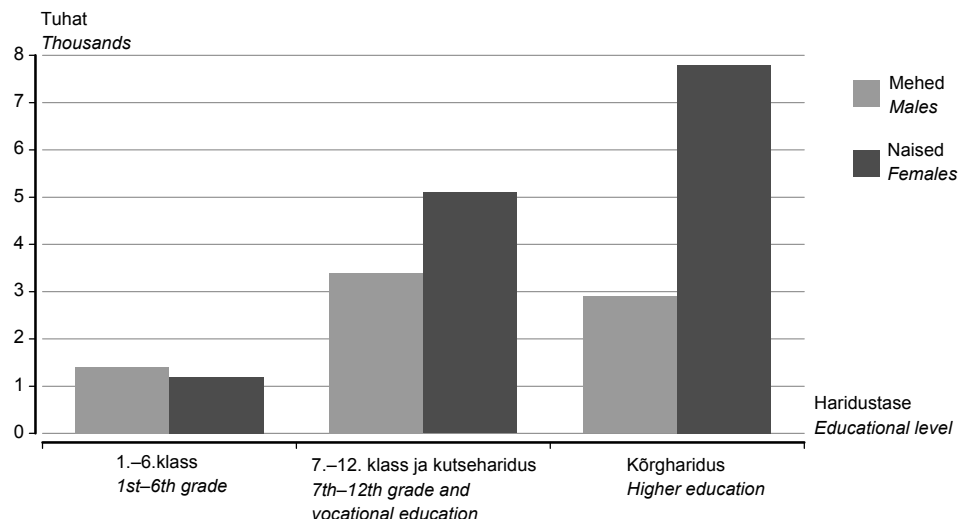
Aastal 2005 võttis viimase nelja nädala jooksul kursustest osa 2,1% tööealisest elanikkonnast (15–74-aastased) ehk hinnanguliselt 21 700 isikut. Seda on umbes 2500 võrra vähem kui eelmisel aastal ja 9700 võrra vähem kui 2003. aastal. Naised olid aktiivsemad enesetäiendajad, neid oli osalejate hulgas kaks korda rohkem kui mehi.

Täienduskursustel osalemine näitab viimasel kolmel aastal kahanemistendentsi, kuid tõuse ja langusi on kursustel käimise aktiivsuses olnud ka varasematel aastatel.

Kui vaadata haridustaseme järgi, siis 1.–6. klassi lõpetanud oli kursustel käinute hulgas kaks korda vähem kui kõrgharidusega isikuid, kuid soo järgi esimese haridustaseme puhul erilist vahet ei ole. Meeste ja naiste diferentseeritus algab teise taseme hariduse lõpetanute ja eriti suur on see kõrgharidusega meeste ja naiste vahel — kõrgharidusega naised osales täienduskoolitusel meestest üle kahe korra rohkem.

**Kõrgharidusega naised osaleb täienduskoolitusel kaks korda enam kui mehi**

Joonis 2.15 Viimase nelja nädala jooksul kursustel osalenud haridustaseme järgi, 2005  
Figure 2.15 Participation in courses during the last four weeks by educational level, 2005



Peamiselt oli tegemist tööalaste kursustega — sellistel kursustel käis 56% osalenutest. Teisel kohal olid huvialaga seotud kursused (23% osalenutest). Seejuures on märkimisväärne, et kui tööalastel kursustel ja konverentsidel käis naised ligikaudu kolm korda rohkem kui mehi, siis huvialaga seotud kursustel käis viimase nelja nädala jooksul naised ja mehi enam-vähem võrdselt. Siit järeldub, et mehed on tööalase koolituse suhtes ükskõiksemad ega tunne vajadust ennast täiendada. Mees tunneb vajadust ennast koolitada siis, kui koolituse läbimine või sealt saadav kasu oskuste paranemise näol aitab täita tema tööalast või isiklikku eesmärki. Naised seevastu lähevad koolitusele ka juhul, kui koolitus on vaid enesearenduslik.

Kõige rohkem oli viimase nelja nädala jooksul kursustel osalenuid tööga hõivatud naiste seas — ligikaudu 12 000 isikut, peamiselt palgatöötajad (94%). Meeste puhul oli palgatöötajate osatähtsus veelgi suurem — 98%.

Tabel 2.9 Nelja viimase nädala jooksul kursustel osalenud soo, majandusliku seisundi ja kursuse liigi järgi, 2005

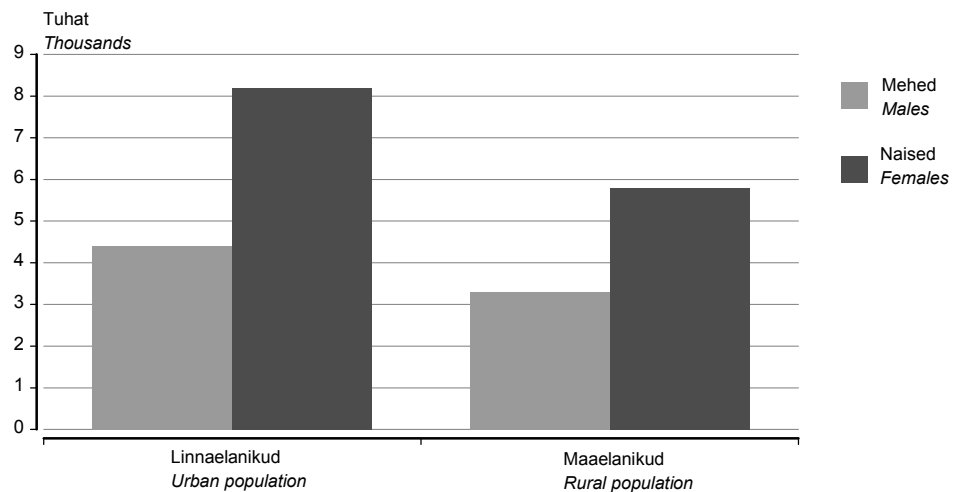
Table 2.9 Participation in courses during the last four weeks by sex, labour status and type of a course, 2005

Majanduslik seisund, kursuse liik	Mehed		Naised		Kokku		Labour status, type of a course
	tuhat	%	tuhat	%	tuhat	%	
	Males	%	Females	%	Total	%	
	thousands	%	thousands	%	thousands	%	
<b>Hõivatud</b>							<b>Employed persons</b>
Ei osalenud kursustel	295,0	98,2	294,9	96,1	589,9	97,1	Did not participate in courses
Töölased kursused, konverents või seminar	4,5	1,5	10,2	3,3	14,7	2,4	Training courses, conference, seminar at work
Muud kursused	(0,9)	(0,3)	1,8	0,6	2,7	0,5	Other courses
Kursustel osalenud	5,4	1,8	12,0	3,9	17,5	2,9	Total participation in courses
KOKKU	300,5	100,0	306,9	100,0	607,4	100,0	TOTAL
<b>Palgatöötajad</b>							<b>Employees</b>
Ei osalenud kursustel	261,6	98,0	280,1	96,1	541,7	97,0	Did not participate in courses
Töölased kursused, konverents või seminar	4,4	1,7	9,4	3,2	13,8	2,5	Training courses, conference, seminar at work
Muud kursused	(0,8)	(0,3)	1,8	0,6	2,7	0,5	Other courses
Kursustel osalenud	5,3	2,0	11,3	3,9	16,5	3,0	Total participation in courses
KOKKU	266,9	100,0	291,3	100,0	558,2	100,0	TOTAL

**Kõige vähem osalevad täienduskoolitusel maal elavad mehed**

Linnaelanikud osalevad täienduskoolituses aktiivsemalt. Linnas elavaid naisi oli viimasel ajal ennast koolitanute hulgas 37% ehk kõige suurem hulk, maal elavaid naisi oli osalenutest 27%. Linlastest mehi oli osalenute seas 20% ning maamehi kõige vähem — vaid 15%. Uuringus pole tehtud vahet linna lähedal maal elavatel inimestel ja tömbekeskustest kaugemal elavatel inimestel, seetõttu võib vaid oletada, et koolitus oli kättesaadavam eelkõige linna lähedal elavatele isikutele. Ainuüksi Tallinna lähiümbrusse on viimase viie aasta jooksul ehitatud hulk uusi elamurajoone, mille elanikud on linnaga endiselt töökoha ja tutvuskonna tõttu igapäevaselt seotud. Ka koolitusfirmade ja -asutuste tegevus toimub peamiselt linnades ehk seal, kuhu on kontsentreeritud suurem osa potentsiaalseid kliente.

Joonis 2.16 Nelja viimase nädala jooksul kursustel osalenud soo ja elukoha järgi, 2005  
Figure 2.16 Participation in courses during the last four weeks by sex and place of residence, 2005



**Kaks kolmandikku naistest tegeleb iseõppimisega eelkõige raamatukogude ja teaduskirjanduse abil**

Elukestva õppe ühe vormina käsitletakse iseseisvat õppimist. Kui vaadata, millisel viisil mehed ja naised uusi teadmisi iseseisvalt, ilma koolitusfirma abita omandasid, tulevad välja erinevused õppimise viisis. Näiteks on iseseisvalt õppivatele meestele naistest rohkem meeltmööda Internetist ja arvutiprogrammide abil uute teadmiste hankimine (51%), kuid üsna ebapopulaarne on nende seas raamatukogust info otsimine (32%). Iseõppimisega

tegelevad naised aga leiavad just raamatukogudest ja teaduskirjandusest endale vajalikku teavet ning see on naiste hulgas üldse kõige levinum iseseisva õppimise viis. Nimetatud viisil täiendas oma teadmisi kaks kolmandikku (68%) naistest.

Euroopa Liidus 2003. aastal tehtud tööturu-uuringu elukestva õppe osa käsitles täiendusõppes osalemist kõikides Euroopa Liidu riikides ja ka kandidaatriikides. Vaadeldi 25–64-aastaste osalemist kõikvõimalikus õppetegevuses — nii tasemeõppes, koolituskursustel kui ka muudel viisidel enese koolitamist. Tulemused annavad eurooplaste enesearendamisest üsna mitmekesise pildi.

Eestis on traditsiooniliselt naistel suurem huvi õppimise vastu, see avaldub nii tasemehariduses kui ka täienduskoolituses. Euroopa Liidus seevastu on peaaegu pooltes riikides (12) meestel suurem osalemismäär ja ülejäänud kolmeteistkümnes on sarnaselt Eestiga naistel suurem osalus. Suurim vahe meeste kasuks on Prantsusmaal, kus 55% tööelistest meestest täiendab oma teadmisi, kuid tööelistest naistest osaleb enese täiendamises 44%. Järgnevad Itaalia, Holland, Küpros, Belgia, Tšehhi, Kreeka, Slovakkia, Saksamaa, Luksemburg, Malta ja Portugal. Naiste osalemismäär on kõige suurem Iirimaa, kus enesetäiendamisega tegeleb tööelistest naistest 53% ja meestest 44%. Naiste osalus on suurem ka Leedus, Lätis, Soomes, Rootsis, Eestis, Poolas, Sloveenias, Austrias, Ungaris, Hispaanias, Suurbritannias ja Taanis.

Euroopa riikidest on kõige õpimulisemad Austria kodanikud, järgnevad Luksemburg ja Sloveenia. Eestlaste õpihuvi jääb Euroopa Liidu keskmisest allapoole.

### 2.3. Sooline palgalõhe

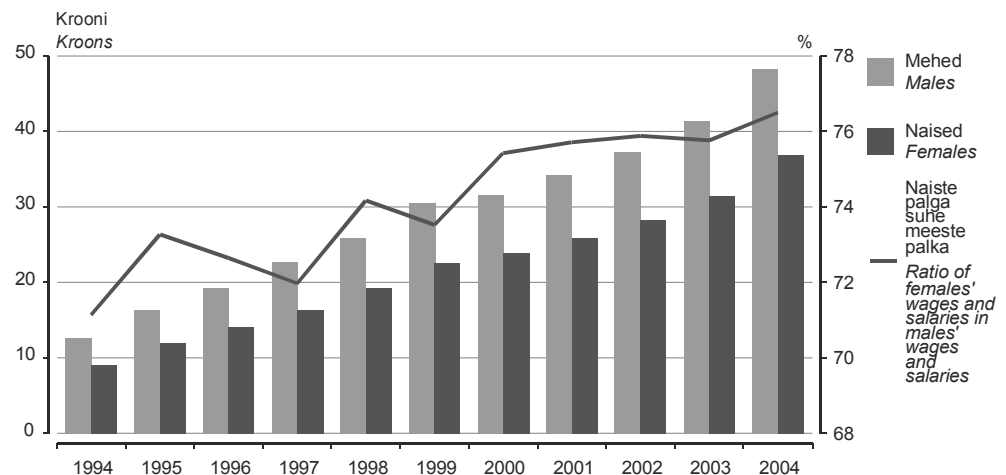
Aastatel 2000–2005 on nominaalse ja reaalse netopalgaga kasv olnud vastava brutopalgaga tõusust veidi aeglasem. Keskmise ja mediaannetopalgaga (vastavalt 56 658 ja 44 412 krooni 2003. aastal) võrdlusest selgub, et mediaannetopalk hõlmas keskmisest netopalgast 78,4% ehk aasta mediaannetopalk oli keskmisest netopalgast 12 246 krooni väiksem.

**Naiste brutotunnipalk on meeste brutotunnipalgast 24% madalam**

Sarnaselt teiste Euroopa Liidu riikidega jäi ka Eestis aastatel 1994–2004 täis- ja osalise tööajaga naiste brutotunnipalk madalamaks meeste vastavast palgast (joonis 2.17). Kuid Eestis oli kogu nimetatud perioodi jooksul naiste brutotunnipalk meeste brutotunnipalgast umbes 10 protsendipunkti madalam kui EL25 riikides keskmiselt. 2004. aastal erinesid naiste ja meeste palgad Eestis ja EL25-s vastavalt 24% ja 15% (Gender 2006). Eesti on Küprose, Slovakkia, Saksamaa ja Inglismaa kõrval üks viiest EL riigist, kus naiste brutotunnipalk on üle 20% madalam kui meeste brutotunnipalk. Kõige väiksem on naiste ja meeste palgaerinevus Maltal, Portugalis ja Belgias (2004. aastal 4–6%).

Joonis 2.17 Naiste ja meeste brutotunnipalk ja naiste tunnipalga suhe meeste tunnipalka, 1994–2004

Figure 2.17 Hourly gross wages and salaries of males and females and females' hourly wages as a proportion of males' hourly wages, 1994–2004



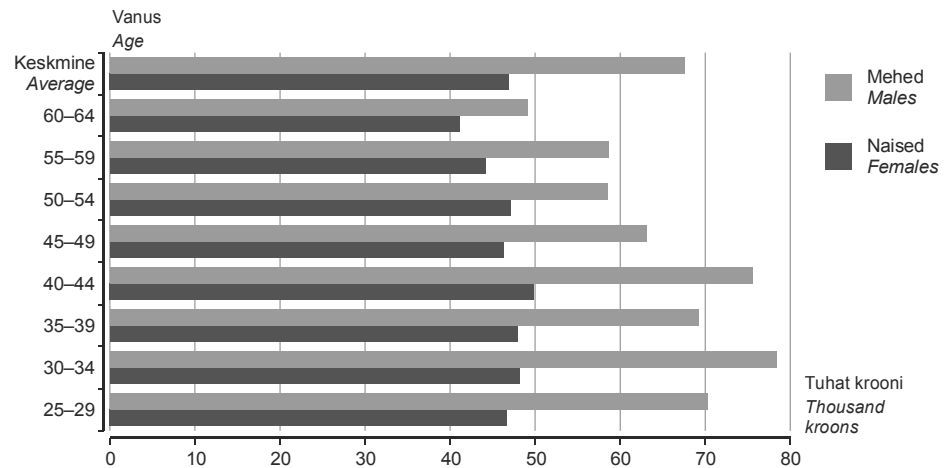
Allikas: Statistikaamet.  
Source: Statistics Estonia.

Vaatamata naiste ja meeste palga märkimisväärsele disproportsioonile, on uuringud näidanud, et palgade sugudevaheline erinevus on vähenemas (Rõõm ja Kallaste 2004, Viies 2004). Palgaerinevuse vähenemine on põhjustatud eelkõige struktuursetest muutustest tööturul, kiiresti on kasvanud just need majandusharud, kus on hõivatud enamikus naised. Palgaerinevuse vähenemise aeglus tuleneb suuresti sellest, et majandusharudes ja ka ametialadel, kus töötavad naised, on palgad madalamad kui nendes, kus mehed on ülekaalus. T. Rõõm ja E. Kallaste (2004) on välja toonud, et ühte kolmandikku palgade erinevusest saab seletada naiste ja meeste inimkapitali ning töökohtade erinevusega, kuid kahte kolmandikku ei saa nende teguritega põhjendada ja palgaerinevuste vähendamiseks on vaja tähelepanu pöörata just põhjendamata palgaerinevuste põhjustele.

### Naiste ja meeste palgalõhe on suurem nooremates vanuserühmades

Naiste ja meeste palgad erinevad suurel määral olenevalt vanusest, haridusest, tegevus- ja ametialast, hõivestaatusest ning piirkonnast.<sup>a</sup> Enamikus EL riikides vanuse kasvades palgalõhe laieneb, kuid Eestis oli 2003. aastal naiste ja meeste keskmise aastanetopalka erinevus kõige suurem just nooremates vanuserühmades (joonis 2.18). Naiste palk oli meeste omaga võrreldes madalaim 30–34-aastaste seas (38,6% väiksem) ja alles alates vanuserühmast 45 ja vanemad olid naiste palgad meeste palgast väiksemad vähem kui 30%. Ühe olulise põhjusena võib siin välja tuua asjaolu, et nooremad naised on rohkem kui mehed seotud perekohustustega ja suuremal määral hõivatud osaaajatööga (2004. aastal vastavalt 10,6% ja 8,0%).

Joonis 2.18 **Nais- ja meespalgatöötajate keskmine aastanetopalk vanuse järgi, 2003**  
Figure 2.18 *Average annual net wages and salaries of male and female employees by age, 2003*



Allikas: Statistikaamet, sotsiaaluuring.  
Source: Statistics Estonia, Social Survey.

Palgaerinevus oli kõige väiksem (16,3%) vanuserühmas 60–64 aastat. Võrdlus keskmise palgatasemega näitab, et 2003. aastal hõlmasid 45-aastaste ja vanemate naiste netopalgad keskmisest suurema osa kui samas vanuses meeste palgad. Vanuses 60–64 hõlmasid naiste palgad keskmisest palgatasemest 87,5% ja meeste palgad ainult 72,6%.

### Kolmanda haridustasemega naine teenis kolmanda haridustasemega meest 40% vähem

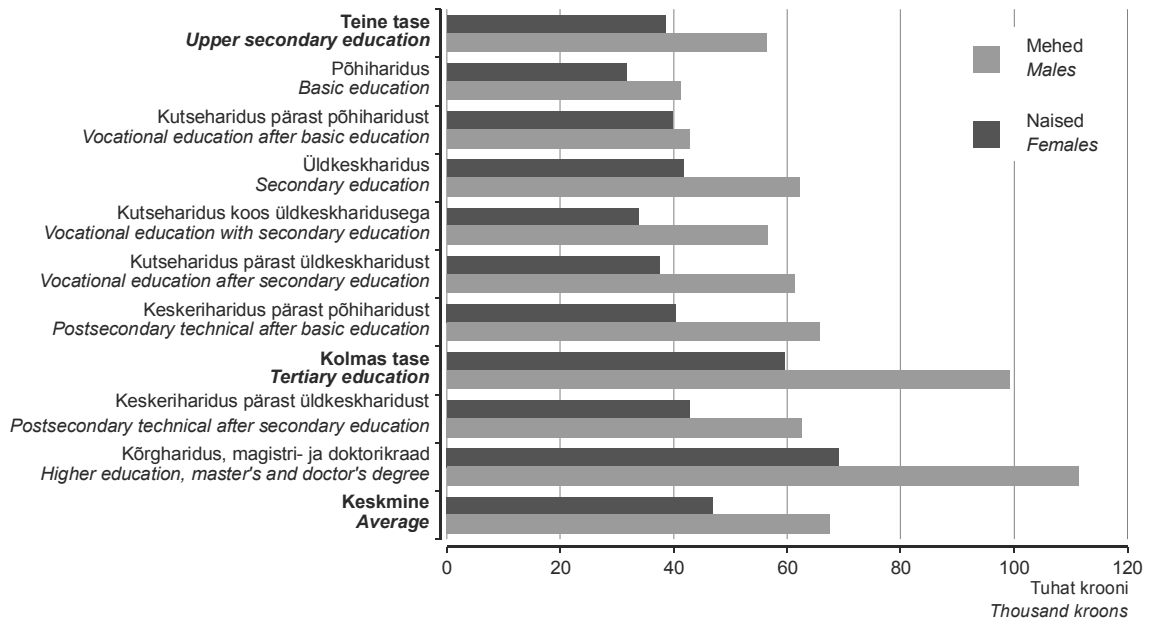
Nii naiste kui ka meeste palga ja haridustaseme vahel on täheldatav positiivne seos kõikides EL riikides, seejuures teenivad mehed kõikidel haridustasemetel naistest rohkem. Samane on olukord ka Eestis, kuid haridustasemest olenevad palgaerinevused on tunduvalt teravamad. Kolmanda haridustasemega naine teenis 2003. aastal 39,9% (ELis keskmiselt 21%) vähem kui sama haridustasemega mees ja ainult 30,6% rohkem kui põhiharidusega mees (46,8% rohkem kui põhiharidusega naine) (joonis 2.19). Seejuures oli kolmanda haridustasemega mehe palk 2,4 korda suurem põhiharidusega mehe palgast. 2003. aastal erinesid kõige vähem nende naiste ja meeste netopalgad, kes olid kutsehariduse omandanud pärast põhiharidust (naiste palk oli 92,8% meeste palgast) ja kõige rohkem kutsehariduse koos üldkeskharidusega omandanud naiste ja meeste palgad (59,7%).

<sup>a</sup> Palgataseme erinevuste iseloomustamiseks naiste ja meeste vanuse, hariduse, tegevus- ja ametiala ning hõivestaatuse järgi on kasutatud kolme põhilist andmeallikat: EU-SILC uuringu tulemusi 2003. aasta kohta, Eesti tööjõu-uuringu (ETU) andmeid aastate 1995–2005 kohta ja Statistikaameti palgastatistikat (palgad ametiala järgi).



2003. aasta andmed peegeldavad, et meeste palk on omandatud haridustasemega tihedamalt seotud kui naiste palk. Nimetatud tendents, samuti tööturul suurenenud nõudlus kõrgharidusega tööjõu järele, on ilmselt avaldanud mõju meeste haridustaseme tõusule. Kolmanda haridustasemega naiste osatähtsus tööjõus on küll meeste omast endiselt suurem (15–74-aastastest vastavalt 39,2% ja 24,8%), kuid aastatel 2000–2005 on kolmanda taseme haridusega meeste osatähtsus kasvanud rohkem kui naiste oma (vastavalt 2,7 ja 2,4 protsendipunkti).

Joonis 2.19 Nais- ja meespalgatöötajate keskmine aastanetopalk haridustaseme järgi, 2003  
Figure 2.19 Average annual net wages and salaries of male and female employees by level of education, 2003



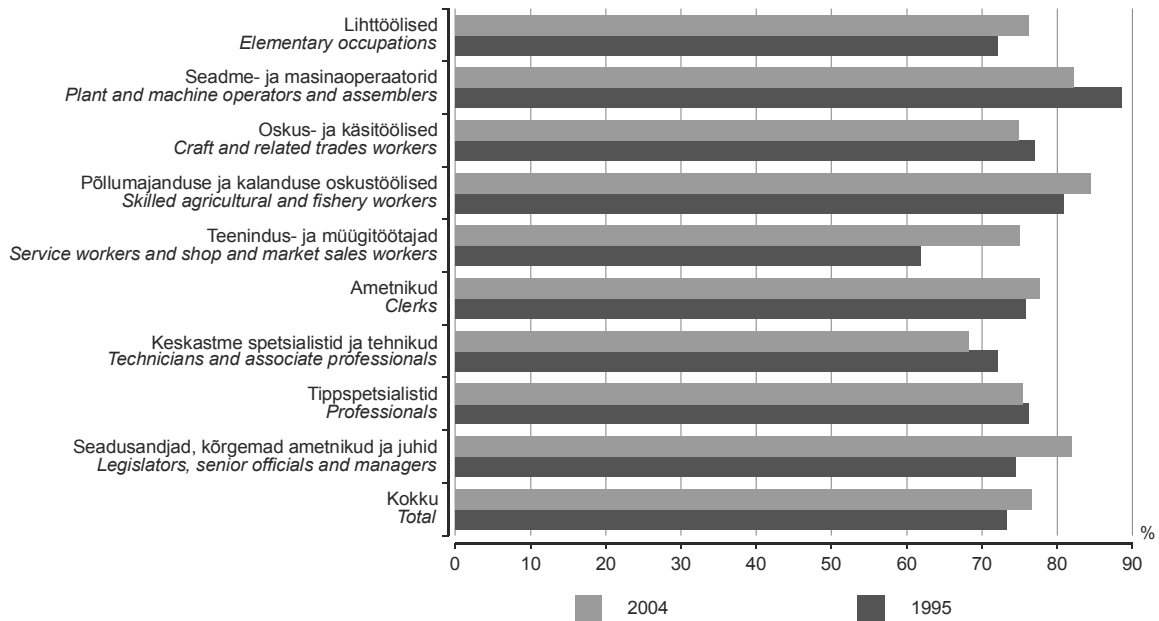
Allikas: Statistikaamet, sotsiaaluuring.  
Source: Statistics Estonia, Social Survey.

Naiste ja meeste palgaerinevus muutus sõltuvalt omandatud haridustasemest aastatel 2000–2005 märgatavalt. Erinevus vähenes 0,9 protsendipunkti teise taseme hariduse omandanud naiste ja meeste palga vahel, seejuures kõige rohkem üldkeskhariduse puhul (6,6 protsendipunkti). Erinevus suurenes aga nii kolmanda (3,2 protsendipunkti) kui ka esimese taseme (9,6 protsendipunkti) omandanud naiste ja meeste palga vahel, eriti keskerihariduse omandanute puhul (9,7 protsendipunkti). Keskmisega võrreldes vähenes naiste brutopalk aastatel 2000–2005 nii teise kui ka kolmanda haridustaseme puhul ja tõusis veidi esimese ja madalama haridustaseme puhul.

Viimasel kümnendil on keskmisest kõrgemat palka saanud kolme ametiala pearühma esindajad — seadusandjad, kõrgemad ametnikud ja juhid, tippspetsialistid, keskastme spetsialistid ja tehnikud ning 2005. aastal erandlikult ka oskus- ja käsitöölised. Seejuures töötavad naispalgatöötajad umbes kolm korda sagedamini kui meespalgatöötajad ametnike ning teenindus- ja müügitöötajatena, kaks korda sagedamini aga keskastme spetsialistide ja tehnikutena ning tippspetsialistidena. Samas ligi pool (2004. aastal 48,7%) meespalgatöötajatest töötab oskus- ja käsitöölisena ning seadme- ja masinaoperaatoritena, 13,1% (8,0% naispalgatöötajatest) aga seadusandjate, kõrgemate ametnike ja juhtidena. Kuigi aastatel 1995–2004 oli kõigis üheksas ametiala pearühmas naiste brutotunnipalk meeste brutotunnipalgast väiksem, võib täheldada naiste ja meeste brutotunnipalga erinevuses olulisi muutusi (joonis 2.20).

Joonis 2.20 Naiste keskmise brutotunnipalga suhe meeste keskmisesse brutotunnipalka ametiala pearühma järgi, 1995–2004

Figure 2.20 Females' average hourly gross wages as a proportion of males' average hourly gross wages by major groups of occupations, 1995–2004



Allikas: Statistikaamet.  
Source: Statistics Estonia.

**Kõige väiksem on naiste ja meeste palgalõhe seadme- ja masinaoperaatorite ametialal**

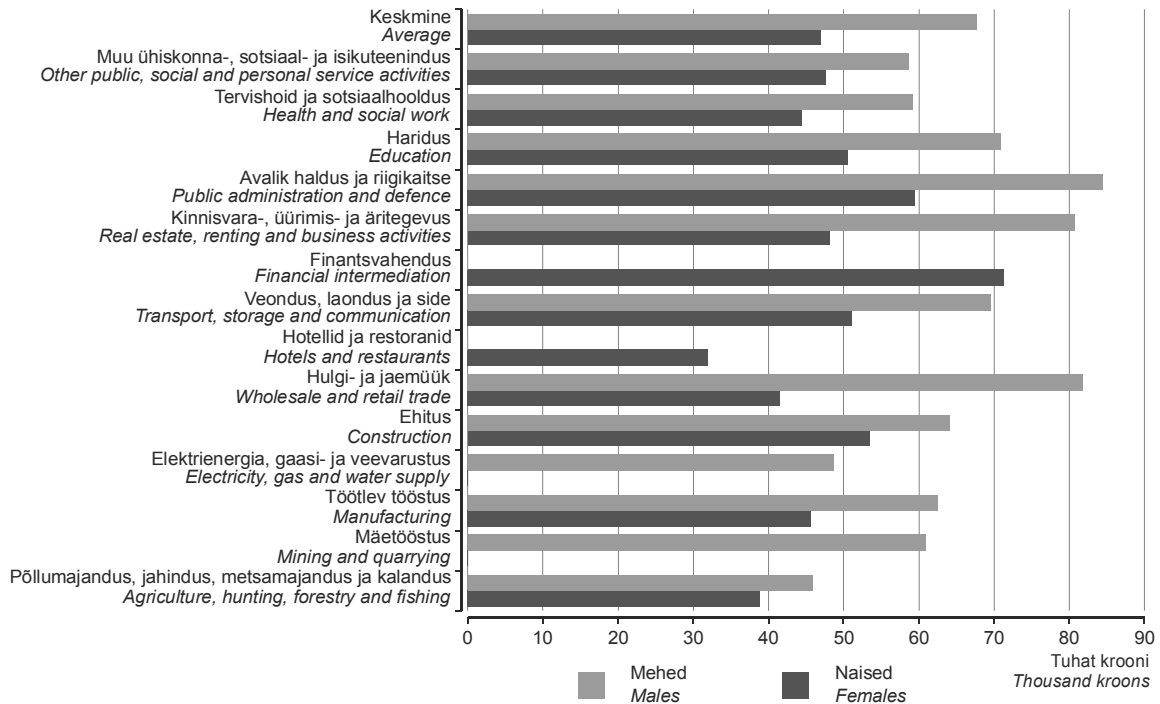
Kui 1995. aastal hõlmasid meeste brutotunnipalkadest kõige suurema osa (88,5%) naissoost seadme- ja -masinaoperaatorite brutotunnipalgad, siis 2004. aastal põllumajanduse ja kalanduse naisoskustöölise palgad (84,4% meeste brutotunnipalgast), kusjuures selle ametiala esindajaid oli naispalgatöötajate seas ainult 1,3%. Kõige madalamad olid meeste palgadega võrreldes (68,1%) 2004. aastal keskastme spetsialistidest ja tehnikutest naiste palgad (1995. aastal teenindus- ja müügitöötajate tunnipalgad — 61,9%). 2000. aastaga võrreldes oli 2004. aastaks suurenenud naiste palga osatähtsus meeste palgas teenindus- ja müügitöötajatel (6,6 protsendipunkti), seadusandjatel, kõrgematel ametnikel ja juhtidel (5,4 protsendipunkti), tippspetsialistidel (4,3 protsendipunkti) ning lihttöölistel (1,6 protsendipunkti). 2004. aastal hõlmasid naiste palgad meeste palgast kõige suurema osa (85,1%) oskus- ja käsitöölise ning kõige väiksema osa (60,7%) keskastme spetsialistide ja tehnikute ametiala pearühmas.

**Kuueistkümnest põhitegevusalast kaheksa kindlustavad kõrgema keskmise brutopalga — naised töötavad aga madalama palgatase-mega tegevusaladel**

Palgastatistika andmetel kindlustasid kuueistkümnest põhitegevusalast kaheksa 2005. aastal keskmisest kõrgema palga: metsamajandus; ehitus; mäetööstus; veondus, laondus ja side; elektrienergia-, gaasi ja veevarustus; kinnisvara, rentimine ja äritegevus; avalik haldus ja riigikaitse, kohustuslik sotsiaalkindlustus ning finantsvahendus. Naispalgatöötajatest töötas hariduses 15,8%, kaubanduses 12,4%, tervishoius ja sotsiaalhoolekandes 11,0%, hotellides ja restoranides 4,0% ja finantsvahenduses 2,0%. Seega töötab ligi pool (45,2%) naispalgatöötajatest tegevusaladel, kus palgatase on keskmisest madalam. Erandiks on finantsvahendus, kus palgatase on endiselt kõige kõrgem, kuid 2005. aastaks on erinevus teiste tegevusaladega võrreldes tunduvalt vähenenud. Naiste palgad olidki aastatel 2000–2005 kõige kõrgemad just finantsvahenduses (2005. aastal 27% keskmisest kõrgemad), lisaks sellele tegevusalale ületasid naiste palgad keskmise palgatase vaid avaliku halduse ja riigikaitse põhitegevusalal. Kõige madalamad (60–70% keskmisest) olid naiste palgad kogu vaadeldava perioodi jooksul hotellides ja restoranides. Et mehed on hõivatud tegevusaladel, kus palgatase on keskmisest kõrgem, siis aastatel 2000–2005 olid meeste palgad keskmisest madalamad vaid ühel tegevusalal — põllumajanduses, jahinduses ja metsamajanduses, kus 2005. aastal hõlmasid need keskmisest palgatasemest 90%.

2003. aastal ei ületanud naiste netoaastapalk meeste oma ühelgi tegevusalal. Naiste netoaastapalk hõlmas meeste omast kõige suurema osa (84,9%) põllumajanduses, jahinduses, metsamajanduses ja kalanduses (joonis 2.21), kuid sellel tegevusalal oli 2003. aastal hõivatud vaid 2,5% naispalgatöötajatest.

Joonis 2.21 Nais- ja meespalgatöötajate keskmine aastanetopalk põhitegevusala järgi, 2003  
Figure 2.21 Average annual net wages of male and female employees by main economic activity, 2003



Allikas: Statistikaamet, sotsiaaluuring.  
Source: Statistics Estonia, Social Survey.

Põllumajanduse, jahinduse, metsamajanduse ja kalanduse kõrval oli ka ehituses ning muu ühiskonna-, sotsiaal- ja isikuteeninduse tegevusalal naiste palga osatähtsus meeste palgas suurem kui 80%, kuid hulgi- ja jaemüügi ning kinnisvara-, üürimis- ja äritegevuse tegevusalal ei küündinud naiste palk isegi 60%-ni meeste palgast.

Naissoost üksikettevõtja netopalk hõlmas meessoost üksikettevõtja netopalgast suurema osa kui naispalgatöötaja netopalk meespalgatöötaja netopalgast, 2004. aastal vastavalt 82,0% ja 69,9%. Naiste palgad olid aastatel 2000–2005 keskmisest kõrgemad vaid riiklikus sektoris 2003. ja 2005. aastal, samas kui meestel keskmisest madalamad ainult nimetatud aastatel kohalikus omavalituses töötamisel.

### Kirde-Eestis hõlmas naiste palk Eesti keskmisest brutopalgast vaid 62%

Kõigis Eesti piirkondades (Kesk-, Kirde-, Lääne- ja Lõuna-Eesti) peale Põhja-Eesti oli aastatel 1995–2005 palgatase keskmisest madalam. Naiste brutopalk oli sellel perioodil samuti kõigis piirkondades keskmisest brutopalgast väiksem, v.a aastatel 2000–2002, kui naiste brutopalk ulatus Põhja-Eestis 100–101%-ni keskmisest brutopalgast. Keskmisega võrreldes madalaim (2005. aastal 62% keskmisest brutopalgast) oli naiste palk Kirde-Eestis. Ka meeste brutopalk oli keskmisest väiksem just Kirde-Eestis, kuid hõlmas keskmisest siiski suurema osa kui naiste palk ja ulatus 2004. aastal 94%-ni keskmisest (2005. aastal 86% keskmisest).

### Palkade jaotus

### Kaks kolmandikku naistest on esimeses, kaks kolmandikku meestest viiendas viiendikus

2004. aasta palkade jaotuse andmed on kooskõlas teoreetilise seisukohaga, et palgad jaotuvad märgatavalt ebaühtlasemalt kui sissetulekud, mille jaotust siirded aitavad ühtlustada. Kui netopalka jaotuse esimesse palgaviendikku kuuluva palgatöötaja netopalk oli viiendasse palgaviendikku kuuluva palgatöötaja netopalgast 7,3 korda väiksem, siis netosissetulek erines vastavates tuluviendikes 2004. aastal vaid 5,5 korda (Leibkonna... 2005). Palgataseme kujunemisel ja jaotumisel on oluline roll soolisel aspektil (Wilder *et al*

1999). Palgajaotuse esimeses viiendikus on naiste osatähtsus (66,8%) kaks korda suurem kui meeste oma, viiendat palgaviiendikku iseloomustab aga vastupidine suhe (naised hõlmasid 33,3% ja mehed 66,8%). Nimetatud asjaolu on peamine põhjus, millega võib seletada palkade jaotuse suurt ebavõrdsust, sest nagu eespool välja toodud, on naiste palgad meeste palkadest tunduvalt madalamad kõikide vaadeldud tunnuste alusel. Esimeses palgaviiendikus on rohkem kui viiendas palgaviiendikus vanemaealisi (vastavalt 46,8% ja 33,6%), teise taseme haridusega (vastavalt 76,3% ja 43,7%), sinikraesid (vastavalt 74,3% ja 27,6%) ja primaarsektori palgatöötajaid (vastavalt 8,5% ja 3,2%). Naiste suur osatähtsus kombinatsioonis vanemaealiste, madalama haridustaseme, sinikraede ja primaarsektoris töötavate suurema osaga kujundabki madala palgataseme esimeses palgaviiendikus. Vastupidine on olukord viiendas palgaviiendikus, kus on rohkem mehi, kuni 44-aastaseid, kolmanda haridustasemega inimesi, valgekraesid ning sekundaar- ja tertsiaarsektori palgatöötajaid.

**Üle 10 000-kroonist brutopalka teenib kaks korda enam mehi kui naisi**

Aastatel 2000–2005 muutus oluliselt täistööajaga töötavate nais- ja meespalgatöötajate jagunemine brutopalgagruppidesse. 2005. aastal oli 2000. aastaga võrreldes üle 5000 krooni teenivate naiste osatähtsus 2,4 korda suurem ja meeste osatähtsus 1,9 korda suurem, vastavalt 35,8% ja 55,5%. Kuigi üle 10 000-kroonist brutopalka teenis üle kahe korra rohkem mehi kui naisi (vastavalt 14,3% ja 6,6%), kasvas naiste osatähtsus selles palgagrupid aastatel 2000–2005 kiiremini. Samas teenis miinimumpalgast (2690 krooni) väiksemat palka 2005. aastal ligi kolm korda rohkem naisi kui mehi.

Naiste ja meeste palgaerinevuste vähenemisel on oluline roll hoiakute muutumisel tööturukäitumises. Soolise võrdõiguslikkuse süvalaiendamise põhimõtte rakendamine ja mõjude hindamine sugupoolte aspektist (Mõjude 2004) kõigis poliitikavaldkondades, eriti haldus-suutlikkuse parandamine soolise võrdõiguslikkuse kui horisontaalpoliitika elluviimisel peaks looma aluse hoiakute muutumisele tööturukäitumises, mis omakorda viiks naiste ja meeste palgataseme ühtlustumisele.

## 2.4. Sissetulek ja vaesus

Sissetulek hõlmab tulu palgatööst ja ettevõtlusest, omanditulu, tulu maa ja muu vara rendist, tulumaksu tagastusi, sotsiaalseid siirdeid (vanaduspension, lastetoetus jne) ning teistelt leibkondadelt saadud regulaarseid makseid. Saadud summast arvutatakse maha tulumaksu juurdemaksed, teistele leibkondadele tehtavad regulaarsed maksed ning varalt makstav maks. Sissetuleku puhul on silmas peetud aasta ekvivalentneto-sissetulekut. See on leibkonna aasta netosissetulek, mis on jagatud leibkonnaliikmete tarbimiskaalude summaga. Tarbimiskaalud on määratud leibkonnaliikmetele nende vanusest sõltuvalt ning neid kasutatakse selleks, et võtta arvesse leibkonna ühist tarbimist. Seega on tegemist leibkonna sissetulekuga tarbimisühiku ehk tarbija kohta.

2003. aastal oli keskmine sissetulek 50 763 krooni aastas ehk 4230 krooni kuus.

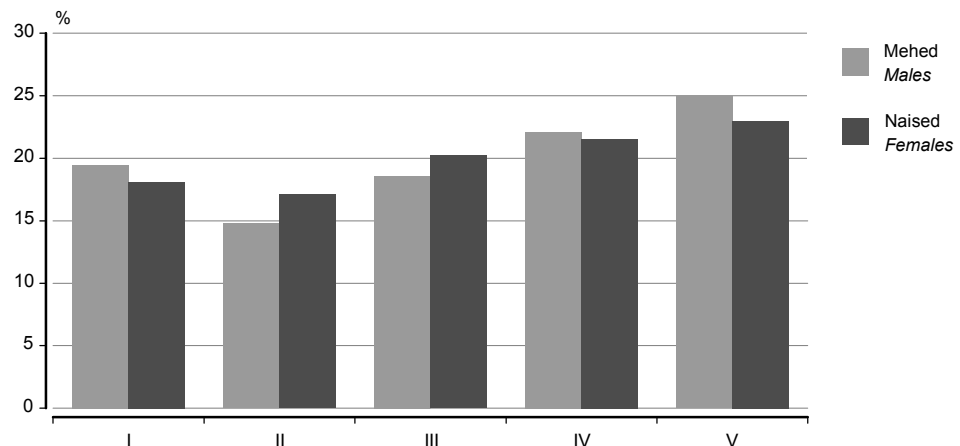
25–64-aastaste meeste ja naiste keskmine sissetulek oli Eesti keskmisest kõrgem. Meeste keskmine sissetulek oli 55 784 krooni aastas, naistel ligi 2000 krooni madalam — 53 976 krooni aastas. Mediaansissetulek, millest pooled inimesed saavad madalamat ning pooled kõrgemat sissetulekut, oli meestel 44 943 krooni ning naistel 43 105 krooni aastas.

### Sissetulek kvintiilides

Sissetulekute jaotumist ühiskonnas võimaldavad paremini jälgida kvintiilid. Nende leidmiseks jagatakse inimesed sissetuleku järgi viieks võrdseks osaks nii, et esimesse kvintiili kuulub viiendik kõige väiksema sissetulekuga inimesi ning viimasesse ehk viiendasse kvintiili viiendik kõrgeimat sissetulekut saavaid inimesi.

2003. aastal oli keskmine sissetulek madalaimas kvintiilis 15 573 krooni aastas ning kõrgeimas kvintiilis 111 471 krooni aastas.

Joonis 2.22 **25–64-aastased mehed ja naised tulukvintiili järgi, 2003**  
 Figure 2.22 *Women and men aged 25–64 by income quintiles, 2003*



**Meeste sissetulekud jaotuvad ebaühtlaselt — sissetulek oli kas kõrge või väga madal**

Kvintiilipõhine lähenemine näitab, et meeste sissetulekute jaotus oli ebaühtlasem kui naistel. Kõige rohkem kuulus nii naised kui ka mehed viimasesse kvintiili, seega oli suure osa 25–64-aastaste keskmine sissetulek 111 471 krooni aastas ehk 9289 krooni kuus. Kõrgemat sissetulekut saavaid mehi oli suhteliselt rohkem nii neljandas kui ka viiendas kvintiilis. Kahte viimasesse kvintiili kuulus 47% meestest ja 45% naistest. Aga ka esimeses kvintiilis oli mehi naistest veidi rohkem. Kõige vähem inimesi oli mõlema soo korral teises kvintiilis. Seega kuulusid 25–64-aastased inimesed pigem äärmustesse, nende sissetulek oli kas väga kõrge või väga madal. Meeste seas oli see tendents märgatavam, naised olid sissetulekute järgi ühtlasemalt jaotunud. Meestega võrreldes kuulus naised suhteliselt rohkem keskmistesse ja vähem äärmistesse kvintiilidesse.

Meeste suuremat sissetulekute erinevust on näha ka siis, kui vaadata meeste ja naiste eri kvintiilides saadavat keskmist sissetulekut. Lisaks meeste ebavõrdsemale jaotumisele kvintiilide vahel, said madalates kvintiilides mehed naistest väiksemat sissetulekut ning kõrgeimas kvintiilis suuremat sissetulekut. Esimeses kvintiilis oli naiste keskmine sissetulek 15 000 krooni ning meeste oma 14 061 krooni aastas. Kõrgeimat sissetulekut saava viiendiku hulka kuuluvad mehed said keskmiselt aastas 113 938 krooni, naistel oli keskmine sissetulek 2100 krooni väiksem.

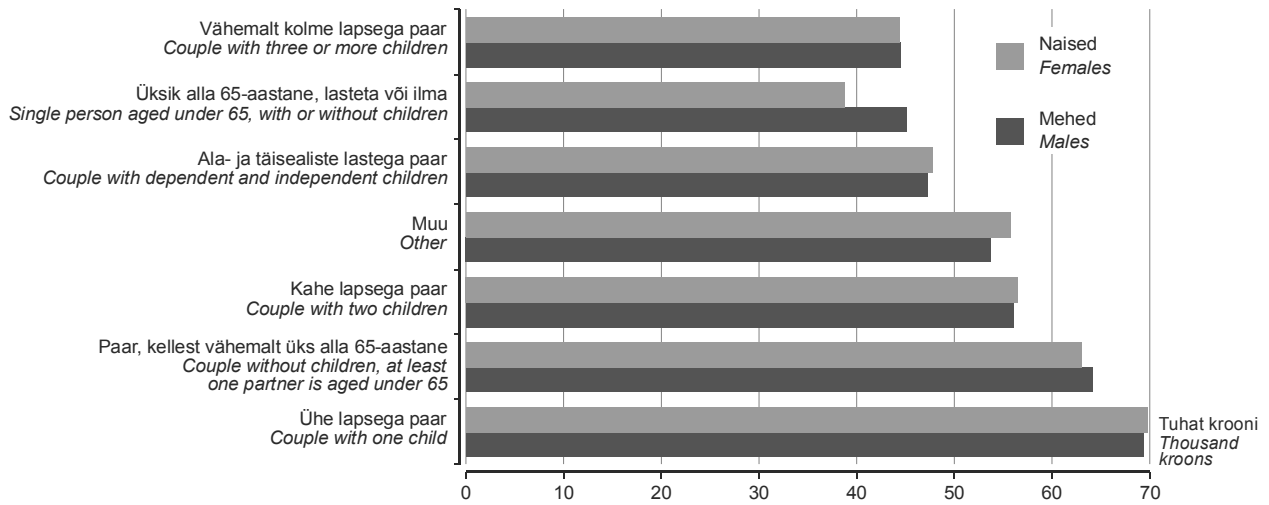
**Sissetulek leibkonnatüübi järgi**

**Lastega 25–64-aastaste paaride puhul meeste ja naiste sissetulek oluliselt ei erine**

Vaadates 25–64-aastasi laste olemasolu ja kooselu järgi, selgub, et meeste ja naiste sissetulekutes ei ole leibkonnatüübi järgi suuri erinevusi. See on ka mõistetav, sest vaatluse all on ekvivalentsissetulek, mis on kõigil leibkonnaliikmetel võrdne. Seega esineb suuremaid soolisi erinevusi just üksi elavate inimeste seas. Et üksi on raske hakkama saada, tõestab ka see, et kõige väiksem keskmine sissetulek oli leibkondades, mille moodustas alla 65-aastane üksikvanem või päris üksi elav inimene. Veidi suuremat, kuid siiski allapoole Eesti keskmist jäävat sissetulekut said üksi elavad mehed — 45 082 krooni aastas. Üksikute naiste keskmine sissetulek oli sellest 1,2 korda väiksem.

Eesti keskmisest madalamat sissetulekut said veel ala- ja täisealiste lastega ning vähemalt kolme alaealise lapsega paaris elavad mehed ja naised. Kõige kõrgemat sissetulekut said inimesed, kes elasid ühe alaealise lapsega paari leibkonnas. Nende keskmine sissetulek oli 1,6 korda suurem kui kolme või enama lapsega paari leibkonnas, 1,5 korda suurem kui üksikutele meestel ning 1,8 korda suurem üksikute naiste sissetulekust. Keskmisest suuremat sissetulekut saadi ka ilma lasteta ja kahe lapsega paarides, samuti muudes leibkonnatüüpides (nt mitme põlvkonna leibkondades).

Joonis 2.23 25–64-aastased naised ja mehed leibkonnatüübi ja keskmise sissetuleku järgi, 2003  
 Figure 2.23 Women and men aged 25–64 by household type and average income, 2003



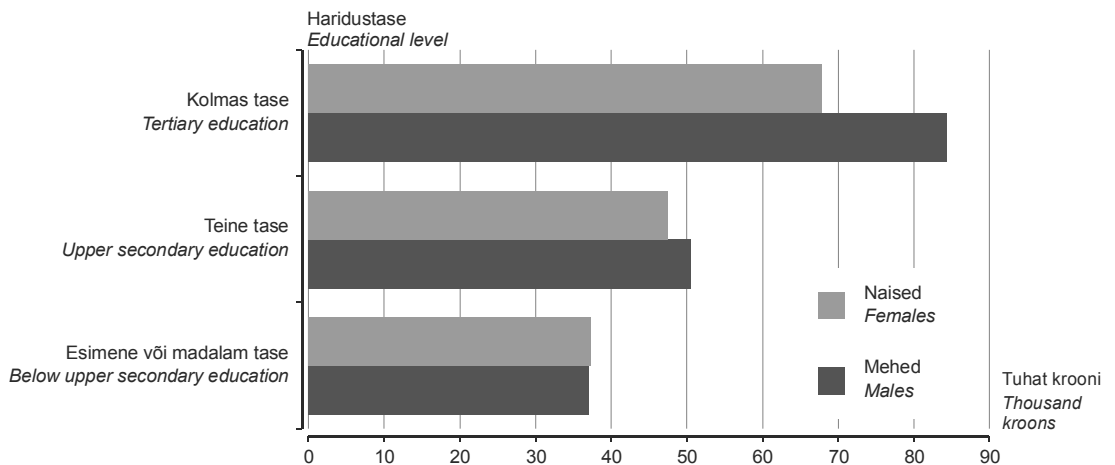
**Sissetulek hariduse järgi**

Uurides mehi ja naise haridustaseme järgi on näha, et meestel oli sissetulekute erinevus sõltuvalt haridusest suurem kui naistel. Meeste keskmine sissetulek erines kõrgeima hariduse ja madalaima hariduse vahel 2,3 korda. Naiste puhul oli see erinevus 1,8-kordne.

Põhiharidusega või sellest madalama haridustasemega naised ja mehed said keskmisest madalamat sissetulekut. Madalaima haridustaseme korral ei sõltunud sissetuleku suurus soost — meestel oli see 36 944 krooni ja naistel 37 216 krooni aastas. Teise haridustaseme (kutseharidus põhi- või keskhariduse baasil, keskharidus, keskeriharidus põhihariduse baasil) korral oli meeste keskmine sissetulek naiste omast 1,1 korda suurem ning kolmanda taseme (kõrg- või keskeriharidus keskhariduse baasil) korral 1,2 korda suurem. Kõrgeima haridustaseme puhul oli meeste keskmine sissetulek Eesti keskmisest 1,7 korda suurem, naistel aga vaid 1,3 korda suurem (meeste korral 82 243 krooni ja naiste korral 67 715 krooni aastas). Teise haridustasemega meeste sissetulek oli Eesti keskmisega samal tasemel, naiste sissetulek aga keskmisest veidi madalam.

**Kõrgeima haridustasemega meeste keskmine sissetulek on Eesti keskmisest 1,7 korda suurem**

Joonis 2.24 25–64-aastased naised ja mehed haridustaseme ja keskmise sissetuleku järgi, 2003  
 Figure 2.24 Women and men aged 25–64 by educational level and average income, 2003



Elamispiirkonna järgi naiste ja meeste sissetulekud märkimisväärselt ei erinenud. Kõige väiksemat sissetulekut said Kirde-Eestis elavad 25–64-aastased, kõige suuremad olid aga sissetulekud Põhja-Eestis. Põhja-Eestis oli keskmine sissetulek meestel 69 668 krooni ja naistel 66 466 krooni aastas. Kirde-Eestis oli meeste keskmine sissetulek sellest 1,8 ning

naiste oma 1,7 korda madalam. Kõige erinevam oli naiste ja meeste sissetulek Kirde-Eestis, seal said mehed naistest ligi 4500 krooni suuremat aastasissetulekut (50 967 krooni). Linnas elavad naised ja mehed said 1,3 korda suuremat sissetulekut kui maal elavad.

Kõige rohkem erines 25–34-aastaste naiste ja meeste keskmine sissetulek. Selles vanuserühmas olid ka kõige suuremad sissetulekud. Selles vanuses meeste keskmine sissetulek oli 63 239 krooni ja naiste oma 58 424 krooni aastas. Kõige madalam oli sissetulek 55–64-aastaste seas (1,2 korda väiksem kui 25–34-aastaste sissetulek). 45–54-aastaste naiste keskmine sissetulek oli kõrgem kui sama vanadel meestel (vastavalt 54 260 krooni ja 51 301 krooni aastas).

### Vaesus

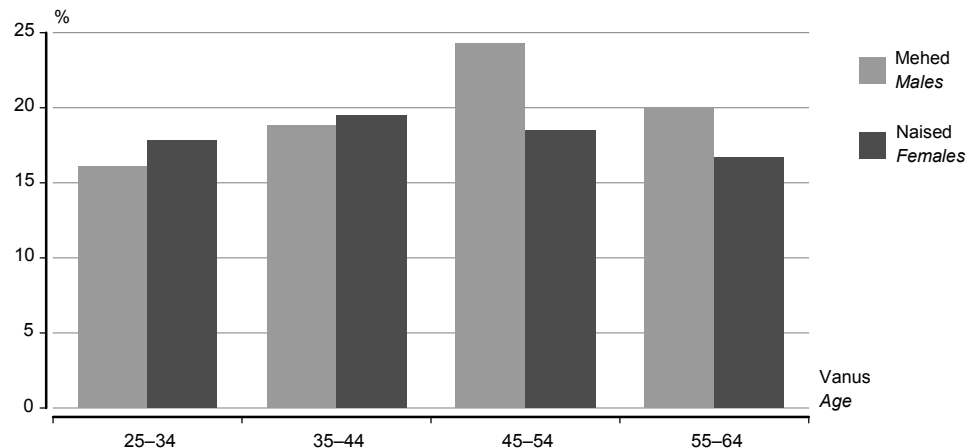
Vaeseks loetakse need inimesed, kelle ekvivalentsissetulek jääb alla 60% riigi mediaansissetulekust. Seda piiri nimetatakse suhtelise vaesuse piiriks.

#### Ligikaudu viiendik naise ja mehi elab vaesuses

2003. aastal oli suhtelise vaesuse piir Eestis 24 073 krooni aastas. Seega loeti vaeseks kõik inimesed, kelle ekvivalentsissetulek jäi sellest summast väiksemaks. Vaeste hulka ise loomustab suhtelise vaesuse määr. 2003. aastal oli suhtelise vaesuse määr 20%, see tähendab, et 20% inimestest said 24 073 kroonist madalamat sissetulekut. Naistest elas vaesuses 21% ja meestest 19%.

25–64-aastaste seas oli suhtelise vaesuse määr madalam — 19%. Selles vanuserühmas oli meeste seas vaeste hulk suurem — alla suhtelise vaesuse piiri sissetulekut sai 20% meestest ja 18% naistest. Meestel oli kõige madalam suhtelise vaesuse määr 25–34-aastaste seas — 16%. Kõige vähem vaeseid naisi (17%) oli vanuses 55–64. Kuni 45-aastaseks saamiseni olid mehed ja naised enam-vähem samas olukorras, naiste suhtelise vaesuse määr oli küll 1–2% meeste omast kõrgem. Pärast 45. eluaastat suurenes aga meeste näitaja hüppeliselt, ületades naiste oma peaaegu 6%-ga. 55–64-aastaste meeste vaesuse määr langes veidi, kuid jäi siiski naiste omast kõrgemaks.

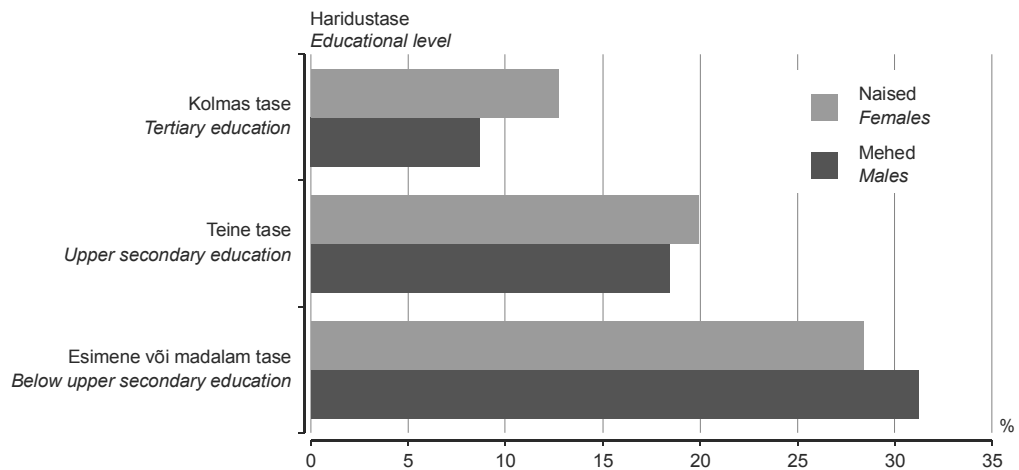
Joonis 2.25 Suhtelise vaesuse määr soo ja vanuse järgi, 2003  
Figure 2.25 At-risk-of-poverty rate by age and sex, 2003



#### Esimese ja madalama haridustasemega mehed elavad vaesuses 3,6 korda sagedamini kui kõrgeima haridustasemega mehed

Oluline tegur sissetuleku suurendamisel on haridustase. Mida kõrgem on omandatud haridus, seda tõenäolisem on vaesusest pääseda. 25–64-aastaste põhihariduse või madalama haridustasemega inimeste seas oligi vaesusriskis elavate inimeste osatähtsus kõige suurem. Sellise haridusega meestest elas allpool suhtelise vaesuse piiri 31%, naiste olukord oli pisut parem — neil oli vastav määr 28%. Meeste puhul mõjutas haridus vaesust rohkem kui naistel — esimese ja madalama haridustasemega mehed elasid vaesuses 3,6 korda sagedamini kui kõrgeima haridustasemega mehed. Naistel oli see erinevus 2,2-kordne. Kui madalaima haridustasemega mehi elas vaesuses suhteliselt rohkem kui naisi, siis esimesest tasemest kõrgema hariduse korral oli meeste suhtelise vaesuse määr naiste omast madalam. Allpool suhtelise vaesuse piiri sissetulekut sai 9% kõrgeima haridusega meestest, selliseid naisi oli 1,5 korda rohkem.

Joonis 2.26 **25–64-aastaste suhtelise vaesuse määr soo ja hariduse järgi, 2003**  
 Figure 2.26 *At-risk-of-poverty rate of persons aged 25–64 by sex and education, 2003*



Piirkonniti ei olnud naiste ja meeste vaesuses märkimisväärsed erinevusi. Kõrgeim oli suhtelise vaesuse määr 25–64-aastastel meestel ja naistel Kirde-Eestis — vastavalt 28% ja 25%. Madalaim oli see Põhja-Eestis (meestel 13% ja naistel 12%). Samuti ei erinenud meeste ja naiste vaesus linnas ja maal. Mõlema soo puhul oli maal 10 protsendipunkti rohkem vaesuses elavaid inimesi. Leibkonnatüübi järgi elasid kõige suuremas vaesuses üksikud inimesed ja üksikvanemad. Üksi elavatest naistest sai suhtelise vaesuse piirist madalamat sissetulekut 29%, selliseid mehi oli koguni 41%. Üksikemadest elas vaesuses 39%. Et üksikisased sattus valimisse väga vähe, ei saa nende kohta üldistusi teha. Teistes leibkonnatüüpides oli naiste ja meeste suhtelise vaesuse määr peaaegu võrdne. Teistest suuremas vaesuses (suhtelise vaesuse määr 24%) elasid ka kolme lapsega paari leibkonnad. Kõige vähem vaesuses elavaid 25–64-aastasi (13%) kuulus lasteta paari leibkonda, kus vähemalt üks liige oli alla 65-aastane.

## 2.5. Elustil

Töö- ja pereastatel on leibkonna jaoks oluline eelarve, mis annab ette võimalused, mis mahus nad saavad endale kulutusi lubada. Naiste ja meeste leibkondade sissetuleku tase on erinev, seega on meesleibkonnapeaga leibkonnal paremad eeldused toime tulla kui naisleibkonnapeaga leibkonnal. See toob ka esile sugudevahelise tarbimisstruktuuri erinevuse. Pole vaja mainidagi, et alkohoolsetele jookidele ja tubakale kulutavad meesleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad enam kui vastassugupoole esindajate leibkonnad. Suurem erinevus on ka transpordikulutustes — meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondadel hõlmavad need tarbimiskulutustest suurema osa (11,8%) kui naistel (9,9%). Samas on eluasemekulutused suuremad naisleibkonnapeaga leibkondadel — 17,4% tarbimiskulutustest meeste 13,8% vastu. Naisleibkonnapeaga leibkondade tarbimiskulutustes on meestega võrreldes suurem osatähtsus ka tervishoiukulutustel (3,8%). Üldstruktuuri mõjutavad vanemaealiste naisleibkondade väiksemad (ja üheliikmelised) leibkonnad, kus leibkonnaliikme kohta tuleb teha tunduvalt enam kulutusi.

Tabel 2.10 **Leibkonnaliikmete tarbimisstruktuur leibkonnapea soo järgi, 2005**  
 Table 2.10 *Consumption structure of household members by sex of the head of the household, 2005*

	Mees / Male	Naine / Female	
Toit ja alkohoolivad joogid	26,5	27,7	Food and non-alcoholic beverages
Alkohoolsed joogid	2,3	1,4	Alcoholic beverages
Tubakatooted	1,5	1,2	Tobacco products
Rõivad ja jalanõud	6,7	6,6	Clothing and footwear
Eluase	13,8	17,4	Housing
Majapidamiskulud	6,0	6,7	Household expenditure
Tervishoid	2,6	3,8	Health
Transport	11,8	9,9	Transport
Sideteenused	6,1	6,1	Communications
Vaba aeg	7,8	7,4	Leisure time
Haridus	1,7	1,3	Education
Hotellid, kohvikud, restoranid	3,7	3,4	Hotels, cafés, restaurants
Mitmesugused kaubad ja teenused	6,6	5,7	Miscellaneous goods and services
Mitterahaline tarbimine	2,9	1,4	Non-monetary consumption

Allikas: Statistikaamet, leibkonna eelarve uuring.  
 Source: Statistics Estonia, Household Budget Survey.



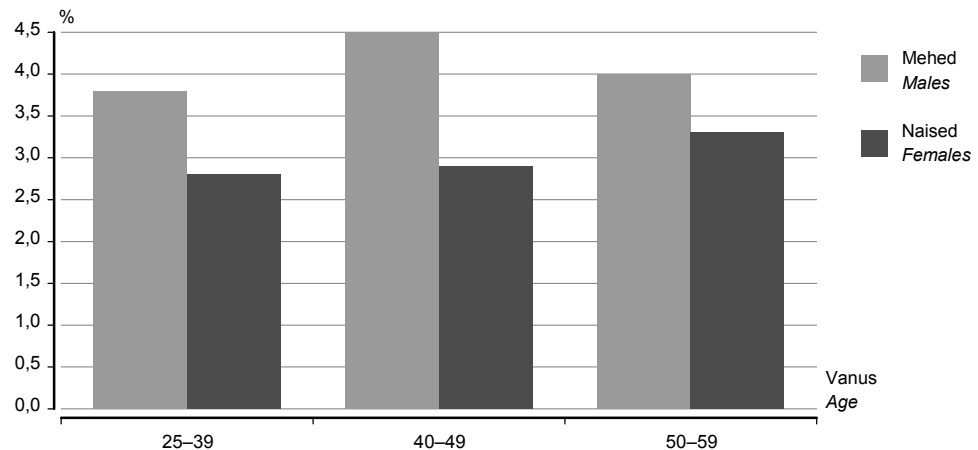
**Meeste tarbimiskulutustes on alkoholsetel jookidel, tubakal ja transpordil suurem osatähtsus**

Sissetulekute ja väljaminekute struktuur sõltub paljuski nii inimese elukorraldusest (kas elab üksi, koos elukaaslasega, koos vanematega) kui ka sellest, millisel elutee astmel ta asub.

Vaadeldes tarbimiskulutusi eri eluetappidel vanuse ja soo järgi, võib välja tuua üldistuse, et naisleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad kulutavad enam toidule, eluasemele, majapidamisele ja tervishoiule. Suuremad erinevused naiste ja meeste tarbimisstruktuuris on alkoholsete jookide ja tubaka tarbimises ja transpordikulutustes. Nagu joonistelt näha, on meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondade tarbimiskulutustes need kululiigid suurema osatähtsusega kõikides vanuserühmades.

Joonis 2.27 **Alkoholsete jookide ja tubaka osatähtsus tarbimiskulutustes soo ja vanuse järgi, 2005**

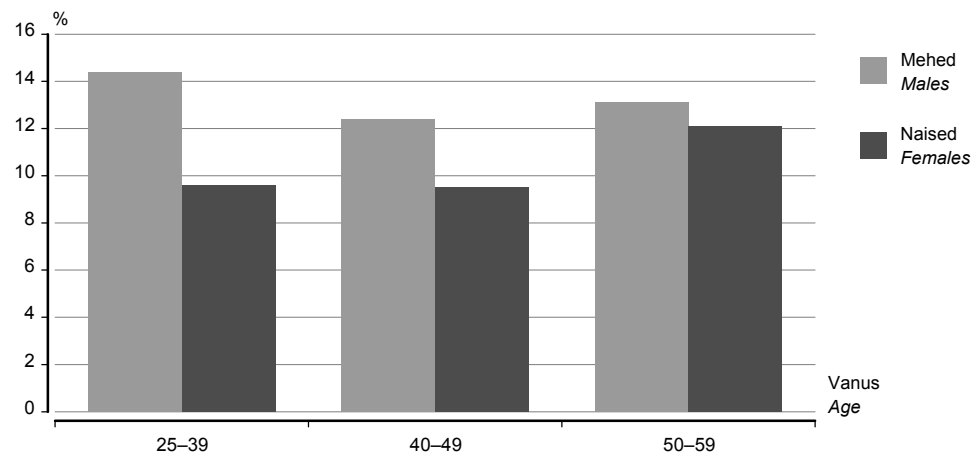
Figure 2.27 *Share of alcoholic beverages and tobacco in consumption expenditure by sex and age, 2005*



Allikas: Statistikaamet, leibkonna eelarve uuring.  
Source: Statistics Estonia, Household Budget Survey.

Joonis 2.28 **Transpordikulutuste osatähtsus tarbimiskulutustes soo ja vanuse järgi, 2005**

Figure 2.28 *Share of transport expenditure in consumption expenditure by sex and age, 2005*

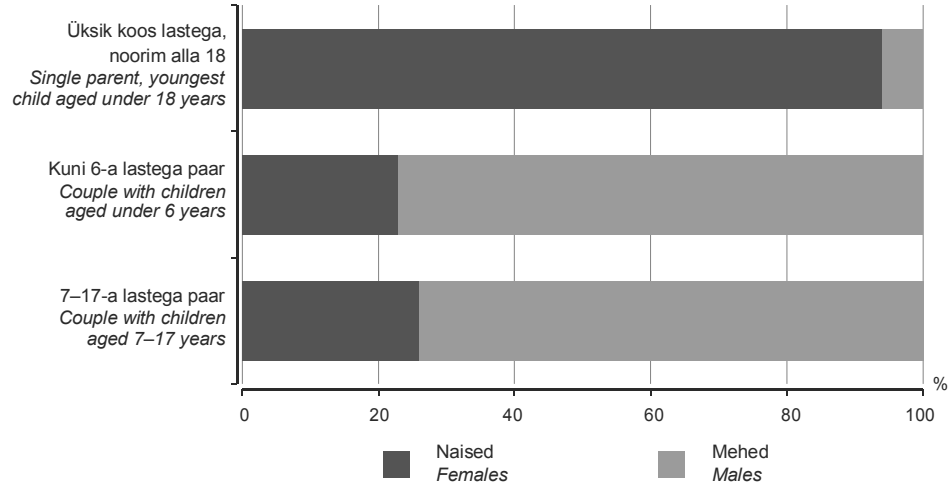


Allikas: Statistikaamet, leibkonna eelarve uuring.  
Source: Statistics Estonia, Household Budget Survey.

Leibkondade üldstruktuuris on üksikuid koos lastega (noorim alla 18) 6%, enam-vähem võrdselt jaotuvad kuni 6-aastaste lastega paarid (10%) ja 7–17-aastaste lastega paarid (11%). Suur erinevus nais- ja meesleibkonnapea järgi ilmneb, kui vaadelda lastega leibkondade seesmist struktuuri. Nagu joonistelt 2.29 näha, on enamik üksikutest, kellel on noorim laps alla 18-aastane, naisleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad (94%), samas nii kuni 6-aastaste lastega leibkonna peaks kui ka 7–17-aastaste lastega leibkonna peaks on üle kahe kolmandiku juhtudest mees (vastavalt 77% ja 74%). Et leibkonnapea defineeritakse

suurema sissetulekusaaja järgi, on ootuspärane, et rohkem kui kahes kolmandikus alaealiste lastega leibkondades on leibkonnapeaks mees. Sellega tuleb arvestada ka andmete interpreteerimisel.

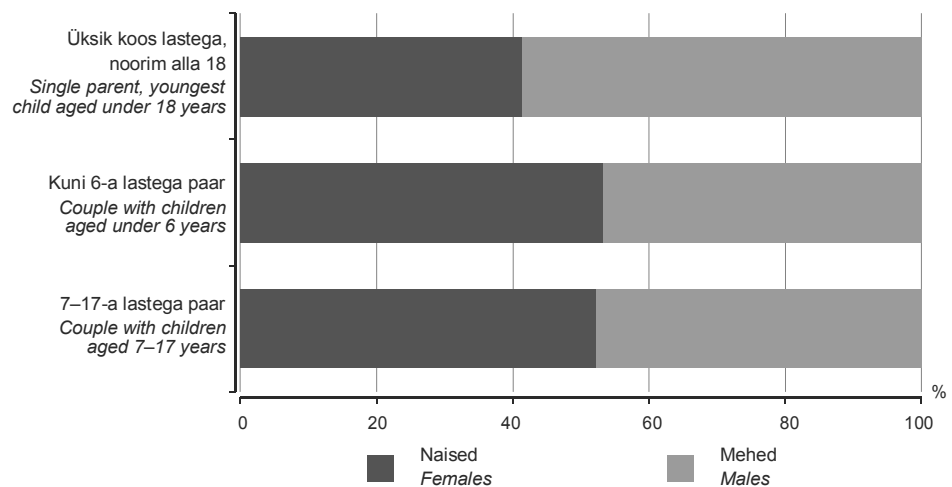
Joonis 2.29 **Nais- ja meesleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad elutsükli järgi, 2005**  
 Figure 2.29 *Households with male and female head of the household by life cycle, 2005*



Allikas: Statistikaamet, leibkonna eelarve uuring.  
 Source: Statistics Estonia, Household Budget Survey.

Nais- ja meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondade kulutuste tase on erinev ja üldjuhul meeste kasuks. Ainult leibkonna üksik koos lastega korral on meesleibkonnapea puhul kulutuste tase leibkonnaliikme kohta kuus tunduvalt väiksem samas elutsükklis naisleibkondade omast. Ühelt poolt võib seda seletada sellega, et sellist tüüpi meesleibkondi on ääretult vähe, ligikaudu vaid 2300 leibkonda ja seega on kulude tase ka suurema heterogeensusega, teiselt poolt saavad selles elutsükklis mehed lastetoetust, alimente ja toetusraha ning sotsiaalabi liikme kohta kuus ka keskmiselt vähem kui naised. Näiteks saavad naised üheksa korda enam alimente kui alaealiste lastega üksikud mehed.

Joonis 2.30 **Nais- ja meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondade keskmine väljaminek kuus, 2005**  
 Figure 2.30 *Average monthly expenditure of households with male and female head of the household, 2005*



**Lastega leibkondade tarbimisstruktuur ei sõltu leibkonnapea soost**

Kuigi kulutuste tasemes oli teatud erinevusi, on tarbimisstruktuur elutsüklliselt lastega leibkondade korral sarnane. Seega ei määra struktuuri niivõrd leibkonnapea sugu kui võrd elutsüklline elukorraldus ja laste olemasolu.

Tabel 2.11 **Alaealiste lastega leibkondade tarbimisstruktuur leibkonnapea soo järgi, 2005**  
 Table 2.11 *Consumption structure of households with minor children by sex of the head of the household, 2005*  
 (protsenti — percentage)

	Kuni 6-a lastega paar <i>Couple with children aged under 6 years</i>		7–17-a lastega paar <i>Couple with children aged 7–17</i>		
	naine <i>female</i>	mees <i>male</i>	naine <i>female</i>	mees <i>male</i>	
Toit ja mittealkohoolsed joogid	24	24	27	26	<i>Food and non-alcoholic beverages</i>
Alkohoolsed joogid ja tubakas	3	3	3	3	<i>Alcoholic beverages and tobacco</i>
Riided ja jalanõud	7	8	7	8	<i>Clothing and footwear</i>
Eluase	12	12	15	11	<i>Housing</i>
Majapidamiskulud	5	6	6	5	<i>Household expenditure</i>
Tervishoid	2	2	3	2	<i>Health</i>
Transport	18	14	13	13	<i>Transport</i>
Side	7	7	7	8	<i>Communications</i>
Vaba aeg	8	9	8	9	<i>Leisure time</i>
Haridus	4	2	2	3	<i>Education</i>
Hotellid, kohvikud, restoranid	3	3	5	5	<i>Hotels, cafés, restaurants</i>
Mitmesugused kaubad ja teenused	8	10	5	6	<i>Miscellaneous goods and services</i>

**Naisleibkonnapeaga eelkooliealiste lastega paaril on transpordikulutused suuremad kui samas elutsüklis meesleibkonnapeaga leibkonnal**

Üldiselt on meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondadel transpordikulutuste osatähtsus kulutustes suurem, kuid erandina võib välja tuua alla 6-aastaste lastega leibkonnad, kus leibkonnapeaks naine — neil on transpordikulutused suuremad kui samas elutsüklis meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondadel ja võrdsed 7–17-aastaste lastega leibkondadega. Niisiis tuleb tõdeda, et eelkooliealiste lastega leibkondades on laste lasteaeda viimine ja toomine ning majapidamise varustamine siiski enam naiste õlul. Seda näitab ka lastega koosveedetud aeg — mehed veedavad eelkooliealiste lastega päevas keskmiselt üle kahe tunni vähem aega kui samas elutsüklis naised. Tingitud on see ka sellest, et väikeste lastega on naine tihti kodune ja seetõttu rohkem aega lastega koos.

Järgnevalt on vaadeldud paarina elavaid alla 45-aastasi ja 45–64-aastasi nais- ja meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondi ja nende tarbimisharjumusi. Tegemist on elutsükliga, kus puuduvad lapsed kas sellepärast, et nad on juba kodust väljunud ja asunud omaette elama või pole laste saamist planeeritudki. Samas on tegemist elutsükliga, kus kasutatavaid ressursse on leibkondadel enam kui teistes elutsüklites leibkondadel. Kui varem selgus, et lastega leibkondade tarbimisstruktuur on sarnane ega sõltu eriti ka laste vanusest, siis lasteta paaride tarbimisstruktuuris on leibkonnapea soo järgi enam erinevusi.

Tabel 2.12 **Lasteta paaride tarbimisstruktuur leibkonnapea soo järgi, 2005**  
 Table 2.12 *Consumption structure of couples without children by sex of the head of the household, 2005*

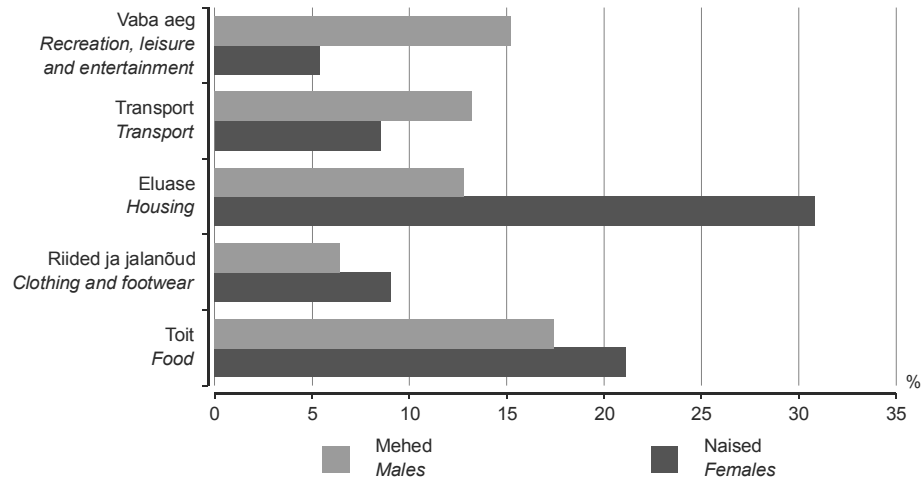
	Alla 45-aastaste paar <i>Couple of persons aged under 45</i>		45–64-aastaste paar <i>Couple of persons aged 45–64</i>		
	naine <i>female</i>	mees <i>male</i>	naine <i>female</i>	mees <i>male</i>	
Toit ja mittealkohoolsed joogid	21,1	17,4	26,9	27,9	<i>Food and non-alcoholic beverages</i>
Alkohoolsed joogid ja tubakas	4,4	5,1	3,3	3,9	<i>Alcoholic beverages and tobacco</i>
Riided ja jalanõud	9,0	6,4	5,0	5,5	<i>Clothing and footwear</i>
Eluase	30,8	12,8	18,4	16,8	<i>Housing</i>
Majapidamiskulud	2,2	9,2	8,0	5,9	<i>Household expenditure</i>
Tervishoid	1,5	1,5	4,9	4,0	<i>Health</i>
Transport	8,5	13,2	11,0	15,8	<i>Transport</i>
Side	4,5	6,4	5,4	5,7	<i>Communications</i>
Vaba aeg	5,4	15,2	9,5	6,7	<i>Leisure time</i>
Haridus	1,8	1,3	0,6	0,2	<i>Education</i>
Hotellid, kohvikud, restoranid	4,3	5,9	1,8	1,8	<i>Hotels, cafés, restaurants</i>
Mitmesugused kaubad ja teenused	6,5	5,5	5,3	5,1	<i>Miscellaneous goods and services</i>

**Alla 45-aastaste paaride tarbimisstruktuur sõltub leibkonnapea soost — naisleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad kulutavad rohkem riidele, teenustele ja eluasemele**

Paarina elavate alla 45-aastaste naisleibkonnapeaga leibkondadel on eluase kvaliteetsem ja kulutused eluasemele suuremad. Samas elutsüklis meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondadega võrreldes on erinevus koguni 2,4-kordne. Alla 45-aastased naisleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad kulutavad ka enam riidele ja jalanõudele kui samas elutsüklis meesleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad ning enam tehakse kulutusi ka muudele kaupadele ja teenustele (nt juuksur, kosmeetika jms) ja toidule. Seega võib tõdeda, et alla 45-aastased naisleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad panustavad oma elustandardile nii riiete, teenuste kui ka eluaseme näol. Ka suuremad toidukulutused tähendavad pigem seda, et ostetakse kallimat ja kvaliteetsemat

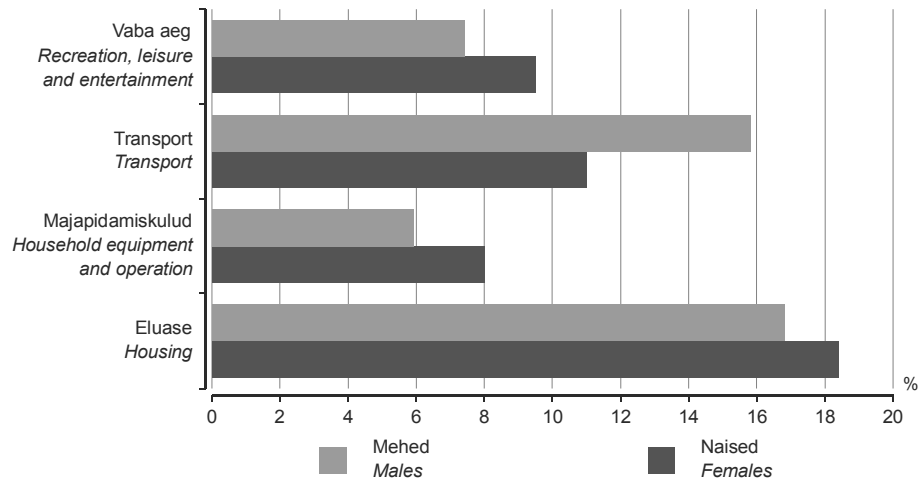
toidukaupa, mitte koguseliselt suuremat tarbimismahtu. Alla 45-aastased meesleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad kulutavad enam majapidamisele (neli korda enam kui samas elutsüklis naisleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad), peaaegu kolm korda (2,8 korda) enam vabale ajale ja poolteist korda enam transpordile. Seega võib üldistatult öelda, et tarbimiskultuuri määrab selles elutsüklis leibkonnapea sugu.

Joonis 2.31 **Alla 45-aastaste paarina elavate leibkondade kulutused leibkonnapea soo järgi, 2005**  
 Figure 2.31 *Expenditure of households living as a couple aged under 45 by sex of the head of the household, 2005*



Järgmises elutsüklis, 45–64-aastaste leibkondade korral, on nais- ja meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondade tarbimisstruktuur üldiselt ühtlustunud, kuid mõned erinevused on siiski säilinud.

Joonis 2.32 **45–64-aastaste paarina elavate leibkondade kulutused leibkonnapea soo järgi, 2005**  
 Figure 2.32 *Expenditure of households living as a couple aged 45–64 by sex of the head of the household, 2005*



Eluasemele teevad 45–64-aastased paarina elavad naisleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad enam kulutusi kui samas elutsüklis meesleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad, kuid erinevus jääb paari protsendipunkti piiresse. Samas kulutavad selles elutsüklis naisleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad rohkem majapidamisele ja vabale ajale. 45–64-aastased meesleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad kulutavad enam transpordile. Kui jätta kõrvale transpordikulused, mis eri elutsüklites olid suuremad eelkõige meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondadel, siis teiste kuluartiklite puhul sõltub leibkondade käitumine vanusest ja leibkonnapea soost.

**Alla 45-aastased muus elukorralduses naised teevad enam kulutusi vabale ajale kui samas elutsüklis mehed; selles elutsüklis mehed kulutavad aga enam kohviku- ja restoraniteenustele**

Kui vaadelda samal vanuseastmel, kuid muu elukorraldusega leibkondade tarbimist leibkonna peaaegu soost järgi, võib täheldada, et nais- ja meesleibkondade erinevused on väiksemad ja tarbimisstruktuur ühelaadsem. Osa käitumismalle on naisleibkondadel aga sarnased paarina elavate naisleibkondadega. Näitena võib esile tuua, et alla 45-aastased muu elukorraldusega naisleibkonna peaaegu leibkonnad kulutavad enam riidele ja jalanõudele, samuti muudele kaupadele ja teenustele. Võrreldes alla 45-aastasi muu elukorraldusega nais- ja meesleibkondi omavahel, võib suurema erinevusena välja tuua, et naisleibkonna peaaegu leibkonnad kulutavad rohkem majapidamisele ja vabale ajale, meesleibkonna peaaegu leibkonnad aga toidule, alkoholile ja tubakale ning transpordile, samuti kulutavad nad veidi enam kohviku- ja restoraniteenustele.

Tabel 2.13 **Muu elukorraldusega leibkondade tarbimisstruktuur leibkonna peaaegu soost järgi, 2005**  
Table 2.13 *Consumption structure of households with other life arrangement by sex of the head of the household, 2005*  
(protsenti — percentage)

	Muu elukorraldusega alla 45-aastased <i>Persons aged under 45 with other mode of life</i>		Muu elukorraldusega 45–64-aastased <i>Persons aged 45–64 with other mode of life</i>		
	naine <i>female</i>	mees <i>male</i>	naine <i>female</i>	mees <i>male</i>	
Toit ja mittealkohoolsed joogid	21,4	24,8	27,3	31,4	<i>Food and non-alcoholic beverages</i>
Alkohoolsed joogid ja tubakas	2,2	5,3	2,7	5,5	<i>Alcoholic beverages and tobacco</i>
Riided ja jalanõud	8,9	6,2	5,7	5,0	<i>Clothing and footwear</i>
Eluase	14,9	15,4	16,7	16,2	<i>Housing</i>
Majapidamiskulud	12,1	5,4	6,5	6,7	<i>Household expenditure</i>
Tervishoid	2,1	1,1	4,3	3,3	<i>Health</i>
Transport	9,2	13,0	16,5	11,3	<i>Transport</i>
Side	6,0	6,8	5,4	6,0	<i>Communications</i>
Vaba aeg	8,1	6,3	6,7	6,3	<i>Leisure time</i>
Haridus	1,6	0,5	0,2	0,7	<i>Education</i>
Hotellid, kohvikud, restoranid	5,8	6,4	2,5	2,4	<i>Hotels, cafés, restaurants</i>
Mitmesugused kaubad ja teenused	7,7	5,2	5,4	5,3	<i>Miscellaneous goods and services</i>

Ka muu elukorraldusega naisleibkonna peaaegu leibkondade transpordikulutused on suuremad kui samas elutsüklis meesleibkonna peaaegu leibkondadel (koguni poolteist korda). Samasugune tendents oli ka alla 6-aastaste lastega naisleibkonna peaaegu leibkondadel. Samas elutsüklis meesleibkonna peaaegu leibkonnad kulutavad enam toidule ja alkoholsetele jookidele, samuti tubakale. Eriti torkab sellel vanuseastmel meesleibkondade puhul silma tunduvalt suurem alkoholsete jookide ja tubaka osatähtsus tarbimiskulutustes — koguni kaks ja pool korda enam kui samas elutsüklis naisleibkonna peaaegu leibkondadel.

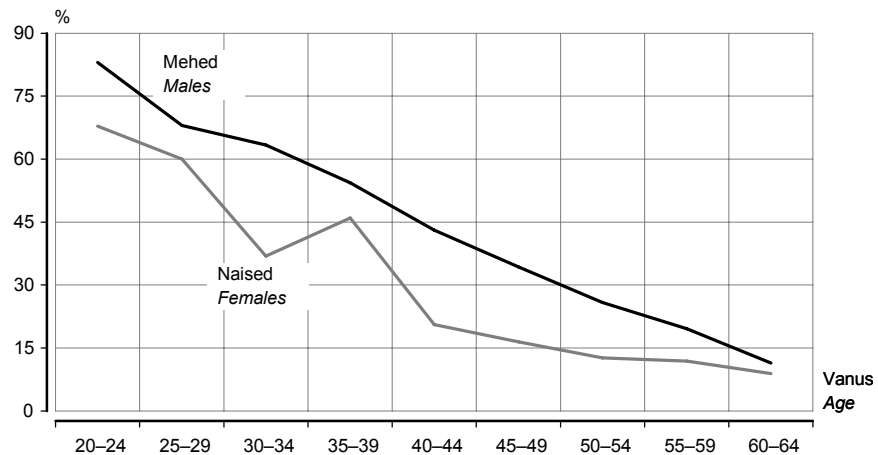
## 2.6. Tervis

Traumade ja mürgistuste osatähtsus surmapõhjustes jätkab langustendentsi ka 25–29-aastaste meeste ja naiste puhul. Kui 25–29-aastaste meeste ja naiste hulgas on erinevus vaid 8 protsendipunkti meeste kasuks, siis järgmises eärühmas väheneb naiste osatähtsus järsult, jõudes 36,8 protsendini, mis on meeste vastavast näitajast 26,6 protsendipunkti madalam.

**35–39-aastaste meeste surma põhjustavad traumad ja mürgistused kuus korda sagedamini kui naistel**

Traumade ja mürgistuste suremuskordaja 100 000 mehe või naise kohta näitab, et pere- ja tööaastatel on see meeste puhul üks olulisemaid surmapõhjusti. Aktiivses tööeas, 20–64-aastastel saavutab see näitaja maksimumi 50–54-aastastel meestel, ulatudes 384 juhu kohta 100 000 mehe kohta. Naistel on kõrgeim näit järgmises eärühmas — 96 juhtu 100 000 naise kohta. Meeste ja naiste suremuskordaja erinevus on alates 35.–39. eluaastast 6-kordne ning väheneb 45.–49. eluaastast, mil naiste suremuskordaja tõuseb.

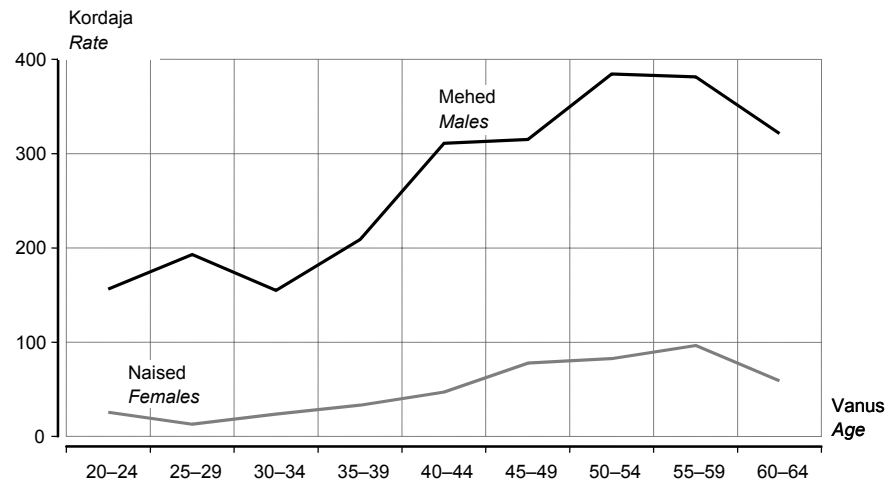
Joonis 2.33 Traumad ja mürgistused surmapõhjusena, 2005  
Figure 2.33 Injuries and poisonings as causes of death, 2005



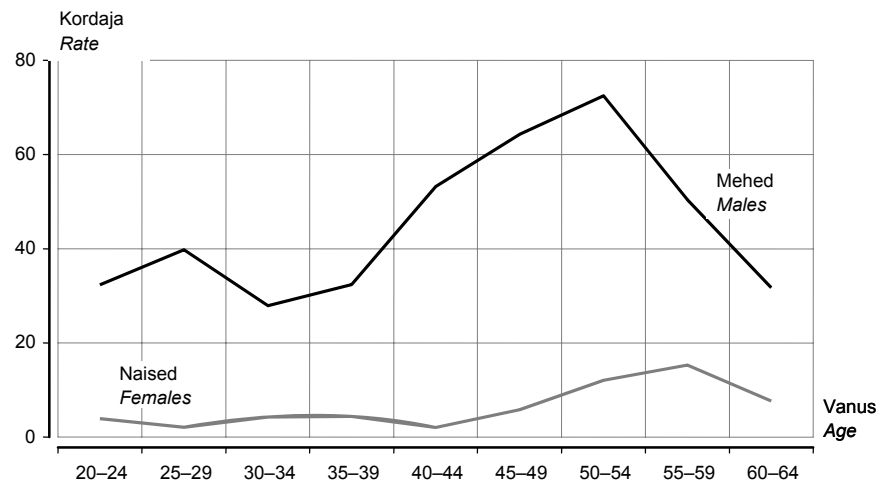
**Aktiivses tööeas lõpetab oma elu enesetapuga kõige rohkem 50–54-aastasi mehi ja 55–59-aastasi naisi**

Traumadest ja mürgistustest on Eestis üks sagedasemaid surmapõhjusti enesetapp (joonis 2.35). 20–64-aastaste meeste hulgas saavutab enesetapp surmapõhjusena maksimaalse väärtuse 50–54-aastaste hulgas — 72 juhtu 100 000 mehe kohta. Naiste vastava eagrupi näitajast on see kuus korda kõrgem. Naistel on enesetapp surmapõhjusena kõige sagedasem 55–59-aastaste hulgas, ulatudes 12–15 juhuni 100 000 naise kohta.

Joonis 2.34 Traumad ja mürgistused, suremuskordaja 100 000 elaniku kohta, 2005  
Figure 2.34 Injuries and poisonings, death rate per 100,000 population, 2005

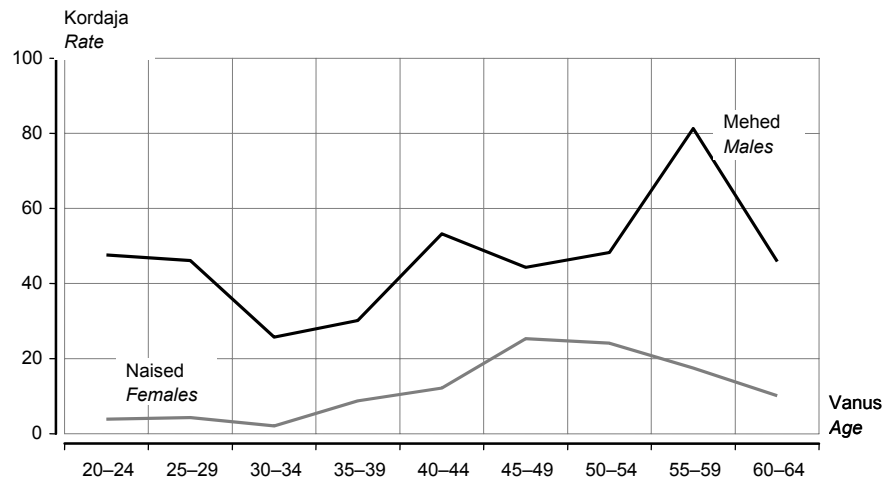


Joonis 2.35 Enesetapp, suremuskordaja 100 000 elaniku kohta, 2005  
Figure 2.35 Suicide, death rate per 100,000 population, 2005

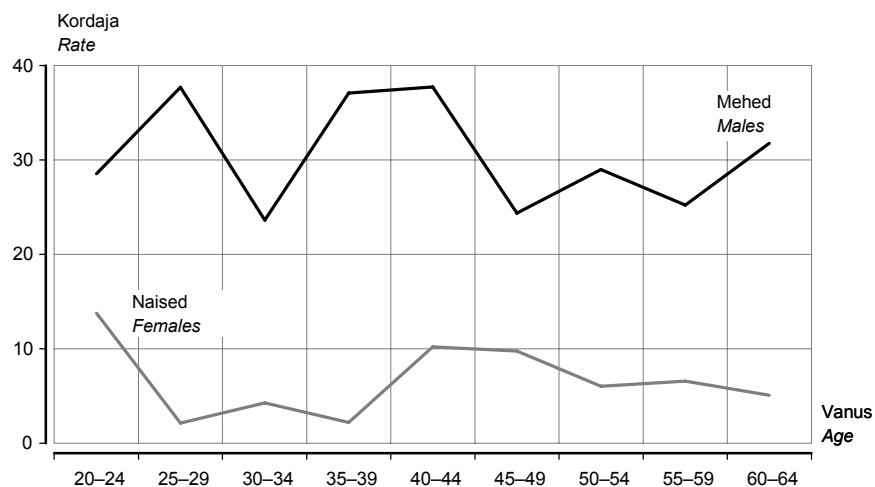


Oluline selle klassi surmapõhjus on ka juhuslik mürgistus (joonis 2.36). Alla 30-aastastel on see enamasti tingitud narkootikumidest, vanematel inimestel alkoholist. Suremus narkomürgistusse on kõige suurem 20–29-aastaste seas, alkoholimürgistusse 55–59-aastaste meeste ja 45–54-aastaste naiste seas.

Joonis 2.36 **Juhuslik mürgistus, suremuskordaja 100 000 elaniku kohta, 2005**  
Figure 2.36 *Accidental poisoning, death rate per 100,000 population, 2005*



Joonis 2.37 **Sõidukiõnnetus, suremuskordaja 100 000 elaniku kohta, 2005**  
Figure 2.37 *Transport accident, death rate per 100,000 population, 2005*



**Sõidukiõnnetustes hukub kõige enam 25–29-aastasi mehi**

Sõidukiõnnetused (joonis 2.37) ei ole nii selgelt seotud vanusega kui enesetapp ja juhuslik mürgistus, vahe meeste ja naiste vahel on aga oluline — meestel on see näitaja palju kõrgem kui naistel. Kõige rohkem saab sõidukiõnnetustes surma 25–29-aastasi ja 35–44-aastasi mehi — 37–38 juhtu 100 000 mehe kohta. Naistel on enim sõidukiõnnetuse surmasid 20–24-aastaste hulgas (14 juhtu 100 000 naise kohta) ning 40–49-aastaste hulgas (10 juhtu 100 000 naise kohta).

**Rohkem kui kolmandikul 45–54-aastastel meestel ja peaaegu pooltel naistel on enesehinnangu järgi pikaajaline või krooniline haigus**

25–64-aastaste hulgas hakkab tervisele antud positiivne hinnang aeglaselt vähenema ja kasvab nende inimeste arv, kes hindavad oma tervist halvaks või väga halvaks. Viimaseid 25–34-aastaste seas veel märkimisväärselt ei ole, kuid juba 35–44-aastaste meeste hulgas on negatiivse tervisehinnangu andnud 6,8% ja 55–64-aastaste hulgas on see näitaja peaaegu neli korda kõrgem. Negatiivse tervisehinnanguga naised on vanuses 35–44 eluaastat 4,2%, kuid vanuseks 55–64 on nende osatähtsus kasvanud umbes viis korda, jäädes veidi alla 21%. Siiski (erinevalt puberteedieas oma tervisesse kriitiliselt suhtunud neidudest, nagu näitas koolilaste seas korraldatud uuring) jääb halva või väga halva tervisehinnanguga

naiste protsent keskealiste hulgas meeste vastavast näitajast veidi väiksemaks, kuid kasvab vanurieas, mil halvema tervisehinnanguga naisi on rohkem kui mehi.

Pikaajaline haigus hakkab inimese elu mõjutama üsna noores eas. Veidi rohkem kui kolm neljandikku 25–34-aastastest on öelnud, et neil ei ole ühtegi haigust, mida võiks lugeda pikaajaliseks ning mis seetõttu mõjutaks oluliselt üldist tervises seisundit. Olukord muutub kiiresti siis, kui ollakse jõudnud vanuserühma 45–54, mil pikaajalise või kroonilise haiguse olemasolu kinnitab rohkem kui kolmandik meestest ja 45,7% naistest. Sellest vanuserühmast alates on naiste vastav näitaja suurem kui meestel ning seetõttu halva või väga halva tervisehinnanguga naiste osatähtsus suurem. Enne 65-aastaseks saamist põeb või on põdenud mõnd pikaajalist haigust 53,8% mehi ja 59,3% naisi.

Tervise tõttu piirab oma tavapäraseid tegevusi suurel määral 7,9% 35–44-aastastest meestest. Samas vanuses naiste hulgas sellist vastust statistiliselt olulisel määral ei esinenud. Naised peavad oluliselt piirama tavategevusi järgmises vanuserühmas ning 55–64-aastaste hulgas on oluliste piirangutega rohkem kui 14%, meeste puhul 16%. Üldse ei ole tavategevustes piiratud veidi rohkem kui pool selles vanuses meestest ja alla poole naistest.

**Tervelt elatud eluaastate arv on 25–64-aastastel naistel suurem kui meestel**

Tervelt elatud eluaastate arv on 25–64-aastastel naistel suurem kui meestel, kuid läheneb vanusevahemiku viimastel aastatel kiiresti meeste näitajale. Analüüsidest aga tervelt elatud eluaastate suhet keskmisesse oodatavasse eluikka, tuleb ilmsiks sama tendents, mis noorte puhul — naised elavad küll kauem, kuid tervelt elatud aastate osatähtsus eluaastates on neil väiksem kui meestel. Pikaajalised haigused hakkavad keskea teises pooles oluliselt mõjutama just naiste tervist.

Nii nagu 0–14-aastaste ja 15–24-aastaste puhul, on ka 25–64-aastaste meeste haigestumusnäitajates teisel kohal vigastused ja mürgistused või muud välispõhjuste toime tagajärjed (tabel 2.14). Kuigi haigestumine hingamis- ja südamehaigustesse on endiselt nii meeste kui ka naiste seas esimesel kohal, ei ole nende esinemissagedus enam nii suur kui nooremas eas. Sarnaselt meestega on ka naistel kolmas sagedamini esinev haigusrühm lihaskonna ja sidekoe haigused. Teisel kohal põetavate haiguste seas on 25–64-aastastel naistel kuse- ja suguelundite haigused.

Tabel 2.14 **Esmahaigestumuskordaja 100 000 elaniku kohta vanuses 25–64 haigusrühma ja soo järgi, 2004**

Table 2.14 *Incidence rates per 100,000 inhabitants aged 25–64 by group of illness and sex, 2004*

Haigusrühm	RHK-10 kood <sup>a</sup> ICD-10 code <sup>a</sup>	25–64		Group of illness
		mehed males	naised females	
Hingamis- ja südamehaigused	J00-J99	27 434,9	38 359,7	Diseases of the respiratory system
Vigastused, mürgistused ja muud välispõhjuste toime tagajärjed	S00-T98	18 091,8	8 307,7	Injury, poisoning and certain other consequences of external causes
Lihaskonna ja sidekoe haigused	M00-M99	12 443,7	16 690,7	Diseases of the musculo-skeletal system and connective tissue
Naha- ja nahaaluskoe haigused	L00-L99	6 059,4	8 098,3	Diseases of the skin and subcutaneous tissue
Teatavad nakkus- ja parasiithaigused	A00-B99	5 814,8	10 102,8	Certain infectious and parasitic diseases
Silma- ja silmamanuste haigused	H00-H59	5 140,5	7 909,1	Diseases of the eye and adnexa
Vereringesüsteemi haigused	I00-I99	4 917,7	5 154,9	Diseases of the circulatory system
Psüühika- ja käitumishäired	F00-F99	3 820,5	5 914,7	Mental and behavioural disorders
Kõrva- ja nibujätkehaigused	H60-H95	3 627,1	4 799,8	Diseases of the ear and mastoid process
Kuse- ja suguelundite haigused	N00-N99	3 013,8	20 340,7	Diseases of the genito-urinary system
Närvisüsteemihaigused	G00-G99	2 071,7	3 228,3	Diseases of the nervous system

<sup>a</sup> RHK-10 on rahvusvahelise haiguste klassifikaatori 10. versioon

<sup>a</sup> ICD-10 is the 10th version of the international classification of illnesses.

Allikas: Sotsiaalministeerium 2006.

Source: Ministry of Social Affairs 2006.

Tervisehädade korral saavad inimesed vajalikku abi. 25–64-aastastest Eesti elanikest ei ole olnud eriarsti- või perearstiabi kättesaadavusega probleeme ligikaudu 90%-l. Veidi väiksem on see protsent hambaarstiabi korral — umbes 80% kinnitab, et on saanud vajaduse korral kasutada hambaarstiteenuseid.



Tervisekäitumise analüüs näitab, et tervist oluliselt mõjutav riskikäitumine, nt alkoholi ja tubakatoodete tarbimine, kasvab 25–64-aastaste seas. Samas on narkootikumide kasutamise iseloomulik pigem noorematele kui keskealistele, kuid ei saa väita, et see käitumisviis jääbki omaseks noorematele ega levi edasi järgmistesse vanuserühmadesse.

**25–54-aastastest meestest on üle poole igapäevasuitsetajad; naised suitsetavad kõige enam vanuses 35–44 eluaastat**

Igapäevasuitsetajaks nimetab end üle 50% meestest vanuses 25–54, 55–64-aastaste seas on see näitaja kümme protsenti väiksem. Keskeas meeste sagedased hingamiseldite haigused on tihti seotud tubakatoodete tarbimisega. Naised on kaks kuni kolm korda vähem kinnitanud, et suitsetavad sageli. Teistest enam paistavad silma 35–44-aastased naised, kelle riskikäitumise näitaja on kõige kõrgem — neist suitsetab üle 27% iga päev või peaaegu iga päev. Nii meeste kui ka naiste puhul on märgata langustrendi üheksakümnendatel, kuid alates 2000. aastast on igapäevasuitsetajate osatähtsus hakanud jälle aeglaselt suurenema.

2004. aasta täiskasvanute tervisekäitumise küsitlusele eelnenud 12 kuu jooksul tarbis alkoholi kord nädalas või sagedamini üsna palju mehi — ligikaudu pooled neist, kelle vanus jääb 25 ja 64 eluaasta vahele. Samas eas naiste hulgas oli sageli alkoholi tarbinuid umbes viiendik. Analüüsides kümneaastaseid vanuserühmi eraldi, tuleb välja, et meestel (erinevalt naistest) vanuse kasvades alkoholi tarbimise sagedus oluliselt ei muutu. Meeste riskialtım käitumine on Eesti ühiskonnas selgesti eristuv — kõigis vanuserühmades on 25–27% neid mehi, kes joovad vähemalt kord nädalas kuus või rohkem annust alkoholi. Eri vanuses naiste hulgas on nädalas korra või sagedamini sellise koguse jookjaid 3–5%.

25–64-aastaste hulgas näitavad 2004. aasta andmed 16–24-aastastega võrreldes väiksemat narkootikumide proovimist ja tarvitamist. Meeste puhul on riskikäitumise protsent suurem ja seda just 25. ja 34. eluaasta vahel, mil mingisugust narkootilist ainet on proovinud iga neljas mees ja tarvitajaks nimetab end alla nelja protsendi. Vanuse kasvades vähenevad need näitajad kiiresti ja vanemas keskeas meestel pole narkootikumidega märkimisväärset kokkupuudet. Naiste näitajad on mitmeid kordi väiksemad — 25–34-aastaste seas on proovinuid 9,9% ja tarvitajaks ei hinda ennast keegi.

**Tervise tõttu on oma toitumisharjumusi muutnud peaaegu pool meestest ja ligikaudu 70% naisi**

Tervise tõttu on oma toitumisharjumusi muutnud peaaegu pool meestest ja ligikaudu 70% naistest vanuses 25–64 aastat, see on üsna üllatav näitaja. Võib spekuloida, et palju nimetatud muutusi on seotud arstide antud soovitude või ravijuhistega pikaajaliste haiguste põdemisel. Umbes kümnendik toitumisharjumusi muutnud naistest pidas kaalu langetamise eesmärgil dieeti. Erinevas eas naiste puhul varieerub see näitaja 17,4% ja 10,7% vahel. Dieedipidamist esineb sagedamini pigem nooremate naiste hulgas. Meestest on kaalu langetamiseks dieeti pidanud vähem kui üks kahekümnest.

**Üle poole 35–44-aastastest meestest on ülekaalulised**

Kehakaaluindeks näitab, et üle poole 35–44-aastastest meestest on juba ülekaalulised, naiste puhul jõutakse samale tasemele järgmises vanuserühmas ehk 45–54-aastaselt. 55–64-aastaste naiste seas on aga ülekaaluliste osatähtsus juba 10% suurem kui samas eas meestel. Seega suureneb naiste keskmine kehakaal vanusega kiiremini kui meeste oma. Samas on just vanemas eas naised meestest sportlikumad — vähemalt kord nädalas 30 minuti jooksul tervisesporti harrastanud on 55–64-aastaste naiste puhul peaaegu 10% rohkem. Selles vanuses meestest tegeleb tervisespordiga kord nädalas või sagedamini iga neljas. 2004. aasta andmed näitavad, et ka nooremas eas naised pööravad tervisespordile suurt tähelepanu ning 25–44-aastastest teeb vähemalt kord nädalas sporti rohkem kui 40%. 25–34-aastaste meeste puhul on see näitaja samas suurusjärgus, kuid vanuse kasvades tervisespordiga tegelejate osatähtsus meeste hulgas väheneb.

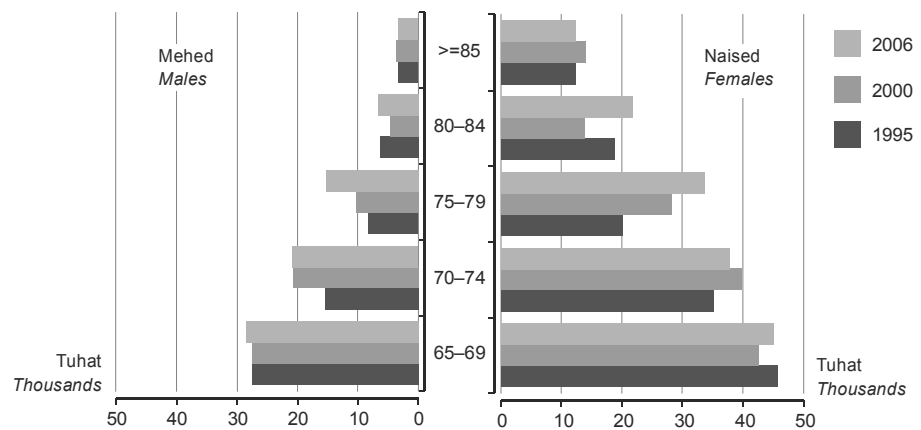
### 3. VANURIAASTAD

#### 3.1. Demograafiline üldpilt

Sõltuvalt riigis kehtestatud pensionieast loetakse vanureia alguseks kas 60. või 65. eluaastat. Euroopa Liidu riikides, k.a Eestis, on selleks piiriks 65. eluaasta.

2006. aasta 1. jaanuaril elas Eestis arvestuslikult 225 066 vähemalt 65-aastast inimest, kes hõlmasid 16,7% kogurahvastikust. Nende seas oli naised 150 448 ja mehi 74 618 — vastavalt 67% ja 33% (joonis 3.1). Eakate arvu suurenemine 2000. aastate alguses on seotud nii eluea pikenedes kui ka sisserrännanute arvuka põlvkonna jõudmisega vanuriikka.

Joonis 3.1 **65-aastased ja vanemad soo ja vanuse järgi, 1995, 2000, 2006**  
 Figure 3.1 *Persons aged 65 and older by age and sex, 1995, 2000, 2006*

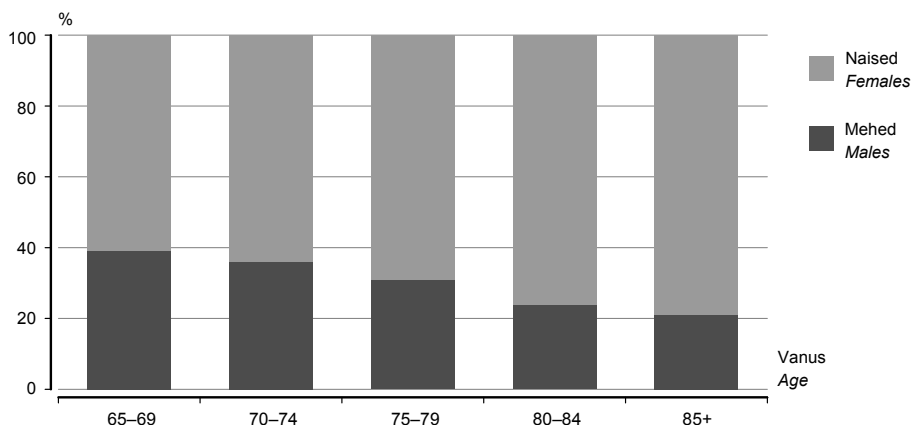


Meeste suuremus on naiste suuremusest suurem, seetõttu on eakaid naisi rohkem kui eakaid mehi. Euroopa Liidu liikmesriikide seas on Eesti üks eakate naiste suurima osatähtsusega riike. Eestiga võrreldav olukord on ka Lätis ja Leedus, kus 65-aastaste ja vanemate seas on naiste osatähtsus samas suurusjärgus kui Eestis, vastavalt 67% ja 66%. Euroopa Liidu liikmesriikides keskmiselt oli 2003. aastal 65-aastaste ja vanemate naiste osatähtsus 59%.

**Üle 85-aastasi naisi on peaaegu neli korda enam kui mehi**

Naiste ülekaal suureneb vanuse kasvades (joonis 3.2). Kui 65–69-aastaste seas on naised 61% ja mehi 39%, siis 85-aastaste ja vanemate seas on naised juba 79% ja mehi 21%. Seega on 85-aastaste ja vanemate seas naised neli korda rohkem kui mehi. Teiste Euroopa Liidu riikide eaka rahvastiku hulgas suureneb naiste osatähtsus vanuse lisandudes samas suurusjärgus, kuid käärid naiste ja meeste osatähtsuse vahel ei ole seal nii suured. Keskmiselt on Euroopa Liidus 65–69-aastaste seas naiste osatähtsus 54% (2003. a), 85-aastaste ja vanemate seas aga 72%. Naiste osatähtsus on suurem uutes liikmesriikides ja väiksem vanades liikmesriikides.

Joonis 3.2 **Meeste ja naiste osatähtsus 65-aastaste ja vanemate hulgas, 1. jaanuar 2006**  
 Figure 3.2 *Share of males and females among persons aged 65 and older, 1 January 2006*



Kui sündides on naiste oodatav eluiga meeste omast veidi enam kui 10 aastat pikem (tabel 1.2), siis 65-aastaste meeste ja naiste eelolev eluiga enam nii palju ei erine (tabel 3.1). Veelgi väiksem on eluea erinevus 80-aastaste seas. 2005. aastal oli naiste oodatav eluiga meeste omast 10,87 aastat pikem, kuid 65-aastaste naiste eelolev eluiga ületas meeste eeloleva eluea vaid 4,95 aastaga. 80-aastaste seas oli erinevus kahanenud 1,25 aastani.

Tabel 3.1 **Eelolev eluiga soo järgi, 1995, 2000, 2005**  
Table 3.1 *Life expectancy by sex, 1995, 2000, 2005*

	Eelolev eluiga 65-aastastel <i>Life expectancy at the age of 65</i>			Eelolev eluiga 80-aastastel <i>Life expectancy at the age of 80</i>			
	1995	2000	2005	1995	2000	2005	
Mehed	11,85	12,49	13,10	5,83	6,19	6,50	<i>Males</i>
Naised	15,97	16,78	18,05	6,76	7,27	7,75	<i>Females</i>

Allikas: Statistikaamet.  
Source: *Statistics Estonia*.

### Vähemalt 65-aastased mehed on kaks-kolm korda enam abielus kui samas vanuses naised

Vanuse kasvades suureneb leskede osatähtsus nii meeste kui ka naiste seas. Loomulikult on eakate seas lesknaisi rohkem kui leskmehi. 2000. aasta rahvaloenduse andmetel oli 65-aastastest ja vanematest naistest leski 52%, meestest vaid 16%. 85-aastaste ja vanemate seas oli lesknaisi juba 80% (tabel 3.2). Eakate meeste abielulisus on tunduvalt suurem kui naistel. Nii on 65–69-aastastest meestest seaduslikus abielus 74%, naistest vaid 42%. Vanuses 75–79 on erinevus juba kolmekordne — meestest on abielus 68%, naistest vaid 20%. Vanuse kasvades ebielulisuse erinevus meeste ja naiste vahel suureneb.

Tabel 3.2 **Eakad seadusliku perekonnaseisu ja soo järgi, 2000**  
Table 3.2 *The elderly by marital status and sex, 2000*  
(protsenti — percentage)

Vanus Age	Vallaline <i>Single</i>		Abielus <i>Married</i>		Lahutatud <i>Divorced</i>		Lesk <i>Widowed</i>	
	mehed <i>males</i>	naised <i>females</i>	mehed <i>males</i>	naised <i>females</i>	mehed <i>males</i>	naised <i>females</i>	mehed <i>males</i>	naised <i>females</i>
65–69	6	9	74	42	9	12	10	36
70–74	6	10	72	32	7	10	15	48
75–79	6	11	68	20	5	7	21	60
80–84	5	11	61	10	4	5	30	73
85 +	5	10	47	5	2	3	44	80

Allikas: Statistikaamet, rahvaloenduse andmed.  
Source: *Statistics Estonia, data of the Population Census*.

### Rahvastiku vananemine

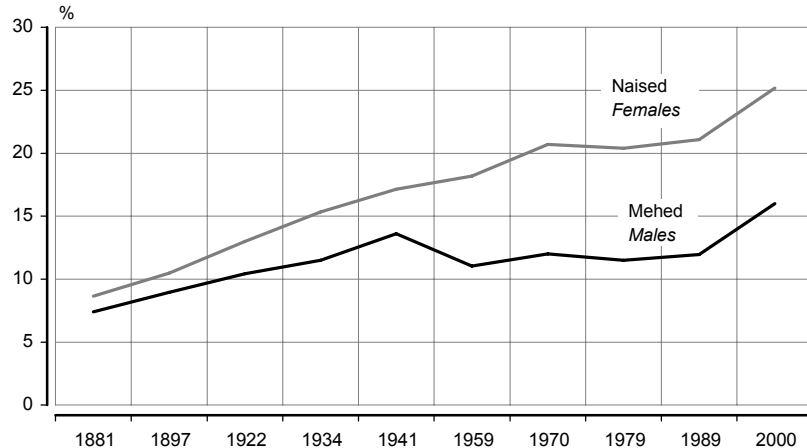
Rahvastiku vananemine on vanurite osatähtsuse suurenemine kogurahvastikus. Vananemine sai alguse demograafilisest üleminekust, mil sündimus ja suremus hakkasid vähenema. Rahvastiku vananemist põhjustab eelkõige sündimuse langus, kuid oluline on ka suremuse vähenemine. Varasemal ajal oli eluiga küllaltki madal, mistõttu vaid väike osa rahvastikust elas vanurieani. Suremuse vähenemine tõi kaasa eluea pikenemise, mille tulemusel elas järjest enam inimesi kõrge vanuseni. Algselt oli olulisem suremuse vähenemine just imikute ja väikelaste seas. Hiljem, kui imikusuremus oli väike, muutus olulisemaks suremuse langus ka vanemas eas.

Eestis algas demograafiline üleminek 19. sajandi keskel. Eesti rahvastik oli vananemistunnustega juba 1922. aasta rahvaloenduse andmetel. 1934. aasta rahvaloenduse andmetel oli rahvastik jõudnud vananemise algstaadiumisse. Pärast sõda rahvastiku vananemine Eestis peatus, mille põhjuseks oli nii intensiivne sissetõu kui ka suremuse stagnatsioon (Katus jt 1999). 1990. aastatel ulatuslik sissetõu Eestisse lõppes ja vanurite osatähtsus hakkas kiiresti suurenema. Vananemist kiirendas ka see, et vanuriikka jõudsid pärast II maailmasõda Eestisse rännanute põlvkonnad. Oma osa oli sündimuse kiirel vähenemisel 1990. aastatel.

Joonisel 3.3 on näha, et eakate meeste ja naiste osatähtsus on muutunud ajas erinevalt. Kui 19. sajandi lõpus oli eakas naisrahvastik veidi üle ühe protsendipunkti suurem eakast

meesrahvastikust, siis 21. sajandi alguseks oli nende vahe suurenenud ligikaudu 10%-ni. Selle põhjuseks on nii 20. sajandi rahvastikukriisid — maailmasõjad, vabadussõda —, kuid oluline on ka suremuse muutus ja sisseränne. 1950. aastatel aset leidnud eakate meeste osatähtsuse märgatava vähenemise põhjustas osaliselt sisseränne Eestisse, sest sisse-rändes teistest Nõukogude Liidu piirkondadest olid ülekaalus noored mehed (Kulu 2001). 2005. aastal oli üle 60-aastaste seas naised 26% ja mehi 17%.

Joonis 3.3 **60-aastaste ja vanemate osatähtsus rahvastikus soo järgi, 1881–2000<sup>a</sup>**  
 Figure 3.3 *Share of persons aged 60 and older in the population by sex, 1881–2000<sup>a</sup>*



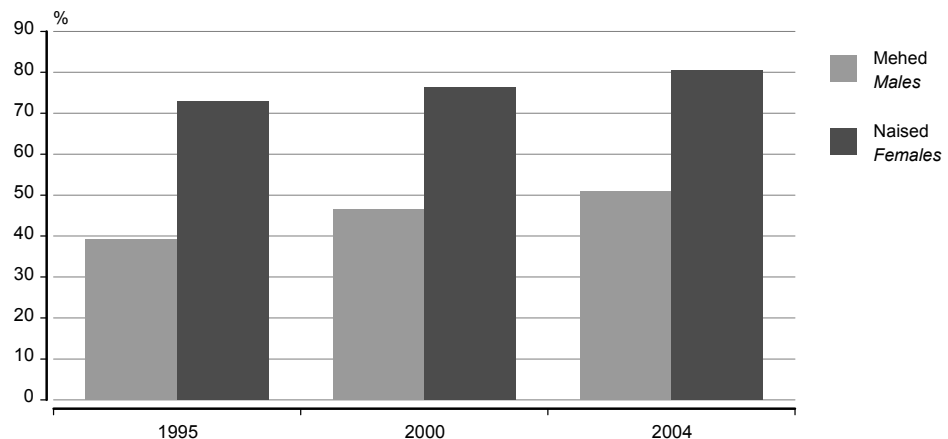
<sup>a</sup> Katus jt 1999; 2000. aasta rahvaloendus.

<sup>a</sup> Katus et al. 1999; 2000 Population Census.

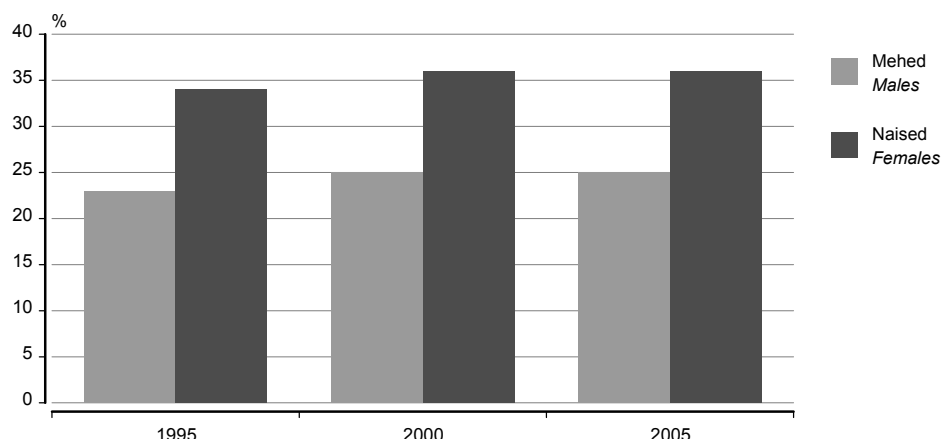
Eakad ei moodusta ühtset rahvastikuosa. Nende seas tuuakse sageli välja kaks elufaasi — kolmas ja neljas elufaas, mis põhinevad inimese elutsüklitel. Erinevus nende vahel on tingitud eelkõige inimese sotsiaalsest toimetulekust. Kolmandas elufaasis saavad inimesed sotsiaalselt hästi hakkama, kuid sageli ei käi nad enam tööl. Neljandas elufaasis vajavad inimesed seevastu sageli sotsiaalsete toimingute tegemisel kõrvalist abi, ka suurenevad selles elufaasis märgatavalt kulutused sotsiaalhoolekandele ja tervishoiule. Neljas elufaas on seotud pigem inimese bioloogilise vananemisega. Sageli kasutatakse kolmandast ja neljandast elufaasist rääkides mõisteid noored vanurid ja vanavanurid.

Kolmanda elufaasi väljakujunemist kirjeldavad Lasletti indeksid. Kolmas elufaas rahvastikus on välja kujunenud, kui vähemalt pool täisealisest rahvastikust elab tõenäoliselt 70. eluaastani (170/125). Selle näitaja arvutamise aluseks on elutabeli ellujääjate osatähtsus sünnipõlvkonnas. Teine kolmanda elufaasi kujunemist kirjeldav näitaja on vanurite osatähtsus täisealises rahvastikus. Selle järgi on kolmas elufaas välja kujunenud, kui 25-aastastest ja vanematest neljandik on üle 60-aastased. Oluline on kolmanda elufaasi väljakujunemine just meesrahvastiku puhul, sest naiste osatähtsus suureneb vanuse kasvades pidevalt (Laslett 1993).

Joonis 3.4 **25-aastaste tõenäosus elada vähemalt 70-aastaseks, 1995, 2000, 2004**  
 Figure 3.4 *The probability of persons aged 25 to live at least to the age of 70, 1995, 2000, 2004*



Joonis 3.5 Vanurite osatähtsus täisealises rahvastikus, 1995, 2000, 2005  
Figure 3.5 The share of the elderly in adult population, 1995, 2000, 2005



**Lähiaastatel elavad vähemalt pooled 25-aastased mehed tõenäoliselt 70. eluaastani**

Joonistelt 3.4 ja 3.5 on näha, et Eesti naisrahvastiku seas on kolmas elufaas juba välja kujunenud, meesrahvastiku seas kujuneb kolmas elufaas välja 21. sajandi alguses. Trend näitab, et lähiaastatel elavad vähemalt pooled 25-aastased mehed tõenäoliselt 70. eluaastani (joonis 3.4). Ka on viimastel aastatel neljandik täisealistest meestest 60-aastased ja vanemad (joonis 3.5). Kolmanda elufaasi varasem väljakujunemine naisrahvastiku seas on tavapärane ja seletatav naiste pikema elueaga. Mõne Euroopa riigi meesrahvastiku puhul, näiteks Prantsusmaal, Inglismaal ja Rootsis, kujunes kolmas elufaas välja juba 20. sajandi esimesel poolel (Laslett 1993).

Vananeva rahvastiku seas suureneb vanavanurite osatähtsus ehk nende osatähtsus, kes kuuluvad neljandasse elufaasi. Neljas elufaas hakkab tekkima pärast kolmanda elufaasi väljakujunemist. Selle alguseks loetakse 80., vahel ka 85. eluaastat. 2005. aastal oli Eesti naisrahvastiku seas üle 80-aastaseid 4,5%. Vastav näitaja meesrahvastiku puhul oli 1,5%. Vanavanurite osatähtsus eaka rahvastiku seas on märkimisväärselt suurem. Nii ulatus vähemalt 80-aastaste osatähtsus üle 65-aastaste seas 2005. aastal naistel 22%-ni ja meestel 13%-ni. Neljandas elufaasis suurenevad kiiresti inimeste vajadused arstiabi ja sotsiaalse abi järele.

### 3.2. Sissetulek ja vaesus

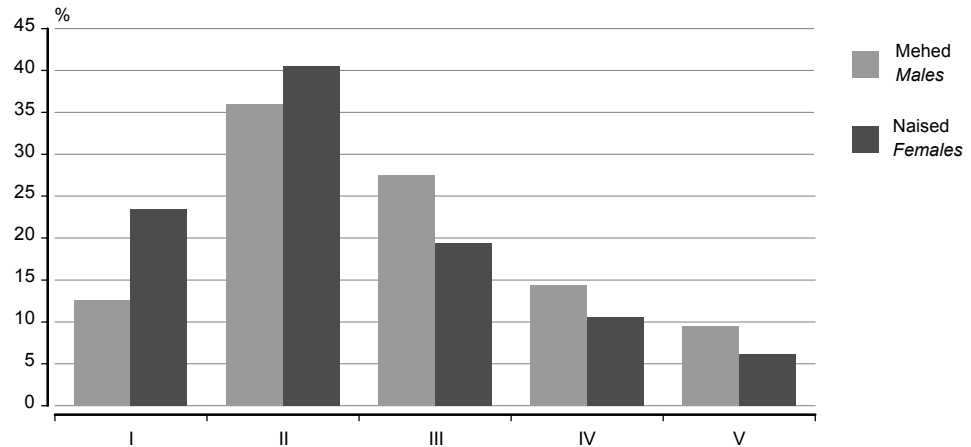
Üle 65-aastased (k.a) saavad Eesti keskmisest madalamat sissetulekut. Meeste keskmine sissetulek on naiste omast 1,2 korda suurem. 2003. aastal oli meeste keskmine sissetulek 41 650 krooni, naistel ligi 6000 krooni väiksem — 35 619 krooni. Mediaansissetulek, millest pooled inimesed saavad madalamat ja pooled inimesed kõrgemat sissetulekut, oli meestel 34 624 krooni ja naistel 29 360 krooni aastas.

#### Sissetulek kvintiili järgi

**Rohkem kui pool vähemalt 65-aastastest meestest kuulub kolme kõrgemasse kvintiili**

Vähemalt 65-aastaste naiste ja meeste jagunemine kvintiilide vahel näitab, et mehed said naistest suuremat sissetulekut — mehed kuulusid pigem kõrgematesse kvintiilidesse. Kolme kõrgemasse kvintiili kuulus 51% meestest, naised seal vaid 36%. Ligi pool (41%) naistest kuulus 2003. aastal teise viiendikku, ka mehi oli seal kõige rohkem (36%). 25–64-aastastega võrreldes oli 65-aastaseid ja vanemaid neljandas ja viiendas kvintiilis vähe. Naised kuulusid sinna 17%, meeste sissetulekud olid suuremad — kahes viimases kvintiilis oli 24% meestest. Erinevalt 25–64-aastastest oli madalaimat sissetulekut saavaid naised rohkem kui mehi (11 protsendipunkti võrra). 65-aastased ja vanemad kuulusid pigem keskmisesse kvintiilidesse — põhiliseks sissetulekuks olev pension ei olnud piisav, et keskmisest suuremat sissetulekut saada.

Joonis 3.6 **Vähemalt 65-aastased naised ja mehed tulukvintiili järgi, 2003**  
 Figure 3.6 *Males and females aged 65 and more by sex and income quintiles, 2003*

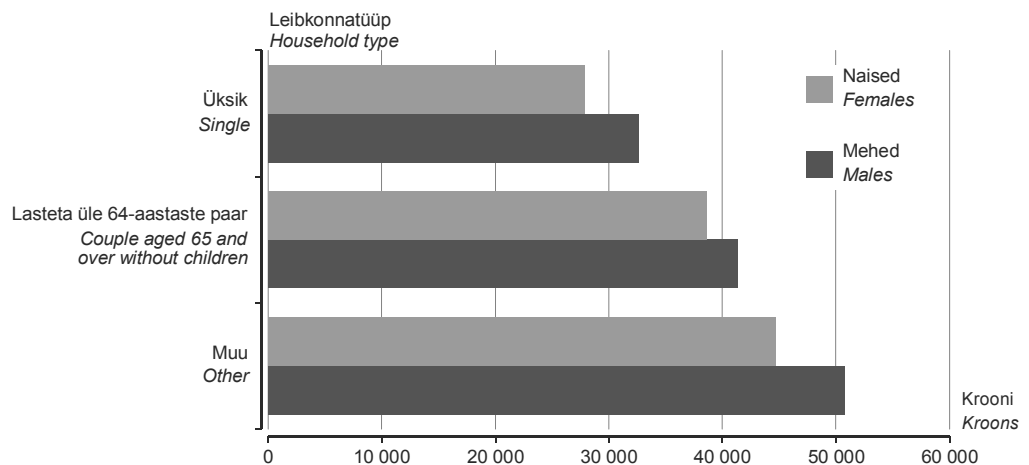


Kui vaadata üle 65-aastaste meeste ja naiste eri kvintilides saadavat sissetulekut, on näha, et erinevalt 25–64-aastastest ei sõltu siin keskmine sissetulek soost. Erandiks oli viimase kvintiili keskmine sissetulek, mis oli meestel suurem. Viiendas kvintilis oli meeste keskmine sissetulek 99 115 krooni aastas, naistel oli see 5800 krooni väiksem.

**Sissetulek leibkonnatüübi järgi**

Kõigis leibkonnatüüpides oli meeste keskmine sissetulek naiste omast suurem. Kõige suuremat keskmist sissetulekut said inimesed, kes elasid koos teiste täiskasvanutega (ja nende lastega). Sageli olid need mitme põlvkonna leibkonnad, kus oli ka alla 65-aastasi, kelle sissetulek on tavaliselt suurem kui pensioniealistel, see aga tõstab ekvivalent-sissetulekut. Muudes leibkonnatüüpides elavad mehed said 50 759 krooni suurust ning naised 44 715-kroonist sissetulekut. Üsna kõrget sissetulekut (võrreldes üle 65-aastaste naiste ja meeste keskmise sissetulekuga) said ka 65-aastased ja vanemad partneriga elavad lasteta inimesed. Märksa halvemas olukorras olid üksi elavad naised ja mehed. Meeste keskmine sissetulek oli 32 647 krooni aastas — peaaegu 9000 krooni vähem kui paaris elavatel meestel. Üksi elavate naiste keskmine sissetulek oli 27 929 krooni aastas, erinevus paari leibkonnas elavate naistega oli ligi 11 000 krooni.

Joonis 3.7 **Vähemalt 65-aastased naised ja mehed leibkonnatüübi ja keskmise aastasissetuleku järgi, 2003**  
 Figure 3.7 *Males and females aged 65 and more by household type and average annual income, 2003*



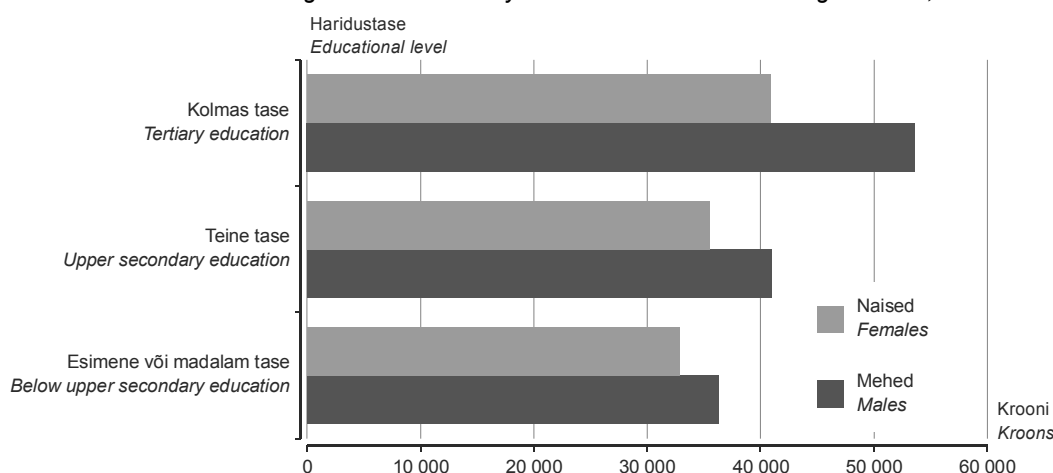
**Vähemalt 65-aastaste meeste ja naiste keskmise sissetuleku erinevus on kõige suurem kõrgeima haridustaseme korral**

### Sissetulek hariduse järgi

65-aastaste ja vanemate meeste ja naiste sissetulekud olid kõrg- või keskeriharidusest (pärast keskhariduse omandamist) madalama hariduse korral üsna sarnased. Põhiharidusega või sellest madalama haridusega meeste keskmine sissetulek oli 2003. aastal 36 216 krooni. Kui mehel oli teine haridustase (kutseharidus põhi- või keskhariduse baasil, keskharidus, keskeriharidus põhihariduse baasil), oli keskmine sissetulek 40 928 krooni. Naistel oli esimese haridustaseme korral keskmine sissetulek umbes 3400 krooni ja teise haridustaseme korral 5500 krooni väiksem. Teise ja kolmanda haridustaseme võrdluses oli sissetuleku erinevus suurem meeste seas. Kõrgeima haridustasemega mehed said 1,3 korda suuremat sissetulekut kui teise haridustasemega mehed. Naiste korral oli kolmanda ja teise haridustaseme erinevus 1,2-kordne. Kõige suurem erinevus meeste ja naiste keskmises sissetulekus oli kõrgeima haridustaseme korral. Kõrg- või keskeriharidusega meeste keskmine sissetulek oli 53 619 krooni, sama haridusega naised said aastas vaid 40 893 krooni suurust keskmist sissetulekut.

Joonis 3.8 **Vähemalt 65-aastased naised ja mehed hariduse ja keskmise aastasissetuleku järgi, 2003**

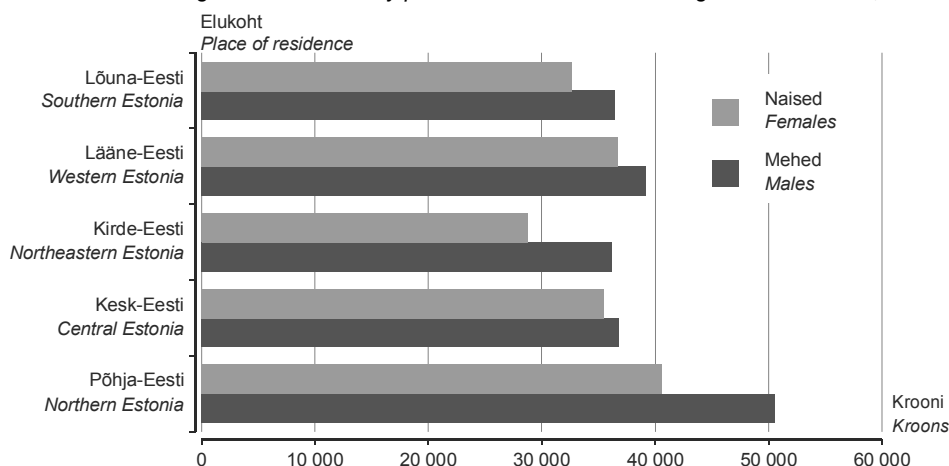
Figure 3.8 *Males and females aged 65 and more by educational level and average income, 2003*



Eesti eri piirkondades oli vähemalt 65-aastaste sissetulek üldiselt sarnane. Kõrgeimat sissetulekut saadi Põhja-Eestis ning madalaimat Kirde-Eestis. Nendes piirkondades ilmesid ka suuremad erinevused meeste ja naiste sissetulekus. Põhja-Eestis elavad mehed said tunduvalt suuremat sissetulekut kui naised. Meeste keskmine sissetulek oli selles piirkonnas 50 564 krooni aastas, naised said sellest 10 000 krooni väiksemat sissetulekut. Kirde-Eestis elavate vähemalt 65-aastaste naiste ja meeste keskmine sissetulek oli 1,4 korda Põhja-Eestis elavate sissetulekust madalam. Naiste puhul ei mänginud asula tüüp sissetulekus suurt rolli. Linnas elavad naised said 2500 krooni rohkem sissetulekut kui maal elavad naised. Meeste korral oli aga linnas keskmine sissetulek 8300 krooni suurem kui maal.

Joonis 3.9 **Vähemalt 65-aastased naised ja mehed elukohta ja keskmise aastasissetuleku järgi, 2003**

Figure 3.9 *Males and females aged 65 and more by place of residence and average annual income, 2003*



**65-aastased ja vanemaealised naised on kaks korda sagedamini vaesuses kui sama vanad mehed**

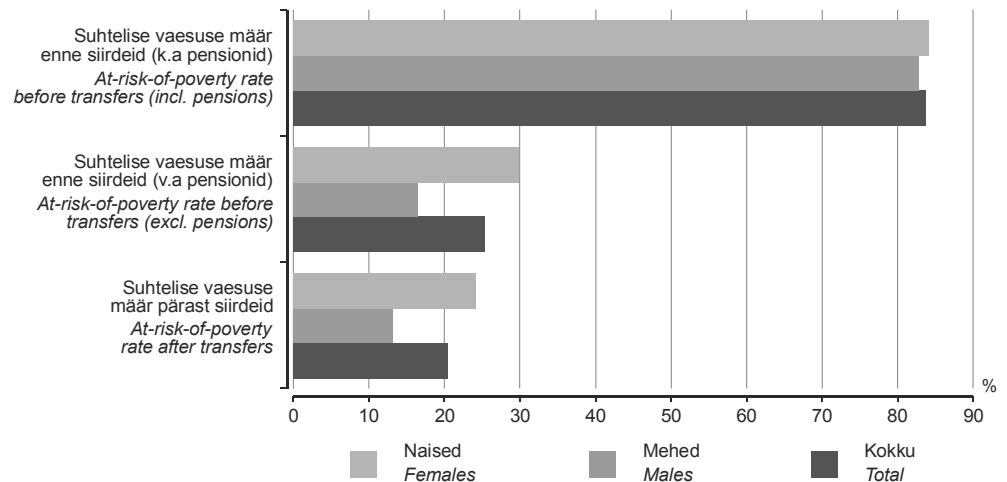
**Vaesus**

2003. aastal elas 21% vähemalt 65-aastastest vaesuses, nende sissetulek jäi alla 24 073 krooni. Selles vanuserühmas oli vaesuses elavaid naisi peaaegu kaks korda rohkem kui mehi. 65-aastaste ja vanemaealiste meeste seas oli suhtelise vaesuse määr 13%, sama vanadel naistel 24%.

Naiste vaesus ei sõltu elukohast — nii linnas kui ka maal oli allpool suhtelise vaesuse piiri 24% üle 64-aastastest naistest. Linnas elavad mehed olid aga maal elavatest märksa paremas olukorras — linnas oli meeste suhtelise vaesuse määr kõigest 11%, maal aga 19%. Tähtis tegur vaesusest pääsemisel on tulu palgatööst. Linnas elavatest vähemalt 65-aastastest meestest sai palgatööst tulu 15%, maal elavatest meestest 6%.

65-aastastel ja vanemaealistel mängivad sissetulekus tähtsat rolli mitmesugused riigi makstavad toetused, eriti vanaduspension. Veendumaks, kas need siirded ennast õigustavad ja kui tähtsad on need vaesusest pääsemisel, tuleks uurida sissetulekut enne sotsiaaltoetusi. Jättes suhtelise vaesuse piiri muutumatuks, saab vaadata kaht suhtelise vaesuse määra: suhtelise vaesuse määr enne sotsiaalsiirdeid, aga pärast vanaduspensiononi ning suhtelise vaesuse määr enne kõiki sotsiaalsiirdeid (k.a vanaduspension).

Joonis 3.10 **Siirete mõju vähemalt 65-aastaste suhtelise vaesuse määrale, 2003**  
 Figure 3.10 *Impact of transfers on at-risk-of-poverty rate of persons aged 65 and more, 2003*



**Sotsiaalsiiretel on vanemaealiste meeste vaesusest väljatoomisel peaaegu kaks korda suurem mõju kui naiste korral**

Suhtelise vaesuse määr enne siirdeid, kuid koos pensioniga ei erinenud väga palju määrast pärast siirdeid. Ka selle näitaja korral oli vaesuses elavaid naisi meestest suhteliselt rohkem. Suhtelise vaesuse piirist madalamat sissetulekut saavate naiste osatähtsus kasvas naiste seas 6 protsendi ja meeste seas 4 protsendi võrra. Pensionide tähtsus vaesusest pääsemisel oli 65-aastaste ja vanemate seas palju suurem. Jättes sissetulekust välja kõik sotsiaalsiirded (k.a pensionid), kasvas 65-aastaste ja vanemate suhtelise vaesuse määr 63 protsendipunkti 84%-ni. Naiste suhtelise vaesuse määr vähenes kõikide sotsiaalsiirete tõttu 3,5 korda, meeste oma 6,3 korda. Seega on sotsiaalsiiretel meeste vaesusele peaaegu kaks korda suurem mõju kui naiste vaesusele.

**3.3. Elustil**

**3.3.1. Eakate leibkondlik koosseis**

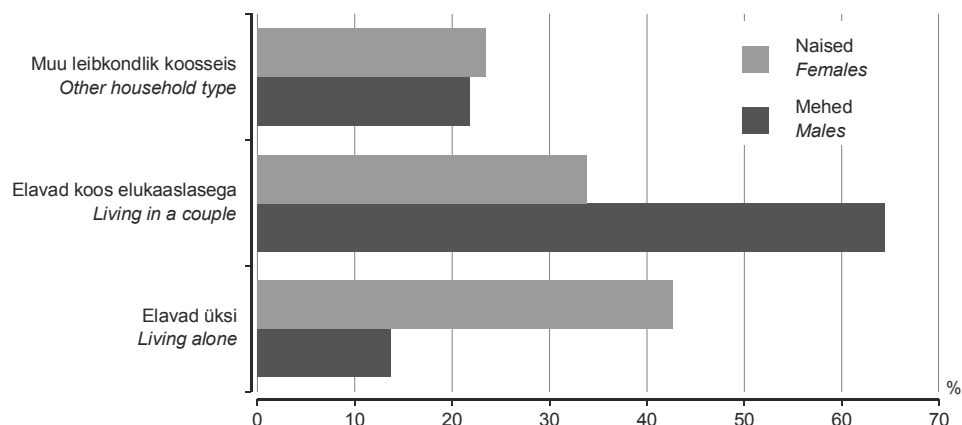
Vanaduse mõiste on kokkuleppeline. Rahvastiku-uurijad loevad vanurrahvastikuks üle 60 aasta vanuseid mehi ja naisi, keda tavaliselt nimetatakse eakateks. Formaalne pensioniiga ligineb 65. eluaastale, 1990. aastate algusest on see naiste puhul pikenenud kümme aastat ja meeste puhul viis aastat. Eestis jääb arvatavasti veel küllaltki pikaks ajaks kehtima praegune 63-aastane pensioniiga. Iga vanema inimese elukorraldus sõltub suurel määral temast endast — tervisest, töövoimest ja -tahtest, varasemast elukäigust ning ka perekonna ja leibkonna koosseisust.



**65–74-aastastest naistest elab 40% üksinda**

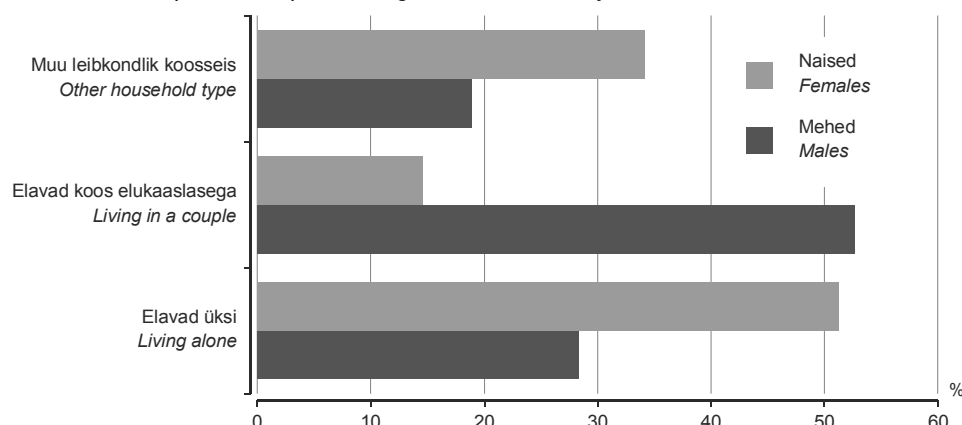
Vanurieas leibkondlik koosseis muutub ning meeste ja naiste leibkondliku koosseisu erinevused on suured. 65–74-aastastest naistest elab üksi üle 40%, meestel on vastav näit veidi üle 10%. Erinevus suureneb veelgi vanuse kasvades: 75-aastastest ja vanematest naistest elavad üksinda üle poole ja vastavas vanuses meestest ligikaudu kolmandik. Eesti ei ole ainulaadne. Näitena võib tuua, et ka sellistes riikides nagu Holland, Saksamaa, Suurbritannia, samuti meie lähinaabrite juures Soomes ja Rootsis, elab üle poole üle 65-aastastest naistest üksinda. Mehed elavad enam koos paarilisega: 65–74-aastastest meestest elab koos paarilisega üle 60% ning 75-aastastest ja vanematest üle poole. Samas elab üle 75-aastastest naistest koos paarilisega vaid veidi üle 10%. Samasugune tendents on omane kogu Euroopa Liidule, kus 60% üle 75-aastastest meestest elab koos paarilisega (naistest vaid 30%). Muus leibkonnas (kas siis koos laste või muude sugulastega) elab 65–74-aastasi naise ja mehi enam-vähem võrdselt, üle 75-aastasi naise aga üle kolmandiku. Paarina koosolemine aitab ka vanuritel paremini toime tulla ning nende elu-olu on parem kui üksikutel vanuritel.

Joonis 3.11 **65–74-aastaste leibkondlik koosseis soo järgi, 2005**  
Figure 3.11 *Household composition of persons aged 65–74 by sex, 2005*



Allikas: Statistikaamet.  
Source: Statistics Estonia.

Joonis 3.12 **Vähemalt 75-aastaste leibkondlik koosseis soo järgi, 2005**  
Figure 3.12 *Household composition of persons aged 75 and older by sex, 2005*



Allikas: Statistikaamet.  
Source: Statistics Estonia.

**3.3.2. Vanemaealiste tarbimisstruktuur**

**Vähemalt 65-aastased paarina elavad naisleibkonnapeaga leibkonnad kulutavad vabale ajale rohkem**

Vanurieas hakkab tarbimisstruktuuri oluliselt mõjutama tingleibkonna suurus. Vanemaealised naised elavad tunduvalt enam üksinda kui mehed ning sellest johtuvalt on muu elukorraldusega 65-aastaste naisleibkonnapeaga leibkondade kulutuste tase liikme kohta suurem, sest leibkonna suurus on selles elutsüklis kõige väiksem. Vaadeldes vanurieas leibkondade tarbimisstruktuuri, selgub, et vanuse kasvades suureneb toidukulutuste osatähtsus tarbimiskulutustes. Paarina elavatel naisleibkonnapeaga vähemalt 65-aastaste leibkondadel on toidukulutuste osatähtsus suurim — 36%. Samuti on tunduvalt suuremad vaba aja kulutused võrreldes samas elutsüklis paarina elavate meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondadega. Ka majapidamiskulud on võrreldes samas elutsüklis meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondadega suuremad. Vanurieas meesleibkonnapeaga leibkondade korral on jäänud püsima suur transpordikulutuste osatähtsus tarbimiskulutustes. Vanemaealiste tarbimises on suur osa ka tervishoiukulutustel.

**Vähemalt 65-aastased muu elukorraldusega naised kulutavad tervishoiule kõige rohkem**

Kõige suuremad on tervishoiukulutused muu elukorraldusega naistel (8%), samas elutsüklis meestega võrreldes on naiste kulutused 2,6 protsendipunkti suuamad. Põhjuseks eelkõige see, et 65-aastastest muu elukorraldusega naistest elab suur osa üksi. Paarina elavatel naistel ja meestel on tervishoiukulutused sarnased, ulatudes 7% tarbimiskulutustest. Muu elukorraldusega naiste ja meeste korral on suurem osatähtsus ka eluasemekulutustel — naiste puhul ulatub see neljandikuni tarbimiskulutustest ja meestel on see veidi üle viiendiku tarbimiskulutustest. Seega hõlmavad vähemalt 65-aastastel muu elukorraldusega naistel ja meestel ainuüksi toidu- ja eluasemekulutused 54–57% tarbimiskulutustest. Paarina elavatel naistel ja meestel on sellelaadsete kulutuste osatähtsus veidi väiksem, kuid ulatub samuti 53–55% tarbimiskulutustest. Eluasemekulud on suurema osatähtsusega eelkõige muu elukorraldusega naisleibkonnapeaga leibkondadel ning väikseima osatähtsusega paarina elavatel naisleibkonnapeaga leibkondadel, vahe koguni 7,4 protsendipunkti.

Tabel 3.3 **Vähemalt 65-aastaste tarbimisstruktuur leibkonnapea soo ja elutsüklilise elukorralduse järgi, 2005**

Table 3.3 *Consumption structure of persons aged 65 and older by sex of the head of the household and cyclic mode of the life, 2005* (protsenti — percentage)

	Paarina elavad leibkonnad		Muu elukorraldusega leibkonnad		
	<i>Households living as a couple</i>		<i>Households with other mode of life</i>		
	naised <i>females</i>	mehed <i>males</i>	naised <i>females</i>	mehed <i>males</i>	
Toit ja mittealkohoolsed joogid	35,8	33,8	32,6	33,1	<i>Food and non-alcoholic beverages</i>
Alkohoolsed joogid ja tubakas	2,9	2,3	1,2	3,8	<i>Alcoholic beverages and tobacco</i>
Riided ja jalanõud	2,8	3,8	5,8	4,2	<i>Clothing and footwear</i>
Eluase	17,7	21,6	25,1	21,4	<i>Housing</i>
Majapidamiskulud	8,1	6,6	6,5	7,3	<i>Household expenditure</i>
Tervishoid	7,3	7,1	8,1	5,5	<i>Health</i>
Transport	7,1	11,2	2,6	7,3	<i>Transport</i>
Side	3,9	4,2	4,8	3,8	<i>Communications</i>
Vaba aeg	10,0	4,1	7,5	6,4	<i>Leisure time</i>
Haridus	0,0	0,0	0,1	0,0	<i>Education</i>
Hotellid, kohvikud, restoranid	0,5	0,2	1,3	2,3	<i>Hotels, cafés, restaurants</i>
Mitmesugused kaubad ja teenused	4,0	5,1	4,4	4,7	<i>Miscellaneous goods and services</i>

Allikas: Statistikaamet, leibkonna eelarve uuring.  
Source: Statistics Estonia, Household Budget Survey.

**3.3.3. Vanemaealiste sidusus ühiskonnaga**

**Kolmandik vähemalt 65-aastastest meestest osaleb tööjõus**

Alates 60. eluaastast nii meeste kui ka naiste tööjõus osalemise määr väheneb. 60–64-aastastest meestest osalevad tööjõus pooled, naistest 40%; vanemas eagrupid, 65–69-aastastest, osaleb tööjõus ligikaudu kolmandik (27%) meestest ja ligikaudu viiendik naistest ning 70–74-aastastest kümnendik (11%) meestest ja vähem kui kümnendik (8%) naistest. Kuigi mehed langevad tunduvalt varem tervise tõttu tööhõivest välja ja nende eluiga on lühem, tuleb täheldada, et vanurieas teevad mehed tasulist tööd naistest enam. Vanemaealistel meestel on tööhõivemäär kõrgem kui samas vanuses naistel, nii on 65–69-aastaste meeste hõivemäär 26,1%, naistel aga 7,4 protsendipunkti madalam

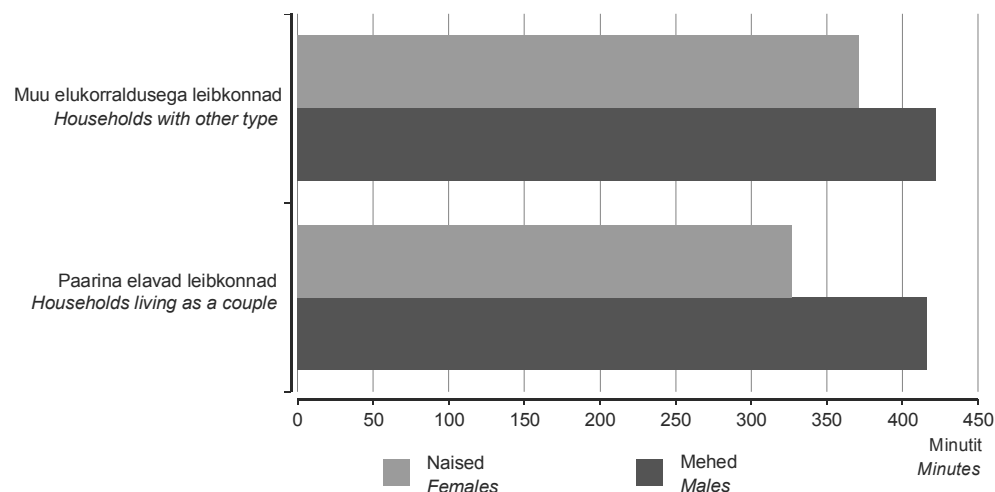
(18,7%). 70-aastaste ja vanemate meeste hõivemäär on 10%, naistel 8,4%. Kõigist hõivatutest hõlmavad vähemalt 65-aastased mehed ja naised vaid 3,2–3,7%.

Vanemaealiste hõive on oluline, kuigi vanurite põhiline tuluallikas on pension ja siirded. Mida vanemaks vanur jääb, seda väiksem tähtsus on palgal ja seda suurema osatähtsusega on siirded. Tunduvalt olulisem on aga vanurite võimalus ühiskonnaelus osaleda ja töökaaslaste olemasolu, mis suurendab ka vanurite sidusust ühiskonnaga. Töötus on alates 60. eluaastast nii meestel kui ka naistel väiksem kui lähedastes vanuserühmades 50–54- või 55–60-aastaste seas. Vanurite töötuse eripära on aga see, et töö kaotuse korral on neil tunduvalt raskem (tihti ka lootusetu) uut tööd leida. Vanur pigem loobub tööturul osalemisest kui intensiivistab töötusi.

Samas on vanurite töötamise üks omapära see, et vähemalt 65-aastastest töötab osalise tööajaga juba ligi pool hõivatutest. Naised töötavad osalise tööajaga märksa sagedamini kui mehed.

Vaba aega on kõige enam paarina elavatel 65-aastastel ja vanematel meestel — keskmiselt seitse tundi päevas. Samas elutsükliis naistega võrreldes on seda poolteist tundi enam. Muu elukorraldusega naiste ja meeste vaba aja erinevus ulatub päevas keskmiselt 50 minutini.

Joonis 3.13 **Vähemalt 65-aastaste vaba aeg päevas soo ja leibkonnatüübi järgi, 2005**  
Figure 3.13 *Leisure time per day of persons aged 65 and older by sex and type of household, 2005*



Allikas: Statistikaamet, ajakasutuse uuring.  
Source: Statistics Estonia, Time Use Survey.

### Vähemalt 65-aastased naised kulutavad religioossetele tegevustele kolm korda enam aega kui mehed

65-aastaste ja vanemate inimeste vaba aja kasutus on nooremate sündnõlvkondadega võrreldes teiselaadne. Vanuse kasvades pikeneb nii naistel kui ka meestel puhkeaeg. Vähemalt 65-aastased naised kulutavad keskmiselt tund aega puhkamisele, umbes tund aega päevas loetakse kas raamatuid või ajakirju-ajalehti ning veidi üle kahe ja poole tunni veedetakse teleri ees. Ka raadiot kuulatakse umbes pool tundi päevas, naised veidi vähem, mehed rohkem. Vaadeldes 65-aastaste naiste ja meeste vaba aja kasutuse erinevusi, võib välja tuua, et naised kulutavad meestega võrreldes kolm korda enam aega religioossetele tegevustele (kirikus käimine). Selles vanuses naised suhtlevad ka enam oma perekonnaga. Mehed seevastu kulutavad enam aega jalutamisele, kalal ja jahil käimisele ning metsas marjade ja seente korjamisele.

Praegu on vanuripõlve vanade- või hooldekodus veetvate inimeste osatähtsus Eestis veel väike — 60–79-aastaste seas vaid 2%. Üle 85-aastaste puhul suureneb hooldekodude kasutajate hulk 5%-ni omaealistest. Seega on Eesti ühiskonnale omane, et vanavanurite eest kannavad hoolt põhiliselt pereliikmed.

### 65-aastased ja vanemaealised naised suhtlevad enam sugulastega kui mehed

Vanuripõlves on oluline side omaste ja lähedastega ning nendega suhtlemise võimalus. Suhtlemise juures on oluline ka see, et see ei toimuks vaid telefoni teel, vaid eakatel oleks võimalus ka oma lähedastega kokku saada. Vähemalt 65-aastastel on võimalik oma sugulastega sageli kokku saada 31%-l meestest ja 41%-l naistest. Harva kohtuvad sugulastega nii meeste kui ka naiste puhul neljandik ning väga harva üle kolmandiku

meestest ja kolmandik naistest. Samas puuduvad 8%-l sellises eas meestest ja 5%-l naistest sugulased üldse. Tunduvalt sagedamini suheldakse aga sõprade, naabrite või töökaaslastega. Üle poole 65-aastastest meestest ja naistest väidab, et suhtlevad sõpradega-naabritega peaaegu iga päev või kord nädalas. Harva suhtleb ligikaudu viiendik meestest ja viiendik naistest, väga harva umbes 17% mehi-naisi ning 7–8% on selliseid, kellel ei ole sõpru, naabreid või töökaaslast. Seega suhtlemisel eakate meeste ja naiste vahel olulisi erinevusi ei ole, võib vaid täheldada, et eakad naised suhtlevad veidi enam oma sugulastega kui mehed.

**Kaks kolmandikku vähemalt 65-aastastest naistest on abi saanud majapidamistöodes**

Paljudel vanuritel on raskusi ka toimetulekuga eelkõige majapidamistöodes, seega on oluline abi saada. Tasuta abi saamises on eakate meeste ja naiste vahel erinevus suur. 65-aastastest ja vanematest meestest on abi saanud kolmandik ja seda põhiliselt kas lastelt või siis sõpradelt-naabritelt. Naistest on abi saanud ligikaudu kaks kolmandikku ja eelkõige lastelt ja sugulastelt, alles siis tulevad naabrid ja sõbrad. Olulise erinevuse tingib suuresti juba eespool mainitud leibkondlik koosseis — üksinda elavaid eakaid naisi on mitu korda enam kui mehi.

**3.4. Tervis**

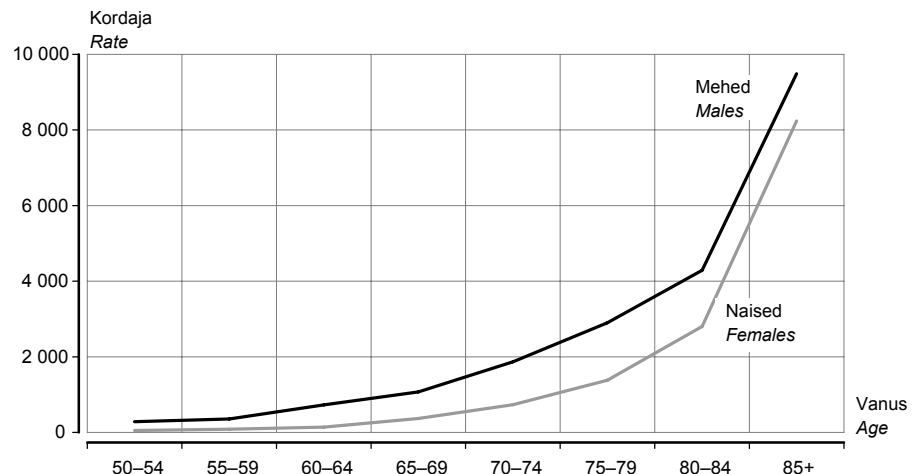
**Peamine surmapõhjus vanurieas on nii meestel kui ka naistel südame isheemiatõbi ja peaaajuveresoonte haigused**

Kõige sagedasem surmapõhjus vanurite hulgas on vereringeelundite haigused, sellele järgnevad pahaloomulised kasvajad. Vereringeelundite haigustest on kõige sagedasem südame isheemiatõbi (mille vormiks on ka südameinfarkt) ja peaaajuveresoonte haigused (sh insult). Need on eakate inimeste tüüpilised surmapõhjused, suremuskordaja kasvab koos vanusega (joonised 3.14 ja 3.15). Meestel on suremuskordaja naiste omast kõrgem kõikides vanuserühmades, välja arvatud üle 85-aastaste suremus peaaajuveresoonte haigustesse — see on naistel oluliselt suurem kui meestel.

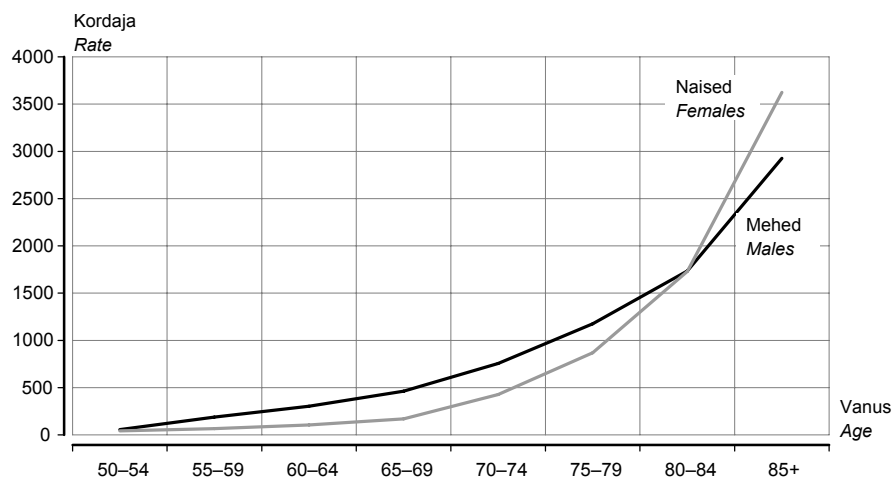
**Vanurieas saab sõidukiõnnetustes kõige enam surma 80–84-aastasi mehi**

Suremine traumadesse ja mürgistustesse on vähemalt 65-aastaste puhul suur 65–69-aastaste vanuserühmas, eristudes meeste ja naiste vahel 5,8-kordselt meeste kasuks. Meestel on see näit 298 juhtu 100 000 mehe kohta, naistel vaid 51 juhtu 100 000 naise kohta. Naistel igas järgmises vanuserühmas suremuskordaja suureneb, meestel aga väheneb. Meestel toimub järsk tõus 85-aastaste ja vanemate seas — 277 surmajuhtu 100 000 mehe kohta. Selles vanuserühmas on peamiseks põhjuseks õnnetused, juhuslikud kukkumised ja enesetapp. 85-aastaste ja vanemate hulgas on enesetappu juhte 100 000 mehe kohta 92, vastavas vanuses naistel on enesetappe küll poole vähem, kuid kõigi naiste seas on selle vanuserühma näitaja siiski kõige kõrgem, ulatudes 48 enesetappujuhuni 100 000 naise kohta. Ka sõidukiõnnetustest põhjustatud surmade erinevus on vanemaealistel meestel ja naistel suur (sõltuvalt vanuserühmast 2–3-kordne meeste kasuks). Kõige enam saab sõidukiõnnetustes surma 80–84-aastasi mehi, mõnevõrra vähem 70–74-aastasi.

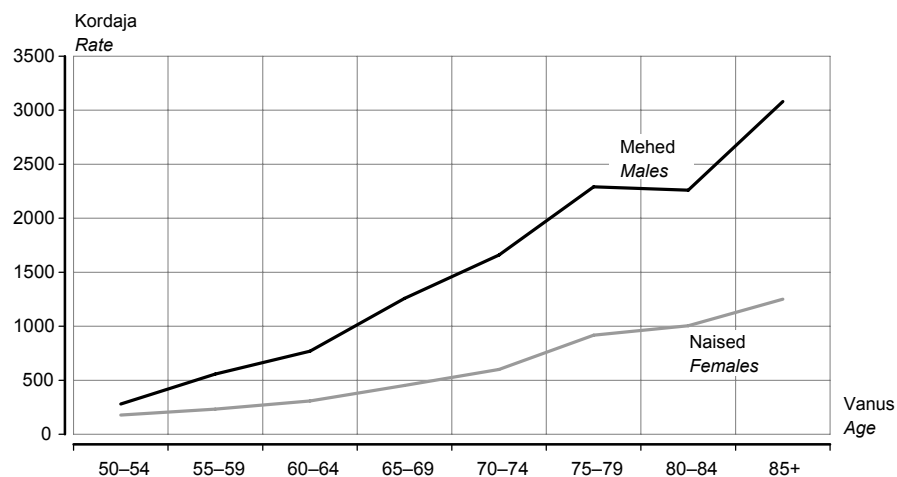
Joonis 3.14 **Südame isheemiatõbi, suremuskordaja 100 000 elaniku kohta, 2005**  
 Figure 3.14 *Ischaemic heart disease, mortality rate per 100,000 population, 2005*



Joonis 3.15 **Peajuveresoonte haigused, suremuskordaja 100 000 elaniku kohta, 2005**  
 Figure 3.15 **Cerebrovascular diseases, mortality rate per 100,000 population, 2005**

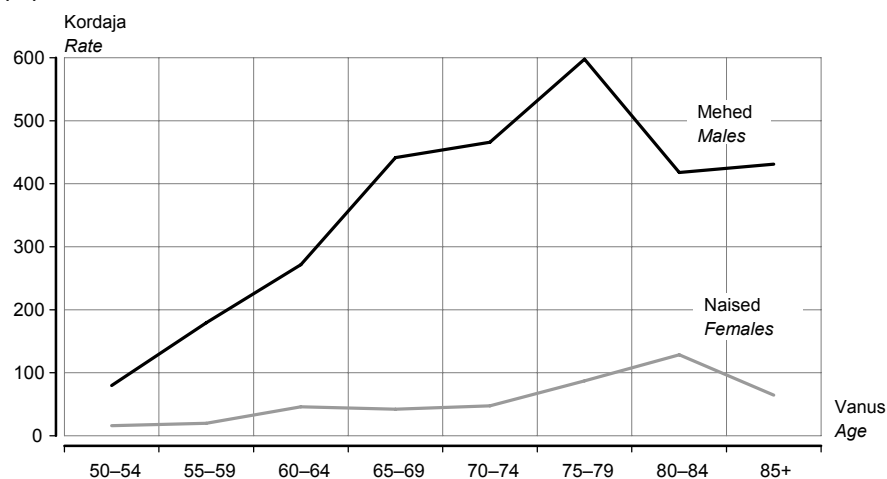


Joonis 3.16 **Pahaloomulised kasvajak, suremuskordaja 100 000 elaniku kohta, 2005**  
 Figure 3.16 **Malignant neoplasms, mortality rate per 100,000 population, 2005**



Joonis 3.17 **Kõri, hingetoru, bronhi ja kopsu pahaloomulised kasvajak, suremuskordaja 100 000 elaniku kohta, 2005**

Figure 3.17 **Malignant neoplasms of larynx, trachea, bronchus and lung, mortality rate per 100,000 population, 2005**



Suremus pahaloomulistes kasvajatessse ei ole nii üheselt vanusega seotud (joonis 3.16), vanuserühmas 75–79 on meeste suremuskordaja veidi suurem järgmise vanuserühma, 80–84-aastaste omast. See on põhjustatud suurest suremusest hingamiseldite pahaloomulistes kasvajatessse 75–79-aastaste meeste seas (joonis 3.17). Naistel on see näitaja kõrgeim vanuses 80–84 aastat. Hingamiseldite pahaloomuliste kasvajate teke on tugevalt seotud suitsetamisega, sellepärast on ka seos vanusega tüüpiline riskifaktoriga seotud surmapõhjuste puhul. Mehed suitsetavad rohkem, seetõttu esineb neil ka sagedamini hingamiseldite pahaloomulisi kasvajaid.

Iga kahe aasta tagant Eestis korraldatav täiskasvanud rahvastiku tervisekäitumise uuring hõlmab inimesi vanuses 16–64 eluaastat. Eesti terviseuuring, mille valimi vanusjaotus on laiem, hõlmates kõiki üle 15-aastasi, toimus 1996. aastal ning järgmine on planeeritud ajavahemikku 2006–2007. Mõningaid terviseküsimusi esitatakse Euroopa sotsiaal-uuringus, mille valimisse kuuluvad ka üle 65-aastased. Seega ei ole Eestis praegu võimalik vanurite tervisekäitumise eri aspekte põhjalikumalt analüüsida ning põhilise infoallikas on statistilised haigestumusnäitajad.

**Üle kolmandiku vähemalt 65-aastastest meestest peab oma tervist väga halvaks, naistest peavad oma tervist väga halvaks pooled**

Tervise seisundi puhul jätkuvad üle 65-aastastel selged erinevused meeste ja naiste vahel, mida võis täheldada juba nooremate hulgas. Nende naiste osatähtsus, kes peavad oma üldist tervist kas keskmiseks või halvaks ja väga halvaks, on samas suurusjärgus — 43,5% ja 46,1%. Meeste hinnangud on paremad — väga halvaks või halvaks nimetab oma tervist 36% ja keskmiseks 47% üle 65-aastastest meestest. Sellest tulenevalt on tervelt elatud eluaastate osatähtsus keskmises elueas vanemate meeste hulgas suurem kui naistel. Seda trendi on veidi pikemalt analüüsitud väljaande esimeses osas, sest juba sünnimomendist peale on meeste keskmine eluiga küll lühem, ent tervelt elatud eluaastate osatähtsus selles suurem kui naistel. Kuigi mehed elavad keskmiselt lühemat aega kui naised, on nende elukvaliteet tervise seisundi põhjal parem ning tervisele olulist mõju avaldavaid pikaajalisi haigusi põevad nad vähem. Põhiliselt on see seletatav nende lühema elueaga. Pikaajalise haiguse olemasolu mainib vanemas eas meestest 70,5% ning naistest üle kümne protsendi rohkem — 81,1%. Tervisest tingitult on igapäevategevused suurel määral piiratud 30,6% meestest ja 39,6% naistest. Oma igapäevaseid toimetamisi ei ole üldse pidanud piirama rohkem kui kolmandik üle 65-aastastest meestest ja veidi üle neljandiku samaealistest naistest.

**70-aastaseks saanud mees elab järgmisest kümnest eluaastast 3,23 tervena**

Keskeas naiste tervelt elatud eluaastate arv oli küll suurem kui meeste vastav näitaja, ent osatähtsus keskmises elueas väiksem. Vanemas eas muutub meeste tervelt elatud eluaastate arv naiste omast suuremaks. Nii näiteks elab 70-aastaseks saanud mees oma järgmisest kümnest eluaastast 3,23 tervena. Sama vana naine elab keskmiselt veel 13,9 aastat, millest 2,8 tervena. Järgmises vanuserühmas, 75-aastaste hulgas, on vahe tervelt elatud eluaastate vahel 0,7 aastat naiste kahjuks.

Vanurieas on haigestumuse struktuur mõnevõrra erinev 25–64-aastaste omast, haigusrühmade jaotus üle 65-aastaste meeste ja naiste hulgas on üsna sarnane (tabel 3.4).

Tabel 3.4 **Esmahaigestumuskordaja 100 000 üle 65-aastase kohta haigusrühma ja soo järgi, 2004**

Table 3.4 *Age-specific incidence rate per 100,000 population aged 65+ by group of illness and sex, 2004*

Haigusrühm	RHK-10 kood	Mehed	Naised	Group of illness
	ICD-10 code	Males	Females	
		65+	65+	
Hingamiseldite haigused	J00-J99	15 878,5	16 746,7	Diseases of the respiratory system
Silma- ja silmamanuste haigused	H00-H59	14 382,5	16 857,1	Diseases of the eye and adnexa
Lihaskonna- ja sidekoe haigused	M00-M99	10 525,5	13 205,5	Diseases of the musculo-skeletal system and connective tissue
Vereringeseldite haigused	I00-I99	10 176,4	9 342,3	Diseases of the circulatory system
Vigastused, mürgistused ja muud välispõhjuste toime tagajärjed	S00-T98	8 414,9	7 934,4	Injury, poisoning and certain other consequences of external causes
Naha- ja nahaaluskoe haigused	L00-L99	6 695,8	6 487,8	Diseases of the skin and subcutaneous tissue
Kõrva- ja nibujätkehaigused	H60-H95	6 127,8	5 698,8	Diseases of the ear and mastoid process
Kuse- ja suguelundite haigused	N00-N99	5 246,3	8 147,3	Diseases of the genito-urinary system
Teatavad nakkus- ja parasiithaigused	A00-B99	3 928,2	3 896,4	Certain infectious and parasitic diseases
Psüühika- ja käitumishäired	F00-F99	2 462,3	3 487,6	Mental and behavioural disorders
Närvisüsteemahaigused	G00-G99	2 376,1	2 731,8	Diseases of the nervous system

<sup>a</sup> RHK-10 on rahvusvahelise haiguste klassifikaatori 10. versioon

<sup>a</sup> ICD-10 is the 10th version of the international classification of illnesses.

Allikas: Sotsiaalministeerium.  
Source: Ministry of Social Affairs.

Vigastused ja mürgistused või muud välispõhjuste toime tagajärjedest tingitud tervisehädad ei ole haigestumuses enam nii kõrgel kohal kui nooremas eas, seda just meeste puhul. Nii meeste kui ka naiste jaoks on esikohal hingamiselundite haigused, millele meestel järgnevad vereringeelundite haigused, lihasluukonna ja sidekoe haigused ning silmahaigused. Kaks viimati nimetatud haigusrühma kuuluvad ka naiste haigestumuse esikolmikusse.

2004. aasta Euroopa sotsiaaluuringu järgi ei pea vanemad inimesed arstiabi kättesaadavust probleemiks — üle 90% naistest ja meestest on saanud perearsti või eriarsti juurde, kui nad seda vajasisid.

# 1. YEARS OF CHILDHOOD AND ADOLESCENCE

## 1.1. Birth of children and growing environment

More boys are born compared to girls. An average of 100 girls are born per 105 boys in the world, however, the indicator varies by years and regions. In 2005 14,350 children were born in Estonia, of whom 7,486 were boys and 6,864 were girls. Therefore, relatively more boys were born as an average in 2005 — 109 boys per 100 girls (Table 1.1). The weight at birth of boys is an average of 150 grams more than that of the girls. The average birth weight of a boy born in 2005 was 3,570 grams and that of a girl — 3,430 grams.

**More boys are born, the gender rate balances by the end of twenties**

Although more boys are born than girls, the gender rate balances by the end of twenties, by the beginning of thirties due to higher mortality rate of men. Therefore the life expectancy at birth of men and women differs considerably. In 2005 the average life expectancy of women in Estonia was 78.1 years and of men 67.3 years (Table 1.2). Among the Member States of the European Union, the life expectancy differs over 10 years besides Estonia also in Latvia and Lithuania. In addition to the great difference in life expectancy of men and women, Estonia stands out due to lower life expectancy among other Member States of the European Union as well. The average life expectancy of 25 Member States of the European Union in 2003 was 81.2 for women and 75.1 years for men.

**Infant mortality in Estonia slightly higher than the average of the European Union**

Already at infancy the mortality rate for boys is somewhat higher than that of girls. Yet this disparity has considerably decreased during the years. Infant mortality is decreasing as well. In 2005 the infant mortality rate indicating the number of infant deaths per 1000 live births was 5.7 for boys and 5.1 for girls, 16.6 and 13.1 in 1995, respectively (Figure 1.1). In comparison with the Member States of the European Union, infant mortality in Estonia is slightly higher. In 2004 the infant mortality rate was 4.5 in the European Union. Pathologies during perinatal period and congenital anomalies were the most frequent causes of death during the first life year. The somewhat higher mortality rate for boys in adolescence is connected with their higher mortality rate due to accidents, injuries and poisoning.

**The mean age at birth of the first child is 25**

Children are born to older parents during the last decade. When a mother was 23 years old on an average at birth of the first child in the middle of the 1990s, then today the mean age at birth of the first child is 25. Estonian mothers are among the youngest ones in the Member States of the European Union together with some other women in the countries of the Eastern Europe. The first child is given birth to later in Western European countries. For example in the Netherlands and in Spain mothers were slightly older than 29 at birth of their first child. Women in Western Europe started to postpone the first birth already in the 1970s, such trend is common in Eastern Europe only since the 1990s.

Similarly to the increase of age at birth of the first child, the average age of mothers at childbirth is also increasing. In 2005 Estonian women at childbirth were slightly older than 28 years. Similarly to the increase of the age of mothers, men become fathers also at later age (Figure 1.2). In 2005 the age of men at first birth of their child was approximately 32 years. Thus, men become fathers at 3.5 years later age on an average in comparison with women becoming mothers.

Similarly to the shifting of childbirth to older age, men and women also postpone the marriage. The age at the first marriage has been increasing continuously during the last decade. In 2004 women were 26.1 and men 28.7 years old at first marriage (Figure 1.3). Men are 2–2.5 years older than women at first marriage. The age gap of newly married persons has increased slowly during the last decades.

People got married before the birth of the first child during the earlier decades, nowadays marriage is often registered after the child is born. 23% of the newly married people in 2004 had at least one common child. Ten years ago the share of newly married people with a common child was lower — 17%. Since 1993 the mean age of a mother at birth of the first child is lower than the mean age of women at first marriage. Getting married after a child is born is not unique in Estonia. In Sweden a child is also often born before the marriage is registered. In Sweden the average age gap between the birth of the first child and first marriage is 2.2 years. The indicator in Estonia today is still under 1 year.



**The number of births to parents in cohabitation has increased**

Although since 1997 more than half of children are born outside marriage, which does not mean that children are born only to a family with a mother. The number of births has primarily increased with regard to parents in cohabitation. In 2005 47 out of 100 births were registered on the basis of co-application of mother and father. 42% of children were born in wedlock. Yet not all children are born into families with two parents. Birth registration was prepared for 11.5% of children based only on the application of mother, a high share of these children is probably brought up by a mother. Children born outside marriage are in predominance also in Sweden. The share of children born outside marriage is under 50% in other countries of the European Union.

Divorces are rather frequent in Estonia. True enough, the number of divorces per 1,000 residents has decreased during the last years. Partially it is caused by the significant decrease in marriages in the 1990s. The relative proportion of the divorced persons with common minor children is decreasing as well. If in 1995 65% of the divorced couples had at least one common minor child, then in 2004 58% of the divorced couples had at least one common minor child.

The number of reconstituted families is noteworthy. These are the families in case of which at least one child is the child of one partner only. According to the 2000 Population Census data, one tenth of all the families with children aged under 18 were reconstituted families. The minor children of only a woman were raised in half of the reconstituted families. The high relative proportion of reconstituted families with only woman's child is natural in every respect, when taking the fact into consideration that women raise the children more often. In addition to children of a mother or father, a common child or children are growing up in slightly less than half of the reconstituted families (Figure 1.4). The share of the families with the children of the man only was 2% of all the reconstituted families.

**The growing environment of minor children is similar for boys and girls**

Until the children reach the age of 18, there are no major disparities in household status of boys and girls of the same age. 0–6-year-old boys are rather the members of a two-child family and the girls of the same age of an one-child family. There are by 4% more boys in one household type and as much girls in the other type. There are by 4% more boys in the families with three children. The share is high also in case of children who are the members of other household types (for example households of several generations). Among the 7–17-year-old children the share of children living in other household types has increased, being approximately 58%. The division of girls and boys of that age by households is practically equal.

Children here are household members aged under 16.

**Twice as much 18–24-year-old girls live with a cohabitee in comparison with young men**

The disparities in household status are greater among 18–24-year-old young people. Starting of one's own life coincide with this age which is connected to leaving the parental roof. Men and women act differently with regard to the situation. Girls leave the parental roof faster and also start a common life with a partner in a younger age than young men: 13% of the girls already live together with a cohabitee, the respective indicator for the young men is only 5%. 10% of the young women aged 18–24 living as a couple also have a child, that is the case only for 4% of young men. 2% more men than women live alone (Figure 1.5).

**Almost half of women aged 20–24 live alone or together with women of the same age**

The median age for leaving the parental roof has remained by 20.5 years. Therefore, a different household context is characteristic of the 20–24-year-old young people: in 2005 38% of the women and men aged 20–24 lived separately from their parents. Here is the percentage of women living separately higher than that of men. In 2005, 46% of the women aged 20–24 lived alone or together with 16–34-year-olds, that was the case only for 30% of men (Figure 1.6).

## 1.2. Education

**Gender differentiation cannot be observed in basic education**

Gender differentiation cannot be noticed in basic education. The number of girls and boys attending school is almost the same up to the ninth grade. Yet the high number of boys who leave school before acquiring basic education is worrying — 1,235 boys per 547 girls (Figure 1.7).

The rate of those who drop out is the highest at the upper level of basic education (in the 7th–9th grade). The lion's share of the drop-outs interrupt studies due to passing the

minimum school-leaving age. The dropping out of the Estonian students from compulsory school attendance is not higher than in other countries of the European Union, there are more boys than girls also among the drop-outs in most of the other countries of the European Union.

A clearer gender differentiation begins in general secondary education where the number of girls is somewhat higher than the number of boys. At the same time, more boys study in vocational secondary education (Figure 1.8). The fields of boys in secondary vocational education are primarily science, agriculture and engineering, manufacturing and construction.

**The share of girls among students starts to grow from the age of 17**

By looking at the attendance of education system as a whole, then the gender differentiation in favour of the girls starts from about the age of 17, when the relative proportion of girls among students is starting to grow more and more with age (Table 1.3).

There are considerably more female graduates of general secondary education than young men, and that not only in Estonia but also in other countries of the European Union. The number of female graduates in Estonia is considerably higher in comparison with male graduates — in 2000 152 female graduates per 100 male graduates compared to the average of the European Union which is 131 (Figure 1.9).

Less young men are accepted to institutions of higher education because they cannot compete with young women at admission. In 2005 160 females were admitted per one hundred men. The share of women in the total number of students acquiring higher education during the academic year 2005/2006 was 61.6%. The higher share of women in higher education increased in the 1990s and at the beginning of the new century year by year, a stabilization can be observed during the last five years (Figure 1.10).

**The number of women in bachelor's study is by one fifth, but in master's study already by one third higher than the number of men**

21% more women than men studied in bachelor's study during the last academic year, in master's study (incl. integrated bachelor's and master's study) even by 30% more. The situation is relatively equal in doctoral study only (6% more women than men studied there). The gender disproportion is certainly caused by the predominance of intended curricula for women as well. For example women prevailed in five out of eight fields of studies in bachelor's studies, the female predominance was the highest in the fields of study of education (90% of women) and of health and welfare (89%). More young men studied only in engineering, manufacturing and construction (72% of men), in natural and exact sciences (59%) and in agriculture (58%).

All those young men who have succeeded in breaking into the higher education landscape do not unfortunately manage to stay there. 17.5% of male students discontinued studies in the academic year of 2004/2005, at the same time the percentage of female discontinuers was only 11.6% in the same academic year. The main reason is obviously socio-economic circumstances. Many students are forced to work part-time or even full-time simultaneously with studying in order to ensure subsistence. It is expected that men will earn money, men are more wanted and in demand at the labour market in comparison with women (if in higher education institutions there are more women, then there are more men of that age at the labour market).

**There are 194 female graduates per hundred male graduates among higher education graduates**

The result is the aspect that much more women graduate higher education institutions than men. This kind of trend is not typical of Estonia only, but also of almost all countries of the European Union (with the exception of Austria). Estonia is sharing even the first place with Cyprus with regard to such situation — 194 female graduates per one hundred male graduates in 2000 (Figure 1.11).

**Studying and working of young people aged 20–24 by household types**

There are twice as much women aged 20–24 living together with parents and studying than women living alone and studying. As much as 71% of women living with parents were engaged in studying. Among young men rather men living alone were engaged in studying. 37% of men living with parents and 44% of men living alone studied (Figure 1.12).

86% of men aged 20–24 living alone or together with people of the same age were employed in 2005, only 59% of men living with parents worked. A similar regularity could be observed in case of women: 68% of women living separately from parents and 40% of women living with parents worked (Figure 1.13).

### 1.3. Lifestyle

**Life arrangement of men and women is becoming more similar only at the age of 25–29**

The average age of leaving home has stayed by 20.5 years in Estonia, at the same time it can be observed that women become independent faster than men and also leave parental roof faster. Men stay longer under parental roof and live alone longer, women, on the other hand, leave parental roof faster and prefer living with a cohabitee to living alone. A similar trend can also be noted in other Member States of the European Union where already more young women live outside home in comparison with men. The behaviour of women and men is becoming more similar at the age of 25–29, when one tenth of women and men live alone, one third (slightly more men) live with parents and 56–59% of women and men (slightly more women) live together with a cohabitee. A different life arrangement and lifestyle results in different consumption behaviour as well.

#### 1.3.1. Consumption structure

**Women aged 16–29 spend more money on clothes, footwear and leisure time**

Over one fifth of women and almost one third of men among 16–29-year-olds live alone. Women spend an average of 5,300 kroons and men 4,800 kroons a month in this life cycle. While observing the consumption structure of single people aged under 30, the differences in female and male behaviour can be noted as well. Women spend more on clothes and footwear, leisure time, expenditure is higher on household as well as on health, expenditure on other products and services are added, including also services of beauticians, hairdresser and other services of this kind. Men spend more on housing and food, also on alcoholic beverages and tobacco, on transport and communications, the expenditure made in cafés and restaurants are also higher. At the same time it can be observed that men have practically no expenditure on education, health in this life cycle, the expenditure on household is also small. The description of consumption structure depicts that already men in young age pay considerably less attention to themselves, to their health and education and to placing a high value on such things (Figure 1.14).

**Men aged 16–29 spend 1.5 times more on alcoholic beverages and tobacco than women**

Estonian consumption structure of women and men aged 16–29 is more similar to Finnish and British women and men of the same age, where men spend almost one and a half times more on alcoholic beverages and tobacco than women of the same age. The consumption structure of women and men of the Member States of the European Union is similar by expenditure structure, for example women spend more on clothes and footwear than men.

**Men buy more technological equipment than women**

Although men have one hour more free time in almost every life cycle in comparison with women, the expenditure of men on leisure time are on the other hand 1.3 times smaller in comparison with women. The expenditure structure between women and men is also different. One fifth of the expenditure of women on leisure time is expenditure on package holidays, men practically do not spend on such items of expenditure, however, the share of expenditure on other cultural products and services, which include buying of videos, computers and other technical equipment is high. Therefore it can be said that men tend to buy more technical equipment than women.

**Men aged under 25 living together with parents spend more on education**

The consumption of women and men aged under 25 who live together with parents can be studied separately. It is clear that living together gives young people the opportunity to shift their consumption structure more for their benefit, which the general division of consumption does not depict. In comparison with men living alone, it can be observed that men aged under 25 who live together with parents have spent considerably more on education, and that is also the case with regard to women at the same life cycle. Therefore it can be said that the young men in that age living together with parents are men who study and who have not left home. If the expenditures on leisure time of single young men are lower than the expenditures of girls of the same age, then the young men living together with parents have higher expenditure in comparison with young women with the same life arrangement, at the same time the expenditure of girls living together with parents is higher on café and restaurant services in comparison with young men. One difference is also the fact that the disparities of consumption structure between women and men in this life cycle are smaller than the disparities of under 30-year-olds who live alone (Table 1.4).

**1.3.2. Health behaviour of children and young people**

The last available international comparative data from 2001/2002 of the “Health Behaviour in School-aged Children” which is conducted under the auspices of the World Health Organisation at four-year intervals among young people attending school, aged 11, 13 and 15 have been used here. A new survey was conducted in the school year of 2005/2006, the data of which are not available yet. The data of the 2004 “EU Survey on Income and Living Conditions” (EU-SILC) and “Health Behaviour among Estonian Adult Population” were used for the purpose of analysing the health behaviour of the 16–24-year-olds.

One of the important indicators collected with the surveys dealing with health issues is self-perceived health. It is an indicator in case of which the subjective evaluation of the population with regard to their health is measured (Table 1.5).

**Girls rate their health worse than boys**

The Estonian population assesses their health as relatively worse in comparison with the population of other European countries. The same trend applies to children, that the share of those who rate their health as medium or poor is higher among Estonian children in comparison with other European countries. The girls are those among 11, 13 as well as 15-year-olds who assess their health with a lower rate and the share of those girls who assess their health like this is increasing considerably with age. Therefore it turns out that girls have greater problems with their health than boys and the share of girls with a lower self-rated health is partly two times higher than the corresponding indicators for boys. The situation is not typical of Estonia only, the same trend dominates in the whole Europe. The problems related to social and physical maturation have been named as reasons for the lower self-rated health of girls, to which the girls are emotionally more susceptible, also more critical attitude towards their body and discomforts related to the beginning of menstruation which altogether strongly influence the assessment given to their health. Differences resulting from gender-related stereotypes have also been brought out as one reason. Complaining is not conventionally accepted as masculine behaviour, therefore it is presumable that the share of poor health is underestimated in case of boys.

The share of young people in the three age groups is the highest among those who assess their health as poor or medium in Ukraine, Russia and Lithuania. The number of children who evaluate their health other than “good” or “excellent” is increasing with age in all the 33 countries participating in the survey. In our neighbouring countries, in the Nordic countries, the self-perceived health of children is considerably higher than in Estonia or in the rest of the Baltic states, except in Norway where boys and girls aged 11 and 15 assess their health even poorer than the Estonian children of the same age.

**Boys aged 0–14 undergo 1.5 times more hospital treatment due to injuries and poisonings in comparison with the girls at the same age**

One of the key problems with regard to the health of children in Estonia is high number of injuries. By comparing the indicators of children who have undergone hospital treatment due to health problems caused by injuries or poisonings with the corresponding indicators for the Nordic countries in 2003, it appears that the Estonian rates for 100,000 boys or girls aged 0–14 are the highest: 1,360 injuries and poisonings per 100,000 boys and 900 per 100,000 girls, respectively (Figure 1.15).

Self-rated health is influenced by health behaviour which is connected to physical activity, nutrition, regular medical examinations as well as prevalence of risk behaviour (for example smoking, consumption of alcohol and drugs, etc.), with which in turn the individual self-rated health and number of healthy life years are closely related to. For the better interpretation of the number of healthy life years it is important to observe the health harming behaviour more closely. Gender disparities become evident most clearly in analysing the variety of such behaviour.

**15% of the Estonian girls aged 11 smoke, this exceeds the corresponding Finnish indicator almost two times**

Smoking is one type of risk behaviour. The younger people start to smoke, the more extensive are its effects on health. The number of female daily smokers, including the number of young women is increasing in whole Europe and as a result of this, the number of women suffering from respiratory diseases is increasing as well. It can also be observed that the share of girls who smoke is increasing among children which partly exceeds the corresponding indicators for young men of the Nordic countries (Table 1.6).

Many countries have set certain age limits with regard to the consumption of tobacco products. According to the Estonian Tobacco Act, smoking as well as sale of tobacco

products of any kind is prohibited to persons under the age of 18. Regardless of the prohibition, more than four fifths of young men and three fifths of girls have smoked at least one cigarette, cigar or pipe during their life up to the age of 15.

**The share of Estonian boys in all ages who have smoked at least once is by about one third higher than the share of girls of the corresponding age**

The share of Estonian boys in all ages who have smoked at least once is by about one third up to half times higher than the percentage of girls of the corresponding age. A similar situation emerges also in Latvia and Lithuania; however, the young people in the Nordic countries differ from the young people of the same age in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania with regard to their smoking habits. The share of Finnish, Swedish and Danish girls aged 11–13 who have consumed tobacco products at least once in their life is smaller than the corresponding indicators for boys. Norway is an exception here because there were proportionally more girls than boys who have tried smoking at least once in their life in the age group of the 13-year-olds in the school year of 2001/2002. The same results in Finland and Denmark were reached by the age of 15 and in case of Sweden only, the indicator of corresponding risk behaviour for boys was higher than the indicator for girls in all age groups. The number of those who have smoked at least once in their life demonstrates the occurrence of population under health risk, yet the long-term behaviour which influences the health status more significantly can be analysed by taking the second important indicator measuring health risk as a basis — the occurrence of daily smokers among young people (Table 1.7).

**There are five times more daily smokers aged 11 among Estonian young men than among Finnish young men of the same age**

Similarly to the previous indicator, there are more young men who smoke daily in Estonia as well as in Latvia and Lithuania. On the other hand, there are more girls who smoke daily among 13- and 15-year-olds in Sweden, Denmark and Norway. In general the trend demonstrates that the greater the number of those who report having tried tobacco products at least once, the greater the number of young people smoking daily in that society as well. Among Nordic countries, the share of daily smokers among girls is especially high in Finland and there is a reason to believe that the indicator for Estonia will also continuously increase, yet it will probably remain below the share of young men in the coming years.

Higher incidence rate of injuries and poisonings among young people, including relatively more boys than girls, is related besides other factors to the consumption of alcohol as well as drugs. Alcohol consumption among the Estonian young people remains under the average of the countries having participated in the survey on health behaviour among school-aged children, yet it is relatively high in comparison with Latvia or the Nordic countries. The data of Lithuania are missing with regard to that indicator. The share of Danish girls and boys reporting having consumed alcohol on a regular basis, that is at least once a week, is the highest in all three age groups in the countries being compared. Regardless for example of the high share of smokers among young people in Finland, where the alcohol policy is very strictly regulated and the number of young men and women who consume alcohol often is relatively small in comparison with the young people of the same age elsewhere in Europe (Table 1.8).

**Young men are more active than girls in the consumption of alcoholic drinks**

A clear pattern with regard to the consumption of alcoholic drinks emerges for all the countries having participated in the survey: young men are more active consumers than girls different for example from smoking in case of which opposite trends occurred with the increase of age. In the relatively new democratic countries such as the Baltic states, the share of risk behaviour of girls is lower than that of the boys, however, an increasing trend with regard to smoking as well as consumption of alcohol can be predicted with a relatively great certainty when the rather liberal national alcohol policy is not changed.

**Almost a quarter of the Estonian young men aged 15 have consumed cannabis**

Cannabis use is an indicator used internationally for the measurement of consumption of narcotic substances, as people usually start with cannabis when they start using illicit drugs. The share of boys and girls aged 15 reporting having used cannabis at least once were the highest in Great Britain, also in Switzerland and the USA. Estonia took the place at the end of the second third within the comparison of countries; rates of countries such as Latvia, Lithuania as well as the Nordic countries, with the exception of Denmark, were lower than ours (Figure 1.16).

The proportions of boys are higher among cannabis consumers, different from the use of tobacco products. It could be supposed that the share of young people having tried cannabis is relatively high in the Netherlands where its use is not an illegal activity. The Netherlands remains at the beginning of the second third in the ranking of countries and more than

a quarter of young men aged 15 and less than a quarter of the girls of the same age have used cannabis there.

In addition to the previously mentioned indicators, health status can be analysed with the help of body mass index.

*Body mass index (BMI) is also one health indicator in international comparisons which is calculated as the individual's body weight is divided by the square of the height.*

*The most optimal body weight from the point of view of health is when the value of BMI is 20–24.9, BMI lower than this suggests a person is underweight. BMI 25–29.9 indicates that the person is overweight and a number above 30 suggests a person is obese.*

There were under ten percentages of boys and under five percentages of girls among 13- as well as 15-year-olds who were overweight or obese in the school year of 2001/2002 in Estonia in total in both age groups. Overweight among children is not yet such a sharp problem in our country than elsewhere in the world. The share of overweight children in Nordic countries is considerably higher than in Estonia and the share is smaller in Latvia and Lithuania.

**Young men aged 16–24 have over two times more trouble than women with overweight or obesity**

According to the data of the "Health Behaviour among Estonian Adult Population" of 2004, the average BMI for young men aged 16–24 was 22.4 and for women 20.9. At the same time, the body weight was smaller than is healthy in case of more than two fifths of young women (42.3%). Underweight is not so common among young men (17.9%). Young men rather than women were more likely to have trouble with overweight or obesity (16.4% and 6.9%, respectively). The number of overweight young women has decreased and the number of young men slightly increased over the years. 3.6% of young men and 19.1% of young women have been on a diet in order to lose weight during the last 12 months which preceded the survey. Women are more susceptible to the ideal body image created by the various media, therefore they pay more attention to their body weight and eating disorders resulting from this extreme form are mainly common among younger women. By relying on the data of 2004 it can be stated that almost 60% of men aged 16–24 and 45% of women of the same age are taking any physical activity more than once a week at least during half an hour. Therefore men are more athletic than women and women keep themselves fit relatively more often with help of diets.

10.6% of women and 13.9% of men aged 16–24 rated their health as fair (medium). A marginal part of the young people in this age group rated their health as poor or very poor. As became clear in the analysis above, young people attending school in their puberty are more critical in rating their health which may partly be connected to age-related changes happening during this time and emotional and social adjustment of a young person. Different from the schoolchildren aged 11–15, young women rather than men have rated their health better among young people aged 16–24. 17% of the representatives of both sexes confirm that they have some long-term health problem and approximately nine percentages of women and every tenth man aged 16–24 claims that their everyday activities are restricted to some extent due to health problems.

**Though men die at a younger age, yet they live longer healthy**

The results of risky health behaviour become most evident when the healthy life years of young men and women are compared. Although the average life expectancy at birth and in future of girls is ten years higher than the average life expectancy at birth of boys, the ratio of healthy life years to average life expectancy indicates that girls enjoy a shorter period of healthy life years than boys. Though men die at a younger age, yet they live longer healthy. The more risky health behaviour is the connection here, including the greater prevalence of injuries which result in death among men of any age. Due to longer life expectancy, women are more exposed to various health complaints, including chronic illnesses which shorten the number of healthy life years.

As described above, every tenth relatively young man confirms the occurrence of limitations to everyday activities related to health. As a result of this, the number of healthy life years is 31.5 for men and 34.4 for women aged 20 when relying on the calculations made according to the data of the EU-SILC. Regardless of the greater number of healthy life years in case of women, the share of male healthy life years of that age is by 8% higher than the indicator for women from the total average life expectancy. Such a trend continues till the age of 40 when the gap is starting to increase even more, by being already two times higher during the

senior years for the benefit of men. Regardless of dying at a younger age, the quality of life of men is higher than that of women because the risk of suffering from a long-term illness which usually increases exactly in the old age is smaller during a shorter life (Table 1.9).

The morbidity structure of boys and girls aged under 14 demonstrates that the most frequent disease groups are the same, yet the top three differs by sex. Diseases of the respiratory system are on the first place among girls as well as boys with an average of 120–140 cases per 100 boys or girls a year. A readily predictable result follows: injuries and poisonings take the second place in morbidity ranking among boys. The same diseases are only on the fifth place in the indicator ranking of girls aged 0–14. The next two disease groups besides diseases of the respiratory system which occur most frequently in case of girls are diseases of the skin and subcutaneous tissue; diseases of the ear and mastoid process and infectious diseases occupy the third-fourth place in case of boys. A change in the morbidity structure can be noted to a certain extent among 15–24-year-olds. Respiratory diseases are again on the first place among men, the second place is taken by injuries and poisonings. Diseases of the genito-urinary system follow the diseases related to respiratory organs in case of women. Diseases of the musculo-skeletal system and connective tissue occur most frequently as a third group of diseases among men and infectious diseases among women.

**There are twice as much young men aged 16–24 among daily smokers compared to girls**

By analysing the population under risk from the point of view of health behaviour, it becomes clear that the share of male daily smokers in the age group 16–24 has slowly increased since 2000 when every third man of the corresponding age belonged to that group and the data of 2004 indicate that 41.6% of young men smoke daily. The indicator for women in 2004 was almost by a half lower — 21.4% and their share has also increased over the years. By looking at the trends in other countries of the world it can be assumed that the increasing trend continues and the share of women who smoke is more likely to increase faster.

**Almost half of the young men aged 16–24 consume alcohol at least once a week or more often**

When the share of young men up to the age of 15 who consumed alcohol once a week or more frequently was almost 30%, then 48.3% of men aged 16–24 have drunk alcohol once a week or more frequently. Such a frequent alcohol consumption is less common among women — 28.4%. The significantly greater affection towards alcohol of young men is also characterised by the fact that they drink relatively often at least six units of alcohol at a time compared to women.

Six alcohol units = six shots of strong alcoholic beverage, six glasses of wine or six bottles of beer.

44.3% of men aged 16–24 who participated in the survey confirm that they drank the given amount once a month or more frequently and only 16.1% of women of the same age. The consumption of six alcohol units at a time is regarded as a great health risk.

The increase in the alcohol excise duty and legalisation of advertising restriction are the most effective from the point of view of efficiency and low expenditure with regard to societies having problems with excessive alcohol consumption, when relying on the opinion of the experts of the World Health Organisation. Taxation is the most effective policy tool reducing the burden of disease which develops during excessive alcohol consumption. These measures are followed by the establishment of sale limitations on alcohol and prohibition of alcohol advertising (Chisholm, D; Rehm, J; Ommeren van, M; Monteiro, M, 2004).

According to the data of 2004, every third young man and every fifth young woman reported ever having tried or consumed illicit drugs. Over 6% of men aged 16–24 and over 2% of women of the same age belonged to the consumers of drugs. Consumption means using drugs over a certain interval. It is also the last age group of the groups under risk as the share of consumers as well as of the people ever having used illicit drugs is decreasing significantly with age. At the same time, albeit risk in trying the illicit drugs and in regular consumption is decreasing significantly by the age of 25, it is important to monitor with further studies how the cohorts under risk perform with the increase of age. It is possible that they continue their life style which includes the consumption of illicit drugs with various frequencies and the risk behaviour spreads to the next age groups.

## 2. WORKING AND FAMILY YEARS

### 2.1. Combining of work and family life

The major and the most constant trend of the European labour markets in the recent decades has been the increase in the proportion of women in employment. The other side of this phenomenon is the decrease of the occurrence of the traditional family model where the only breadwinner is the man and the increase in the number of the households where both partners go to work. In most EU countries the latter has become the most numerous household type among the households with two persons of working age. The problem of combining the work and family life is mostly confronted by the women. Although most men spend time taking care of children and other family members, this is not disturbing their working to major extent. For the women, this means quitting work or rather part-time than full-time working. Also, the working of women depends on the number and age of children, it has little influence on the working of men.

#### Time use of men and women

All data on time use are based on the Time Use Survey of 1999–2000 and the average times a day spent on human activities per capita have been provided therein.

The European people spend their time relatively similarly. Almost half of the day is spent on sleeping, eating and self-care. Different from other European countries where women spend slightly more time on sleeping than men, the sleeping time of men and women in Estonia is equal. The same also applies to self-care. The average of 11 hours a day is spent in total on these activities. The average total time a day spent on the movements related to paid work, studying, housework and the related activities is slightly over 8 hours. The remaining leisure time is spent on television or other media, sport, hobbies, rest, socializing and voluntary work. As elsewhere in Europe, major part of the leisure time is spent on watching TV, which accounted for half of the leisure time in 1999–2000 (Figure 2.1).

**Men aged 25–64 spend on paid work on an average one hour more a day than women**

By looking at the time use of men and women separately, the major differences occur in the time spent on paid work, household and family and leisure activities. In the viewpoint of combining the work and family life it is essential to examine the proportion of the paid work and housework in the day of men and women. Although the share of men in the household work and the employment rate of women have continuously increased, this is far from equality. Men spend on an average more time on paid work than on housework — 4.5 and 3.2 hours a day, respectively. Women, on the other hand, spend on an average more time on household and family than on paid work — 4.5 and 3.2 hours a day, respectively. Men aged 25–64 spend on an average an hour more on paid work than women, but women devote slightly more than two hours to housework than men. Thus when viewing the paid work and the time spent on household and family together, the total working time of women is longer by one hour than that of men.

The employed men and women spend on an average more time on paid work and studying than household and family. Although the time spent by women on paid work is 1.2 times shorter than by men, they spend 1.7 times more time on household and family than men. The total working time of employed women is approximately one hour longer than that of employed men (Figure 2.2).

**Main housework of men aged 25–64 are house construction and renovation as well as the work related to household upkeep**

Food management (preparing, baking, washing the dishes, preserving) takes most time (almost 2 hours a day) of the housework of women aged 25–64, this accounts for 34% of housework. Another time-consuming activity is household upkeep (16% of the capacity of the housework), which includes several cleaning works both in the room and garden. Almost as much time (9–11% of housework) is spent on making and care for textiles, gardening and pet care, childcare, shopping and servicing. In case of men the distribution of housework is more equal, no major differences exist in the time spent on work. Men spend most time on household upkeep (18% of housework), house construction and renovation (18% of housework) and food management (17% of housework). About half an hour is spent on these activities. Men spend only 6% on childcare of the time spent on housework. This is 2.5



times less than women. It should be considered that the activities are often carried out in parallel. Here only the main activities have been considered, the children can be attended also besides other work. Thus the time spent with children is actually much longer. When comparing men and women as to work, it can be seen that house construction and renovation are mainly the work of men, the dealing with it accounts only for 1% of the housework of women. Similarly, the work of only women is making and care for textiles, for which men spend 1% of the time spent on the housework (Figure 2.3).

The time use of men and women are closely connected with the type of household and especially the existence of children. The main differences occur in the distribution and quantity of the paid work and housework. The differences of time distribution of men and women living as a couple are the greatest proceeding from the existence of children. This difference is even greater, when the children are young (under 7 years). The grouping into different household types is based on the age of the youngest child. Thus the household where the youngest child is 0–6 years old could still include older children.

**Mothers with children aged 0–6 are on an average 3 hours engaged in paid work**

The time spent on paid work and studying of women is the shortest, if the household includes children under 7 years regardless whether this is a couple relationship or a single parent household. In both cases the spent time accounts for on an average 3 hours a day. Women with children aged 7–17 work on an average the longest, approximately one hour more than mothers of children aged 0–6. In this age the children already go to school, enabling the women to stay away from home. The expenditures in the families with children are often higher than in case of those living alone or in a couple without children, thus the latter can afford shorter working hours for themselves (Figure 2.4).

The women with children aged 0–6 in a couple relationship spend most time on housework. For that purpose they spend 6 hours and 48 minutes a day on an average. Although these women have the shortest average time spent on paid work, they still work longer than other women — 9 hours and 42 minutes. The fact that the women with children aged 7–17 have the shortest average time spent on housework in a couple relationship can be explained by the fact that the children in this age need no constant supervision and also they can help mother to do housework. As these women have longer time of paid work, they will not have so much time for housework.

**The age of children has no impact on the volume of paid work of men**

The existence and age of children have stronger impact on the time use of women than men. The time spent on paid work is slightly longer when the family has children aged 7–17. Men with children living in a couple spend on paid work on an average about one hour more than men living in a couple without children. The time spent on paid work is longer by men compared to the time spent by women. Men living in the couple with children aged 0–6 stay 1.8 times longer at work. The time of men spent on housework and family is not especially dependent on children, remaining in the range of 3 hours. Similarly to women, the men in the couple relationship with children aged 7–17 spend least time on housework.

**Single women spend least time on housework**

Although the time of paid work of men is longer than that of women, the total time spent on housework and paid work of women is longer. The major differences occur among the couples with children aged 0–6. The duration of the total work of women in these households is an hour and a half longer on an average than that of men. The women in the couples with older children and without children work on an average an hour longer. The work volumes are equal only among single men and women. Here the men spend on an average an hour more on paid work than women and the women an hour more on household. The time spent on housework is also the shortest among single women — less than four hours a day (Figure 2.5).

**One third of the women with children aged 0–3 are working**

As explained above, the average time spent on work a day by women with children is shorter than that of the men with children. The younger the children, the greater the difference. The smaller average working time is caused by the low employment rate of young women with children. In 2005 only 29% of the women with children aged 0–3 worked. The low employment rate is understandable, as the parental leave can be used up to the time the child is three. This possibility was still mostly used by women, the employment rate of the men with small children was even 92%, which was the highest of men. When the children grow older, many women return to work. The employment rate of the women with children aged 4–14 was 79%, the corresponding indicator among men was 10% larger. Different from women the employment rate of men does not change much and rather

decreases than increases when the children become older. The number of employed women is the largest among women with children aged 4–14. The children in this age go to kindergarten or school and help the parents in housework, enabling their mother to devote more time on paid work. The need to work is higher also due to the fact that the expenditures in the family with children are higher than in the family without children. The employment rate of men and women without children under 14 years was almost equal, that of women was even slightly higher than that of men.

**More than half of the women with children aged 0–14 wish to work less and spend more time with children**

As the employment rates of women and men with children are so different, it is interesting to examine whether they are satisfied with the organisation of their work and family life. It occurs that 21% of the women with children aged 0–14 are not satisfied, 39% of them wish to work more and decrease the time devoted to the childcare, most (61%) would prefer to work even less and spend more time with children. Only 12% of the men with children were not satisfied with the organisation of work and family life. Though most of them would like to devote more time to the childcare (Figure 2.6).

## 2.2. Working life

### 2.2.1. Working

The work path of men and women is different and this involves both the sectoral division, nature of profession and work.

**Men achieve maximum employment rate already in the age of 25–29**

The educational path of women is longer than that of men and thus they enter the labour market later than men. The employment rate of men and women by age indicates the differences of women and men in professional behaviour. The giving of birth to the first child by women remains in the age of 25 and the average age of a woman in childbirth is slightly over 28 years. Thus the employment rate of women in the age group of 25–34 is lower of the men, as they are mostly connected with childcare and staying at home. The women from 35 years of age return to the work life and in the next life stages the employment rate of women exceeds that of men. The employment rate of women from the age 55 decreases and on the one hand this is due to the earlier retirement compared to men. Men enter the labour market earlier and achieve the maximum employment rate, at the same time men drop out of employment in the best working age at 50–54. On the one hand this is due to health problems and to the fact that occupational accidents happen more often to men, also health problems related to work (e.g. overstrain) occur mostly among men. At the same time those men staying at the labour market have longer work path than women. In 2005 the general employment rate among the women aged 25–64 was 72% and among men 77% (Figure 2.7).

The work load of paid work of women living together with the partner having children up to 6 years accounts for only 44% of the work load of paid work of men, most work is done in this life cycle by doing housework and taking care of children and family (the so-called unpaid work). At the same time the paid work load of women in the following lifecycle who live together with the partners and the children are in the age of 7–17 accounts for about three quarters (74%) of the work load of men. Thus it could be noted that when the child grows the women return to the paid work. Men are more focused on paid work. The work load of paid work of men is the highest in the life cycle when they live together with the partner and the children are in the age of 7–17.

**More than half of the women work in the tertiary sector**

If the distribution of total employment is viewed, then one third of women are in the primary sector, slightly more than one third in the secondary sector and more than half in the tertiary sector. Thus the predominance of men in the primary and secondary sector can be observed.

Only 3% of the employed women works in the primary sector, approximately one fifth in the secondary sector and two thirds in the tertiary sector (Figure 2.8).

**Almost one fourth of the women aged 25–54 are engaged in manufacturing**

Internationally women prevail mainly in the fields of health and social work, trade and education, but the Estonian women can surprise, almost a fourth of the women in the most active working age (25–54) work in manufacturing. One could guess that the high participation of women in the field of manufacturing originates already from the Soviet period and is strongly connected with the professional profile of immigrant population. The latter is

indicated also by the professional profile of elderly women aged 55–64, where one fifth of the women were still engaged in manufacturing.

Table 2.1 provides an overview of the top five fields of activities of men and women.

**One fifth of the women aged 55–64 are engaged in the field of education**

Most men work in manufacturing when they become older (even one third in the age of 55–64) and in transport, storing and communication. The proportion of construction decreases almost twice. The share of elderly women (aged 55–64) has considerably increased in the fields of education, health and social work. So it could be said that approximately one fifth (18.3%) of the women aged 55–64 are engaged in education.

**Three and a half times more male directors than female directors**

The managers aged 25–64 include more men than women, respectively 62% and 38%, but in different management levels the disproportion between women and men is considerably higher. So the directors and managers include three and a half times more male managers than female managers, the major difference also exists among the managers of small companies which include twice more men. The women are most numerous among the managers of other fields (47%) which includes personnel managers, sales and marketing managers, advertising and public relations managers, managers of other fields. The category of other managers has also been most equally divided between men and women (Figure 2.9).

By examining the internal structure of professions of men and women, three most popular professions are different with regard to men and women. Women are mostly professionals and technicians and associate professionals, but men are craft and related trades workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers. One could guess that the acquired education has also an essential impact. There are more women with higher education than men at the labour market and men acquire more vocational education than women (Table 2.2).

At the same time it should be stated that the women are more numerous among elementary occupations, of all employed persons aged 25–64 women at elementary occupations account for 7%, men at elementary occupations — for 3%. Elementary occupations include outdoor sellers, domestic help, cleaners, caretakers, boiler operators, messengers, porters, as well as elementary occupations in production such as agriculture, mining and construction, etc.

## 2.2.2. Men and women at the level of political decisions

**Riigikogu (the Parliament of Estonia) has less than one fifth of women**

The share of men and women at the level of making the political decisions is one of the key indicators of the development level of democracy. The more hierarchic and authoritarian the culture, the more difficult it is for women to reach high positions in politics.

Although the share of women at the level of legislative and executive power increased in the years 1992–2004, this has remained unchanged during the last five years. Riigikogu has women less than 20%, the government less than 15% and the local government councils less than 30%. In 2003 the Riigikogu got its first female speaker.

The membership of the parties having reached the Riigikogu has approximately half of women, but the management boards of the parties and managers of subunits of the party have only 15–20% of women. The access of women to the Riigikogu depends first and foremost on the wish of the party to distinguish the women candidates and the preferences of the electors.

The share of women is smaller than average in the local governments of the Estonian major cities and central regions, higher than average in the smaller centres and more peripheral local government units. 15 county governors included only one woman in 2005.

The Estonian government members through different governments have included on an average 12.5% of women.

**Estonia has the 56th place in the world with the share of women in the Parliament**

Estonia has the 56th place in the world (18.8%) with the share of women in the Parliament (data of the International Association of Parliaments as at 31 May 2006). Estonia remains below the European average in the comparison of the European Member States both as to the share of women in the Parliament (15th place) and the government (23rd place) (Tables 2.3, 2.4).

**2.2.3. Women in research**

The proportion of personnel involved in research and development (R&D) in labour force remains within few percentages nevertheless the area is important and all that is going on there is consequential. Science, technology and innovativeness are today the main factors pushing the economic growth, as the long-term trend for establishing the knowledge-based economy is present already for some years. But mainly there — among R&D personnel — conspicuous gender differences can be spotted. The educational attainment of woman in modern Europe is higher than that of men but the share of female researchers is quite low. One of most important Lisbon strategic objectives of the European Union is to increase R&D expenditures up to 3% of the gross domestic product. This objective can't be reached without recruiting, taking care of and elevating females constituting a remarkable resource for European research. Young people in schools, laboratories, universities and research centres having interest in R&D must feel that the science could be a rewarding career choice. To increase the share of women making this choice the R&D environment must be free of gender biases and preferences. Even more, the working conditions created must predispose the female employment.

**Men in research career are more successful than women**

Taking into account two simple facts — women prevail among students, men prevail among professors — the question must be asked: to where these keen to study young ladies disappear? Is the womankind not interested in science career or is the male dominated environment supporting only men to rise along career ladder? Whatever the reason the situation is similar in all European countries (Figure 2.10).

The characteristic form has given to the pictured diagram its name — scissors diagram. The scissors diagrams for European Union Member Countries are all similar to that one presented for EU as a whole, some differences can be found only in details. So, the Estonia and Finland stick out with remarkable high proportion of female students. In contrary, for Germany the proportion of females for all levels is below 50%, nevertheless the conjoining tendency is the same — higher the position in career ladder the more men are prevailing.

The time lag for comparison of proportions in Figure 2.10 is four years. The result for European Union is at all levels unvaried — the proportion of women is rising — and in particular for the academic higher education the feminisation rate increases by half percent per year.

**There are 6–7 male professors per each female professor**

Estonian scissors diagram (Figure 2.11) covers twice longer period. Though the main tendency is similar to that of the European Union some dissimilarities can be set apart. The pace of increasing feminisation of academic higher education is twice higher: If anybody call for necessity of changes in education politics she/he must not ignore the fact that in 2004 there was 228 female graduates for every 1000 male graduates at bachelor and master level in Estonia. Fair enough, for doctor studies the gender situation is balanced, compared to the European Union we have made step forward, but this balance will not last long. Reaching professor level the situation is identical to that of European mean — one can count 6–7 male professors for every female professor in our higher education institutions.

The scissors diagram is revealing the fact that somewhere after first employment in R&D environment some hindrance emerges at career ladder for females that is succinctly called the glass ceiling hinting at its invisibleness. The diagram does not reveal is this connected with guild rules established by men or lackadaisical aspire after higher position by women or just the desire of ladies to devote themselves more to children and family. Nevertheless the countries can be compared by the Class Ceiling Index (CLI) defined as:

$$GCI = \frac{\text{Proportion of women in grades A, B and C of academic staff}}{\text{Proportion of women in grade A of academic staff}}$$

Benchmarking the figures in the first column of Table 2.5 it is made clear that only every sixth professor in Europe is woman, the same is true for Estonia. Quite different is situation in Latvia where it is true for every fourth professor and for Germany — every tenth (Malta is too little a country for comparisons).

To interpret the Glass Ceiling Index it must be taken notice that if the share of woman for all grades of academic staff would be the same then the Index will equal to 1 meaning that the

careers of women and men have the same pace. Higher the Index the faster are men moving up along the career ladder compared to woman. If there happens to be none of female professors in Malta the Index for Malta will reach the infinity. Yet, in practice the values of CLI of most countries are quite close to the European mean value — 2.1 — even for Latvia and Germany. That means that the share of women in lower grades of academic staff is couple of times higher than among professors. Thus certain uniform processes are existing in European cultural area that are hampering academic career of women.

**The share of female researchers is considerably lower in the business enterprise sector**

The subject “Women in Science” is not limited to academic environment, two third of R&D in developed countries is performed in enterprises. Even Estonian business enterprise sector is moving fast — during the period of 1999–2004 the expenditure on intramural R&D for enterprises quadrupled. But specifically in business enterprise sector the share of female researchers is considerably lower than in non-profit institutional sectors. Understandable this fact is correlated with low proportion of female students at programmes in natural science and engineering. Therefore an interesting contradiction is taking place (Table 2.6): in countries with high R&D potential (Germany, Netherlands et al.) the share of female researchers is low, in contrary, in less developed countries (Portugal, Greece, Baltic countries) it is high outreaching as exception for Latvian business enterprise sector 50%.

Surely the politicians and analysts are interested not only in the present situation but as well in trends. As in the case of scissors diagram the time is working in benefit of women. The average annual growth rate in number of female researchers was 4.0% in the European Union during 1999–2003 and only 2.9% in the case of male researchers. The same figures for Estonia were: women — 5.1%, men — 3.9%. Particularly high were the growth rates for female researchers in Latvia (9.7%) and Spain (10.8%), but they were scooped by Island — 23.1%.

**Within last five years the share of women has decreased by 12 percentage points among female researchers in the business enterprise sector**

Once again the fact that Estonian women have higher education attainment than men is reflected from Diagram 2.12: the situation for labour force as a whole is gender balanced but the share of women among tertiary educated (higher education or professional secondary education based on secondary education graduates) labour force reaches 60%. Directing the eyes to R&D personnel one can find again the situation similar to the scissors diagram — the share of female researchers is only 40%. As there exist the balanced situation among R&D personnel as a whole it means that women are more involved as technicians and supporting personnel not as research performers. The growth of intramural R&D of enterprises during last years discussed above brought down the share of female researchers in business enterprise sector from 36% in 1999 to 24% in 2004. Table 2.6 shows that Estonia is progressing towards Germany, not Portugal. To increase the share of women involved in R&D in enterprises the gender roles must be changed already for pre-primary education — baby girls must begin to play with cars and robots.

The gender inequality among R&D specialists is hidden not only in different opportunities to build up the career. The gross hourly earning of females are lower than that of males as a result of working on less valued occupations and get less paid for the same amount of work. It is true for all branches of economy. The gender pay-gap is measured as the difference between average gross hourly earnings of males and females as a percentage of average gross hourly earnings of males.

$$\text{Gender pay-gap} = 100\% \frac{(\text{Gross hourly earnings of males} - \text{gross hourly earnings of females})}{\text{Gross hourly earnings of males}}$$

**The largest pay-gap of men and women among technicians and associate professionals**

Taking into account that for the sum of all occupations the gender pay-gap was equal 16% for the European Union in 2002 and reached 24% in Estonia in 2002 as well in 2004 it is somewhat surprising to find out that the pay-gap among professionals (Table 2.7) is noticeably higher. At this point it is convenient to remind that respect to indicator under consideration Estonia is an outsider in Europe. In 2004 only Cyprus was showing higher value — 25%. As for the Latvia and Lithuania their gender pay-gap was equal to the European Union mean value. But Finland, Germany and United Kingdom had as well the result above 20%.

Considering narrower groups of occupations the positive tendency is recognisable — in all groups the pay-gap is decreased during two-year period. In all, except in one. The hourly earnings of IT-professionals contingent consisting of mainly men within group with code 310 was in 2004 four times higher than the average hourly earnings of females within that group and this was the reason for increase in pay-gap.

Statistics from different areas are showing that there exists certain gender inequality among professionals involved in R&D in the European Union and as well in Estonia respect to the climbing up the career ladder or getting paid for the work. The reasons for the inequality must be looked for in historically developed gender system and gender ideology. All trends are showing the decrease in inequality though with lower pace the politicians are wishing for. It takes not one generation to make the number of female engineers equal to male one.

#### **2.2.4. Women in agriculture**

According to the data of the Structure Survey of 2005 Estonia had 90,850 employed persons in approximately 28,000 agricultural holdings. Family labour accounted for the main share (75.7%) of the labour force engaged in the Estonian agriculture, the permanent employees made up 15.8% and temporary employees 8.5%. Men accounted for 51.1% and women for 48.9% of the permanent labour force (family labour and permanent employees).

Family labour consists of the sole possessor, spouse of the sole possessor and other family members of the sole possessor.

The method of Labour Force Survey in the Structure Survey of agricultural holdings differs from the general method of Labour Force Survey. All persons who are at least 17 years old or have acquired the basic education and have participated in the farmwork within the last 12 months prior to the census moment are taken into account. The sole possessor and the spouse of the sole possessor are considered engaged also when they themselves are not directly involved in farmwork. The labour force calculation is also focused on holding — the labour force data per country are received as the sum of the data of the labour force of holdings. At the same time one person can be engaged in several holdings (e.g. work in the agricultural private limited company and also in one's personal holding).

The production unit which includes at least one hectare of utilised agricultural land or which has less than one hectare of utilised agricultural land and where the agricultural products are produced mainly for sale or the economic size of which is one European Size Unit (ESU) or more is considered the agricultural holding.

According to the data of the Structure Survey of 2005 Estonia had approximately 28,000 agricultural holdings. 10,257 agricultural holdings of the latter (37%) had the woman manager. The agricultural holdings with the women managers had 17% of the agricultural land in use and these gave 16% of the total standard income<sup>a</sup>.

#### **Women manage small agricultural holdings**

The major part, 83% of women managers of agricultural holdings managed the holding, the economic size of which was below 2 ESU<sup>a</sup>; i.e. the holdings where the agricultural products are mainly produced for own use. The number of such agricultural holdings exceeds 21,000 in Estonia, 16% of the utilised agricultural land is in their use and they provide 13% of the total standard income (Table 2.8).

#### **55-year-old and older women managers are characteristic of the Estonian agriculture**

It is characteristic of the Estonian agriculture that the major part of the managers of holdings are 55-year-olds or older, 48% of men managers and 63% of women managers of the latter are 55-year-olds or older.

Male managers prevail in younger age groups, approximately two thirds of the managers are men and one third women. As to sex the differences start to decrease only by the 65-year-old parents.

Male managers aged under 35 years account for only 8% of the total number of male managers of the holdings and for 5% of the total number of female managers (Figure 2.13).

<sup>a</sup> The European Size Unit (ESU) corresponds to the value of total standard income of 1,200 euros (18,768 kroons). The total standard income is the difference of value of agricultural products produced in the holding and the special expenses made for its production which is calculated from the growth surface of agricultural crops, number of animals and proceeding from the coefficients of the total standard income.

**Male managers have better agricultural preparation compared to females**

61% of male managers of holdings have only practical experience and 26% are with full preparation, at the same time when 77% of female managers have only practical experience. Only 16% of female managers have full preparation.

The family labour involved 68,781 employed persons in 2005. The share of males and females in family labour is equal (50.3% and 49.7%, respectively). The family labour accounted for 21% of persons aged 65 and older.

In 2005 14,377 employed persons worked permanently in all holdings. Men accounted for 10 percentage points more of the permanent employees than women (55% of men and 45% of women).

The permanent labour consists of the family labour force and permanent employees.

The average working time of permanent labour force was 43.1% of the annual full working time, including 44.6% by men and 41.5% by women. As to the age groups no significant difference exists in the average working time of men and women, remaining always lower as to women and growing by ageing of the employees up to the age of 64 years. Since 65 years of age the average working time starts to decrease. The men and women aged 55–64 contribute most in time. The difference is twofold compared to the youngest age group (under 25-year-olds) (Figure 2.14).

### 2.2.5. Lifelong learning

If school has been finished and worklife starts, the learning changes from the main activity into ancillary activity. The wish of the people is to develop themselves is very different by persons and the possibilities also vary in many ways. The contemporary fast technological development in the companies though causes the need to train oneself and one's skills continuously. In case of in-service training the interested persons can choose many ways how to do it. The choice depends only on training need and finances. The lifelong learning involves several training measures, starting from the level studies, i.e. continuation of educational path at the next level up to the conferences and seminars.

The Labour Force Survey conducted in Estonia in 2005 studied mainly the participation in the in-service training courses, which also is the most common method of professional development. The survey observed the latest period, i.e. the last four weeks when the respondent participated in the in-service training courses.

In 2005 2.1% of working-age population attended the courses within the last four weeks, i.e. 21,700 persons aged 15–74 as estimated which is about 2,500 less than in the previous year and by 9,700 less than in 2003. Women were more active self-developers, their number of participants was twice the number of men.

The participation in in-service trainings indicates the decreasing tendency within the last three years, but the rises and falls have been in the activity of attending the courses also in the previous years.

**The number of women with higher education participating in the in-service training is twice the number of men**

As to the educational level, the share of the persons having finished 1–6 grades of the persons attending the courses is twice smaller than in case of the persons with higher education, but no difference exists as to sex. The differentiation of men and women starts from the graduates of the secondary education and this is especially high between the men and women with higher education, where twice more women with higher education than men participated in the in-service training (Figure 2.15).

These were mainly the professional courses which were attended by 56% of all participants. The courses related to the hobbies were at the second place which were attended by 23% of all participants. Thereby it is significant that the number of women having attended the professional courses and conferences exceeds the number of men approximately three times, then the courses related to the hobby were attended more or less equally by men and women within the last four weeks. The conclusion can be drawn from here that men are more indifferent to the professional training and have no simple need to develop. A man finds the training necessary when the attendance of the training or the profit gained in the face of the improvement of the professional skills helps to meet its specific professional or

personal objective. The women, on the other hand, go to the training also in case the training is only self-developing.

Employed women accounted for the highest number of the participants in the courses within the last four weeks, i.e. approximately 12,000 persons, mainly the salaried employees (94%). In case of men the share of salaried employees was even higher — 98% (Table 2.9).

**Farmers attend in-service training the least**

The most active participants in in-service training are the residents of the city. Urban women accounted for 37% of those having trained themselves recently, i.e. the highest number, 27% of the participants in the courses were rural women. Urban men accounted for 20% of the participants and rural men the least, only 15%. As no differentiation has been made between the persons residing in the country near the city and the persons farther from the centres, it could be assumed that training was more accessible for the persons residing near the cities. A number of new residential districts have been built only to the capital city, Tallinn, to the districts near the city within the last 5 years, the residents of which are still daily connected with the city due to the job and acquaintances. The activities of the training companies and institutions are carried out mainly in the cities, i.e. where most of the potential clients have been concentrated (Figure 2.16).

**Two thirds of women deal with independent learning mostly on the basis of libraries and scientific literature**

Independent learning is dealt with as one form of the lifelong learning. If to review in which way the men and women acquired new knowledge independently without the help of the training companies, the differences are specified as to the studying methods. For example, independently studying men like more the acquisition of new knowledge with the help of the internet and computer programmes (51%) than women, but the seeking for information from the library is quite an unpopular method for them (32%). Independently learning women find necessary information for themselves from the libraries and scientific literature and this is the most common studying method among women. Two thirds of them completed their knowledge in the mentioned method (68%).

*The part of lifelong learning of the Labour Force Survey carried out in 2003 in the European Union dealt with the participation in in-service training in all former and candidate countries of the EU. The participation of the persons aged 25–64 was reviewed in various studying activities, both in level studies, training courses and self-training in other methods. The results provide quite a varied overview of the self-development of the Europeans.*

In Estonia women have traditionally major interest towards studying which is expressed both in the level education and in-service training. On the other hand the participation rate of men is higher in almost half of the countries (12) in the European Union and in the remaining thirteen countries the share of the women is higher. The highest difference for the benefit of men is in France where 55% of the men of working-age complete their knowledge in some way, but 44% of the women of working-age participate in self-development. Italy, the Netherlands, Cyprus, Belgium, Czech Republic, Greece, Slovakia, Germany, Luxembourg, Malta and Portugal follow. The participation rate of women is the highest in Ireland where 53% of women and 44% of men of the working-age population deals with self-development. The predominance of women is also higher in Lithuania, Latvia, Finland, Sweden, Estonia, Poland, Slovenia, Austria, Hungary, Spain, Great Britain and Denmark.

To sum up, the most eager-to-learn persons are the Austrian citizens, followed by Luxembourg and Slovenia. The studying interest of Estonians is below the average of the European Union.

### 2.3. Gender pay gap

In 2000–2005 the growth of nominal and real net wages and salaries has been slightly slower than the rise in the corresponding gross wages and salaries. The comparison of the average and the median net wages and salaries (in 2003 56,658 and 44,412 kroons, respectively) indicates that the median net wages and salaries accounted for 78.4% of the average, i.e. the annual median net wages and salaries were 12,246 kroons smaller than the average net wages and salaries.



**The gross hourly wages and salaries of women are 24% lower than the gross hourly wages and salaries of men**

Similarly to all other EU countries, the gross hourly wages and salaries of women with full and partial working time in Estonia in 1994–2004 remained lower than the respective wages and salaries of men (Figure 2.17). But in Estonia the gross hourly wages and salaries of women have been about 10 percentage points lower than the gross hourly wages and salaries of men within the total mentioned period than on an average in EU25 countries, in 2004 the salaries of men and women differed in Estonia and EU25, (24% and 15%, respectively) (Gender 2006). Estonia is one of the five EU countries besides Cyprus, Slovakia, Germany and England where the gross hourly wages and salaries of women have been over 20% lower than the gross hourly wages and salaries of men. Wages and salaries difference of men and women in Malta, Portugal and Belgium has been the smallest (4–6% in 2004).

Regardless of the outstanding disproportion in the salaries of men and women, the surveys have indicated that the difference of salaries by gender is characterised by the decreasing tendency (Rõõm and Kallaste 2004, Viies 2004). The decrease in difference in salaries is caused mainly by the structural changes at the labour market, just these economic sectors have increased where women have been most engaged. The slowness of decrease in salary differences results in most part from the fact that in the economic sectors and professions where the women work the salaries are lower than in the ones the men are in majority. T. Rõõm and E. Kallaste (2004) have indicated in their assessment on the salary differences of men and women at the Estonian labour market that one third of the salary differences can be explained by the difference of the human capital and jobs of men and women, but two thirds cannot be explained by these factors and for the decrease of the salary differences attention should be paid just to the ungrounded reasons of salary differences.

**Pay gap between men and women is larger in the younger age groups**

The salaries of men and women differ to a large extent depending on the age, education, field of activity and profession, labour status and district<sup>1</sup>. Different from the situation of most EU countries regarding the connection of salary difference and age where the pay gap expands by ageing, the difference of the average salary of the net year of men and women in Estonia in 2003 was the highest in the younger age groups (Figure 2.18). The salary of women was the lowest compared to that of the men in the age group of 30–34 years, differing by 38.6% and from the age group of 45 years and older the salaries of women were smaller than the salaries of men less than 30%. One essential reason could be provided — younger women are more related to the family obligations than men and also engaged to the larger extent with part-time work (in 2004 10.4% and 8.0%, respectively).

The salary difference was the smallest (16.3%) in the age group of 60–64 years. The comparison with the average salary level indicates that in 2003 the net salaries of 45-year-olds and older women accounted for the greater part of the average than the salaries of men in the same age. In the age 60–64 the salaries of women accounted for 87.5% of the average salary level and the salaries of men only for 72.6%.

**Women with the tertiary educational level earned 40% less than men with the tertiary educational level**

The positive connection between the salaries and educational level of both men and women is notable in all EU countries, whereas men earn more than women in all educational levels. The situation is also similar in Estonia, but the salary differences resulting from the educational level are considerably sharper. In 2003 women with the tertiary educational level earned 39.9% (21% on an average in EU countries) less than men with the same educational level and only 30.6% more than men with the basic education (46.8% more than women with the basic education) (Figure 2.19). Thereby the salary of men with tertiary educational level was 2.4 times higher than the salary of men with the basic education. In 2003 the net salaries of men and women having acquired the vocational education after the basic education (the salaries of women accounted for 92.8% of the salaries of men) differed the least and the salaries of men and women having acquired the vocational education with general secondary education (respectively 59.7%). The data of 2003 indicate that the salaries of men compared to the salaries of women are more closely related to the acquired educational level. The mentioned tendency, also the increased demand for the labour force with higher education at the labour market has obviously had an impact on the

<sup>1</sup> To characterise differences in wages and salary levels by age, education, economic activity, occupation and labour status of males and females, three main data sources have been used: the results of EU-SILC Survey for the year 2003, the data of the Labour Force Survey for 1995–2005 and wages and salaries statistics of Statistics Estonia (wages by occupational group).

rise in the educational level of men. The proportion of women with the tertiary educational level of the labour force is still higher of the men (respectively 39.2% and 24.8% of the persons aged 15–74), but in 2000–2005 the proportion of men with the tertiary education has increased more than that of women (2.7 and 2.4 percentage points, respectively).

The changes in the difference of salaries of men and women depending on the acquired educational level were notable in the years 2000–2005. The difference decreased by 0.9 percentage points between the salaries of men and women having acquired the secondary education, whereas most as to the general secondary education (by 6.6 percentage points). The difference increased between the salaries of men and women having acquired the tertiary (by 3.2 percentage points) and primary level education (by 9.6 percentage points), especially in case of the ones having acquired the vocational secondary education (by 9.7 percentage points). The gross wages and salaries of women compared to the average has decreased in the years 2000–2005 regarding both the secondary and tertiary educational level and slightly increased in case of the primary and lower educational level.

In the last decade the representatives of the three major groups of occupations have received higher than the average wages and salaries — legislators, senior officials and managers, professionals, technicians and associate professionals, and in 2005 exceptionally also craft and related trades workers. Thereby about three times more salaried female employees than salaried male employees work as the clerks and service workers and shop and market sales workers; twice more work as technicians and associate professionals and professionals. At the same time approximately half (48.7% in 2004) of the salaried male employees work as craft and related trades workers and plant and machine operators and assemblers; 13.1% (8.0% of the salaried female employees) work as legislators, senior officials and managers. Although the gross hourly wages and salaries of women in all nine major groups of occupations in 1995–2004 were lower than the gross hourly wages and salaries of men, major changes can be noted in the difference of the gross hourly wages and salaries of men and women (Figure 2.20).

**The smallest pay gap of men and women is in plant and machine operators and assemblers**

In 1995 the gross hourly wages and salaries of female plant and machine operators and assemblers accounted for the major share (88.5%) of the gross hourly wages and salaries of men, in 2004 the salaries of the female skilled agricultural and fishery workers accounted for 84.4% of the gross hourly salaries of men, whereas the representatives of this occupation accounted for only 1.3% of the salaried female employees. In 2004, the wages and salaries of female technicians and associate professionals (in 1995 the hourly salaries of service workers and shop and market sales workers — 61.9%) were the lowest compared to the salaries of men (68.1%). Compared to 2000 the proportion of the wages and salaries of women had increased by the year 2004 as to the salaries of men in the major groups of occupations of service workers and shop and market sales workers (6.6 percentage points), of legislators, senior officials and managers (5.4 percentage points), of professionals (4.3 percentage points) and of elementary occupations (1.6 percentage points). In 2004 the wages and salaries of women accounted for the highest share of the salaries of men (85.1%) in craft and related trades workers' major group of occupations, and the smallest share (60.7%) in technicians and associate professionals' major group of occupations.

**Eight out of the sixteen main economic activities ensure higher average gross wages and salaries — but women work in the fields of activities where the salary level is lower**

According to the data of wages and salaries statistics eight out of sixteen main economic activities ensured higher than average salary in 2005: forestry; construction; mining and quarrying; transport, storage and communication; electricity, gas and water supply; real estate, renting and business activities; public administration and defence, compulsory social security and financial intermediation. Approximately half of the salaried female employees (45.2%) worked in the field of education (15.8 of the salaried female employees), in trade (12.4%), in health care and social welfare (11.0%), in hotels and restaurants (4.0%) and in financial intermediation (2.0%). Thus the women work mainly in the sectors where the level of salary is lower than the average. The exception is financial intermediation where the level of salary is still the highest compared to the average, but by the year 2005 the difference has considerably decreased compared to the other fields of activities. The salaries of women were the highest in 2000–2005 in financial intermediation (27% higher of the average in 2005), in addition to this field of activity the salaries of women exceeded the average level of salaries only in public administration and defence. The salaries of women have been the lowest (60–70% of the average) in hotels and restaurants within the whole

period under observation. As men are engaged in the fields of activities where the level of salary is higher than the average, then in 2000–2005 the salaries of the men were lower than the average only in one economic activity — agriculture, hunting and forestry where in 2005 the salaries accounted for 90% of the average.

In 2003 the net annual wages and salaries of women were not higher than the salaries of men in any economic activity. The net annual salary of women accounted for the largest share (84.9%) of the net annual salary of men in agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing (Figure 2.21), but in this economic activity only 2.5% of the salaried female employees were engaged in 2003.

In addition to agriculture, hunting, forestry and fishing the proportion of the wages and salaries of women in construction and other community, social and personal service activities were 80% higher than the salaries of men. The salaries of women in wholesale and retail trade, real estate, renting and business activities did not amount even to 60% of the salaries of men.

The net salaries of female sole proprietors accounted for higher part of the net salaries of male sole proprietors than net salaries of the salaried female employees of the net salary of the salaried male employees, 82.0% and 69.9% respectively in 2004. The salaries of women have been higher than average in 2000–2005 only in the public sector in 2003 and 2005, at the same time the salaries of men have been lower than average only in working in local government in the mentioned years.

**Wages and salaries of women in North-Eastern Estonia account only for 62% of the Estonian average gross wages and salaries**

In all Estonian regions (Northern, Central, North-Eastern, Western and Southern Estonia) except Northern Estonia the salary level has been lower than the average during 1995–2005. The gross salaries of women have been also lower than the average gross salaries in all regions within this period, excl. in 2000–2002 when the gross salaries of women reached 100–101% of the average gross salaries in Northern Estonia. The wages and salaries of women have been the lowest compared to the average (62% of the average gross salary in 2005) in North-Eastern Estonia. The gross salaries of men have also been lower of the average just in the North-Eastern Estonia, but accounted still for the largest share of the average compared to the salaries of women and reached 94% of the average in 2004 (86% of the average in 2005).

### **Distribution of wages and salaries**

**Two thirds of the women are in the first quintile, two thirds of men in the fifth quintile**

The data of 2004 on the distribution of salaries are in accordance with the theoretical viewpoint that the salaries are divided considerably more unevenly than income, the division of which the transfers help to unify. If the net salary of the salaried employee belonging to the first salary quintile of the division of net salary was 7.3 times smaller than the net salary of the salaried employee belonging to the fifth quintile, then the net income differed in the respective income quintile only by 5.5 times in 2004 (Household... 2005). The gender aspect has a significant role in establishing and dividing the salary level (Wilder et al 1999). The proportion of women in the first quintile of the salary division (66.8%) is twice higher than that of men, thereby the fifth salary quintile is described by the opposite relation (the women accounted for 33.3% and men 66.8%). The mentioned fact is the main reason with which the high inequality of the division of salaries can be explained, as provided above the salaries of women are considerably lower than the salaries of men on the basis of all features observed. The first income quintile has more older people (46.8% and 33.6%, respectively), secondary education (76.3% and 43.7%, respectively), blue-collars (74.3% and 27.6%, respectively) and salaried employees of primary sector (8.5% and 3.2%, respectively) than in the fifth income quintile. The high proportion of women in the combination with the high share of the older people, lower educational level, blue-collars and people working in the primary sector creates the low salary level in the first salary quintile. The situation is reverse in the fifth salary quintile which involves more men, up to 44-year-olds, with tertiary educational level, white-collars and salaried employees of secondary and tertiary sector.

**Twice more men than women earn the gross salary of over 10,000 kroons**

In 2000–2005 the division of salaried male and female employees working full-time to the groups of gross salary has considerably changed. In 2005 the proportion of women earning more than 5,000 kroons was 2.4 times higher and the proportion of men 1.9 times higher compared to 2000, accounting for 35.8% and 55.5%, respectively, in 2005. Although twice

more men than women earned the gross salary of over 10,000 kroons (14.3% and 6.6%, respectively), the proportion of women in this salary group had increased faster in 2000–2005. At the same time 3 times more women than men earned lower salary than the minimum of 2005 (2,690 kroons).

The decrease in salary differences of men and women has a significant role in changing the attitudes in labour market behaviour. The application of the principle of gender mainstreaming and the assessment of impacts from the gender aspect (*Impacts 2004*) in all political sectors, especially raising the administrative capacity in implementing the gender equality and horizontal policy, should create the basis for changing the attitudes in labour market behaviour which in its turn would take to the harmonization of the salary levels of men and women.

## 2.4. Income and poverty

*Income includes the income from salaried work and entrepreneurship, property income, income from lease of land and other property, repayments of income tax, different social transfers (old age pension, child benefit, etc.) and the regular payments received from other households. The payments of income tax, regular payments made to the other households and the tax paid on the property are deducted from the received sum. The annual equivalent net income has been considered while talking about income. This is the annual net income of the household that has been divided with the sum of equivalence scales of household members. The equivalence scales have been fixed for the household members depending on their age and they are used for the purpose that common consumption of the household is taken into use. Thus this is the income of the household per consumption unit or the consumer.*

In 2003 the average annual income was 50,763 kroons a year, i.e. 4,230 kroons a month.

The average income of men and women aged 25–64 was higher than the Estonian average. The average income of men was 55,784 kroons a year, women had it approximately 2,000 kroons lower — 53,976 kroons a year. The median income of men, of which half of the people receive lower and half of the people higher income, was 44,943 kroons and in case of women 43,105 kroons a year.

### Income by quintiles

*The division of income in the society can be better observed by the quintiles. For the finding of the latter the people are divided by income into five equal parts so that the first quintile includes one fifth of the persons with the lowest income and the last fifth quintile includes one fifth of the people receiving the highest income.*

In 2003 the average income in the lowest quintile was 15,573 kroons a year and 111,471 kroons a year in the highest quintile (Figure 2.22).

**The division of income of men is uneven: the income is either high or very low**

The quintile-based approach indicates that the division of income of men was more uneven than that of women. Most men and women belonged to the last quintile, thus the average income of the persons aged 25–64 was 111,471 kroons a year, i.e. 9,289 kroons a month. The men receiving the higher income were relatively more numerous both in the fourth and fifth quintiles. Two last quintiles involved 47% of men and 45% of women. The first quintile had slightly more men than women. The second quintile included least people in case of both sexes. Thus the people aged 25–64 belonged rather to the extremes, their income was either very high or very low. This tendency was more notable among men. The women were more evenly divided by income. Compared to men, relatively more women belonged to the middle and less to the extreme quintiles.

The higher difference of income of men can be noted also when the average income received in different quintiles by men and women are observed. In addition to more unequal division of men between the quintiles, the men in the lower quintiles received lower income than women and higher income in the highest quintile. The average income of women received in the first quintile was 15,000 kroons and in case of men 14,061 kroons a year.

The men belonging to one fifth receiving the highest income received on an average 113,938 kroons a year, the average income of women was 2,100 kroons lower.

### **Income by type of household**

**No big differences between the income of men and women in case of couples with children**

By observing the people aged 25–64 by the existence of children and cohabitation it occurs that the income of men and women has no major differences by the type of household. This is understandable as the equivalent income is under observation that is equal for all members of households. Thus major sex differences exist just among the people living alone. In order to prove the fact that it is hard to cope alone the average income was the lowest in the households consisting of one single parent aged under 65 or a person living alone. Slightly higher, but still under the Estonian average salary, income was received by men living alone — 45,082 kroons a year. The average income of single women was 1.2 times lower of the latter. The income lower of the Estonian average was received by men and women living as a couple with minor and adult children and with three or more minor children. The highest income was received by the people who lived in the household of the couple with one minor child. The average income received by them was 1.6 times higher than in the household of the couple with three or more children. Even more, this was 1.5 times higher than by the single men and 1.8 times higher of the income of single women. The higher than average income was also received in the couples without children and with two children, also in other types of household (e.g. in the households of several generations) (Figure 2.23).

### **Income by education**

By examining the educational level of men and women it is noted that in case of men the differences in income depending on education were major than these of women. The average income of men differed 2.3 times in case of highest and the lowest education. In case of women this difference was 1.8 times.

**The average income of men with the highest educational level is 1.7 times higher than the Estonian average**

The men and women with the basic or lower educational level received lower than average income. In case of the lowest educational level the amount of income depended not on sex, being 36,944 kroons in case of men and 37,216 kroons a year for women. In case of secondary educational level (vocational education on the basis of basic or secondary education, secondary education, vocational secondary education on the basis of the basic education) the average income of men was 1.1 times higher and in case of tertiary level (higher or vocational secondary education on the basis of secondary education) it was 1.2 times higher. In case of the highest educational level the average income of men was 1.7 times higher than the Estonian average, only 1.3 times among women (being 82,243 kroons in case of men and 67,715 kroons in case of women a year). The income of men with secondary educational level was at the same level of the Estonian average, the income of women was slightly lower than the average (Figure 2.24).

The income of men and women was not considerably different as to the residential district. The lowest income was received by the persons aged 25–64 living in North-Eastern Estonia, the highest income was in Northern Estonia. The average annual income of men in Northern Estonia was 69,668 kroons and that of women 66,466 kroons. The average income received by men in North-Eastern Estonia was 1.8 of it and 1.7 times lower as to women. The greatest difference in income received by women and men occurred in North-Eastern Estonia, men received approximately 4,500 kroons higher annual income (50,967 kroons) than women. The men and women living in urban areas received 1.3 times higher income than those living in rural areas.

The greatest differences on an average income were by the women and men aged 25–34. This age group had also the highest income. The average annual income for men was 63,239 kroons and 58,424 kroons for women. The income was the lowest among the persons aged 55–64 (1.2 times lower than the income of persons aged 25–34). The average income of women aged 45–54 was higher than by the men of the same age (54,260 kroons and 51,301 kroons a year, respectively).

## Poverty

*The persons whose equivalent income is below 60% of the median income of the country are considered poor. This limit is called the at-risk-of-poverty threshold.*

**Equal number of men and women live in poverty — about one fifth**

*In 2003 the at-risk-of-poverty threshold in Estonia was 24,073 kroons a year. Thus all people whose equivalent income was lower of this amount were considered poor. The amount of the poor is indicated as the share of these people, this is called the at-risk-of-poverty rate. In 2003 the at-risk-of-poverty rate was 20% which means that 20% of the people received lower income than 24,073 kroons. 21% of the women and 19% of men lived in poverty.*

*The at-risk-of-poverty rate was lower among persons aged 25–64 — 19%. The number of the poor among men was higher than among women in this age group. 20% of men received income below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, 18% of women. The lowest at-risk-of-poverty rate of men was among the men aged 25–34 — 16%. The least number of the poor women (17%) was among the women aged 55–64. The men and women were more or less in the same situation up to the age of 45, the at-risk-of-poverty rate of women was still 1–2% higher than that of men. After the age of 45 the indicator of men abruptly increased, being almost by 6% higher of that of the women. The at-risk-of-poverty rate among men aged 55–64 slightly decreased, staying still at the higher level than that of women (Figure 2.25).*

**3.6 times more men with primary and lower educational level live in poverty than men with higher education**

*The key factor for increasing the income is the educational level. The higher the acquired education, the more probable is the escape from poverty. The percentage of people living at-risk-of-poverty was the highest among the people aged 25–64 with the basic or lower educational level. In this case 31% of men lived below at-risk-of-poverty threshold, women were in slightly better situation, the corresponding rate being 28%. In case of men the changes caused by education were greater than that of women — 3.6 times more men with the primary and lower educational level lived in poverty than men with higher educational level. This difference was twofold as to women. Relatively more men than women with the lowest educational level lived in poverty. In case of higher education than the first level the at-risk-of-poverty rate of men was lower than that of women. The income below the at-risk-of-poverty threshold was received by 9% of the men with the highest education, the number of such women was 1.5 times larger (Figure 2.26).*

*No considerable differences between men and women existed in the Estonian regions. The highest at-risk-of-poverty rate was for both men and women aged 25–64 in North-Eastern Estonia — 28% and 25%, respectively. It was the lowest in Northern Estonia (13% for men and 12% for women). The poverty of men and women was the same in urban and rural areas. By 10 percentage points more people was living in poverty among the people of both sexes in rural areas. Single persons and single parents lived in the greatest poverty according to the type of household. 29% of single women received lower income than the at-risk-of-poverty threshold, such men accounted for 41%. 39% of single mothers lived in poverty. As the sample includes very few single fathers, so no generalisations could be made on the basis of the latter. The at-risk-of-poverty rates of men and women were practically equal in other types of household. The persons belonging to the households of the couple with three children lived still in bigger poverty than the others (at-risk-of-poverty rate 24%). The number of persons aged 25–64 living in poverty was smallest (13%) among the couples without children, where at least one member was under 65 years old.*

## 2.5. Lifestyle

*In the working and family years the budget, which provides the possibilities within the amount of which a household can afford expenditure, is important for the households. The level of income of the households of women and men is different, thus the households with the male head of the household have the better preconditions for coping than the households with female head of the household. The latter indicates the gender differences in consumption structure. Households with the male head of the household spend more on alcoholic beverages and tobacco than the households of the representatives of the contrary sex. The major difference lies also in the transport expenditure where the households with the male head of the household has a major share (11.8%) of the consumption expenditure than households with the female head of the household (9.9%). At the same time the*

expenditures on housing are higher in the households with the female head of household accounting for 17.4% of the consumption expenditure, 13.8% as to the male head of the household. The expenditures on health care also account for the major share of the consumption expenditure (3.8%) in households with the female head of the household compared to the households with male head. The general structure is influenced by smaller (and one-member) households of the elderly female households where the expenditures per household member are considerably bigger (Table 2.10).

The structure of income and expenditure of people depends on the lifestyle of the people (whether they live alone, with the co-habitee, with parents) and on which stage of life they are.

**Expenditures of men are larger on alcoholic beverages, tobacco and transport**

While examining the consumption expenditure in different life stages by age and sex, a conclusion can be made that the households with the female head of household spend more on food, housing, household and health. The major differences in consumption structure between men and women are in the consumption of alcoholic drinks and tobacco and transport expenditure. These types of expenditure have higher share in the consumption expenditure of the households with the male head of household in all age groups provided (Figures 2.27, 2.28).

The general structure of households include 6% of single persons with children (the youngest one under 18 years of age), couples with children up to 6 years (10%) and couples with children aged 7–17 (11%) are distributed more or less equally. Most of single persons with the youngest child under 18 are the households with the female head of household (94%), at the same time more than two thirds of the household heads are males in the households with the children up to 6 years and with the children aged 7–17 (77% and 74%, respectively) (Figure 2.29). As the head of household is defined by the higher income recipient, it is natural that more than two thirds of the households with minor children have a man as the head of the household. This phenomenon should be also taken into consideration while interpreting the data.

The level of expenditure of the households with the female and male head of the household is different and generally in favour of men. Only in case of the households of single parents with children the expenditure per household member is considerably lower in case of male head of the household compared to the female households in the same lifecycle. On the one hand this could be explained by the fact that there are few of such type of male households, approximately only 2,300, and thus the level of expenditure has also higher heterogeneity; on the other hand the money of child benefits, alimonies and supports, social aid received by men is also lower on an average per household member a month than in case of women. For example, women receive nine times more alimonies than single men with minor children.

Figure 2.30 provides an overview of the level of expenditure per household member a month in the households with female and male head of households.

**The consumption structure of households with children does not depend on the sex of the head of the household**

Although the level indicators of expenditures had certain differences, the consumption structure is similar in case of households with children as to life cycles, thus the structure is not determined by the sex of the head of the household, but rather by the mode of life by life cycles and existence of children (Table 2.11).

**The couple with pre-school children with the female head of the household has larger transport expenditure than the couple with the male head in the same life cycle**

Households with the male head of the household have usually higher share of transport expenditure, but households with children under 6 years of age can be provided as an exception where a woman is the head of the household, here transport expenditures are higher compared to the households with male head of household in the same life cycle and equal with the households with children aged 7–17. Thus it should be stated that taking the children to the kindergarten as well as fetching them and providing the household are still on the shoulders of women in households with pre-school children. Also the time spent together with children is different — men spend on an average over two hours less a day with pre-school children than women of the same lifecycle. This is due to the fact that the woman is often at home with small children and thus they have more time to spend together.

Table 2.12 observes households with female and male head of the household aged under 45 years and aged 45–64 living as couples, their consumption habits are observed as well. This is a life cycle having no children either for the reason that they have left home and

started to live separately or children have not been planned in the family. At the same time this is a life cycle where there are more financial resources to be used compared to the households in other life cycles. As previously stated that the consumption structure of households with children was similar, not depending much on the age of the children, the consumption structure of female and male households living as couples and having no children have more differences.

**The consumption structure of couples aged under 45 depends on the gender of the head of the household — households with female heads spend more on clothes, services and housing, households with male heads spend on leisure time almost as much as on food**

Households with female head aged under 45 living as couples have the dwelling of higher quality and expenditure made on housing higher. The difference is even 2.4 times compared to the households with the male head in the same life cycle. Households with the female head aged under 45 also spend more on clothes and footwear than households with the male head in the same life cycle and expenditures on goods and services (e.g. hairdresser, cosmetics, etc.) and on food are larger. Thus it could be stated that households with the female head aged under 45 contribute to their life standard as to the clothes, services and housing. Higher expenditure on food rather mean that more expensive and quality food products are purchased, not larger quantity in consumption is meant. Households with the male head of the household aged under 45 spend more on household (four times more than households with the female head of household in the same life cycle), almost three times (2.8 times) more on leisure time and 1.5 times more on transport. Thus in general it could be stated that the consumption culture in this life cycle is determined by the gender of the head of the household (Figure 2.31).

In the next life cycle, in case of the households of persons aged 45–64 the structure of households with female and male head of household has been harmonised, but has still preserved some differences (Figure 2.32).

Households with the female head of the household living as a couple aged 45–64 have more expenditure on housing than households with the male head of household in the same life cycle, but the difference remains within a couple of percentage points. At the same time the households with the female head of the household in this life cycle have higher expenditure on household and leisure time. The households with male head of the household aged 45–64 spend more on transport. If the expenses on transport are left aside, which first and foremost were higher in different life cycles in households with male heads, the behaviour of households in other cost items depends on age and sex of the head of the household.

**Women aged under 45 in other modes of life spend more on leisure time compared to the men in the same life cycle; in this life cycle men spend more on café and restaurant services than women**

By examining the consumption of households with other mode of life on the same age level by sex of the head of the household, it could be noted that the differences between the female and male households are smaller and the consumption structure more uniform. However, some of the behaviour models of female households are similar to the female households living as couples. For example, households with the female head of the household with other mode of life aged under 45 spend more on clothes and footwear, the share of expenditure on other goods and services is also higher. Comparing the female and male households with other mode of life aged under 45 with each other, the major differences are that the households with the female head of the household spend more on household and leisure time, the households with the male head of household spend more on food, alcohol, tobacco and transport, slightly more is spent also on café and restaurant services (Table 2.13).

The expenditure on transport of households with female head of the household with other mode of life are also higher than in households with the male head of the household (even 1.5 times). The same tendency is notable in case of the households with the female head of the household with children aged under 6 years. In case of the households with the male head of the household in the same life cycle more is spent on food, alcoholic beverages and tobacco. In case of the male households on this age level a considerably higher share of the consumption expenditure on alcoholic beverages and tobacco is especially conspicuous — even 2.5 times more than in case of the households with the female head of the household in the same life cycle.



## 2.6. Health

The share of injuries and poisonings among the causes of death continues the falling trend also among the men and women aged 25–29. If the men and women aged 25–29 have the difference of only 8 percentage points in the favour of men, the share of women in injuries and poisonings decreases very abruptly in the following age group, reaching 36.8% which is 26.6 percentage points lower compared to the corresponding indicator of men.

**Men aged 35–39 have six times more often injuries and poisonings as the causes of death compared to women**

The mortality rate of injuries and poisonings per 100,000 men or women indicates that in the family and working years this cause for men is one of the key ones as the causes of death. In the active working age by the persons aged 20–64, this indicator reaches the maximum by men aged 50–54 reaching 384 cases per 100,000 men, the women have the highest indicator in the following age group, 96 cases per 100,000 women. The difference in the mortality rate of men and women from the age of 35–39 is sixfold and decreases since the age of 45–49 years when the mortality rate of women increases (Figure 2.33).

**In the active working age men aged 50–54 and women aged 55–59 commit suicides most**

Among injuries and poisonings, one of the most frequent cause of death in Estonia is suicide. Suicides achieve the maximum rate as the cause of death among the men aged 20–64 in the years 50–54 by reaching 72 cases per 100,000 men. The indicator is 6 times higher than that of the corresponding age group of women. The suicide as the cause of death for women is the most frequent among the women aged 55–59 by reaching 12–15 cases per 100,000 women (Figures 2.34, 2.35).

Accidental poisoning is also a relevant cause of death of this class. Most of the latter in the age under 30 years are due to the drugs, as to older people — alcohol. The mortality in drug poisonings is the highest at the age of 20–29, in alcohol poisonings of men in the age of 55–59 and in the age of 45–54 as to women (Figures 2.36, 2.37).

**Men aged 25–29 die most in car accidents**

Transport accidents (Figure 2.37) are not as clearly related to the age as suicide and accidental poisoning. The difference between men and women is though important, the indicator of men is much higher than that of women. In case of men the death through transport accidents is most frequent among the persons aged 25–29 and 35–44 — 37–38 cases per 100,000 males. Women die most frequently through car accidents at the age of 20–24 (14 cases per 100,000 women) and among women aged 40–49 (10 cases per 100,000 women).

**More than one third of men aged 45–54 and almost half of women have long-term or chronic diseases**

The positive assessment given to the health among the persons aged 25–64 starts to decrease slowly and the number of these people who define their health as bad or very bad increases. The latter are still not outstandingly numerous among persons aged 25–34, but 6.8 % of the men aged 35–44 have given a negative assessment to their health and among men aged 55–64 this indicator is almost four times higher. The share of women having given negative assessment to their health increases even faster and differs about five times — 4.2% and 20.7%, respectively. Though (different from the young ladies critically minded as to their health in the puberty, as the survey carried out among the schoolchildren indicated) the percentage of women with bad or very bad health assessment among the middle aged is lower than the respective share of men, but increases in the age of elderly when the indicators of women with worse health assessment are higher than those of men.

Long-term diseases start to influence the life of people in the relatively young age. Slightly more than three fourths of the men and women aged 25–34 have told that they have no disease which could be considered long-term and thus would significantly influence their general health status. The situation is fast changing at the age group of 45–54 when the existence of long-term or chronic diseases is confirmed by more than one third of men and 45.7% of women. Starting from this age group the corresponding indicator of women is higher than that of men and therefore the share of women with bad or very bad health assessment is higher. Before becoming 65 years old 53.8% of men in this age and 59.3% of women suffer or have suffered from some long-term disease. Due to the causes related to health 7.9% of men aged 35–44 restricts their usual activities to a large extent. Such answer was not present to the statistically significant level among the women in the same age. Women mention that they should significantly restrict their usual activities in the following age group and more than 14% of women and 16% of men have essential restrictions among the age group 55–64. Slightly over half of the men and less than half of the women in this age are not at all restricted in their usual activities.

**The number of healthy life years is higher for women aged 25–64 compared to men**

The number of years lived healthy is higher by women aged 25–64 than by men, but approaches the numbers of men fast in the last sections of the age interval. At the same time when analysing the percentage division which indicates the relation of the years lived healthy to the average life expectancy, the same tendency occurs as regards the young people: women live longer, but the share of the years lived healthy of all the years lived is lower than that of men. The prevalence of long-term diseases starts to have an impact on the health status of women just in the second half of the middle age.

The injuries and poisonings or the consequences of other external causes (Table 2.14) are on the second place in the morbidity indicators of men aged 25–64 as well as the ones aged 0–14 and 15–24. Although the diseases of respiratory system are still on the first place among men and women, their incidence rate is no more as high as in the younger age. Similarly to men women have also the third, most frequently occurred group of diseases — the diseases of musculoskeletal system and connective tissues. The diseases of genitourinary system per 100,000 women aged 25–64 are on the second place of diseases.

In case of the health disorders the people receive necessary care. Approximately 90% of the Estonian population aged 25–64 have not experienced problems with the accessibility of a specialist or general practitioner. In case of dental care this percentage is slightly lower where about 80% confirm that they could use the services of a dentist in case of need.

The analysis of health behaviour indicates that the types of health harming risk behaviour, such as consumption of alcohol and tobacco products, increase among the people aged 25–64. At the same time the use of drugs is characteristic rather of the younger than the middle-aged people, but it could not be stated that this way of behaviour will be characteristic of the younger and will not be present in the next age groups.

**More than half of the men aged 25–54 are daily smokers; women smoke most in the age of 35–44**

More than 50% of men in the age of 25–54 call themselves daily as smokers, this share among men aged 55–64 is lower by ten percentages. In case of men in the middle age the prevalence of diseases of respiratory system is often related to the use of tobacco products. Women have confirmed two or three times less that they smoke daily. Women aged 35–44 whose indicator of health harming risk behaviour is the highest are more standing out — more than 27% of them smoke every day or almost every day. In case of both men and women the falling trend can be noted in the nineties and since 2000 the share of daily smokers has started to increase slowly again.

During 12 months preceding the Survey on Health Behaviour among Adult Population carried out in 2004 the relatively high number of men used alcohol once a week or more often than once a week — about half of them aged 25–64. The same applies to one fifth of women aged 25–64. An analyse on alcohol consumption in every separate 10-years age groups among persons aged 25–64 indicates that men unlike women do not reduce the frequency of alcohol consumption in older ages. More risky behaviour of men is clearly distinguishable in the Estonian society. All age groups include 25–27% of men who drink at least once a week six or more units of alcohol. Among women, the drinkers of such quantity once a week or more often in different age accounts for 3–5%.

The data of 2004 among persons aged 25–64 indicate the decrease in trying and using the illicit drugs compared to the people aged 16–24. In case of men the percentage of risk behaviour is higher and this just between the ages of 25–34 when every fourth man has tried a narcotic substance and less than four percentage of them calls themselves as users. These indicators decrease fast by older age groups and the men in the older middle age have no considerable contact with illicit drugs any more. The share of women is several times lower: 9.9% of women aged 25–34 have tried and no one claims herself as user of illicit drugs.

**Due to health almost half of men and approximately 70% of women have changed their eating habits**

Due to health almost half of men and about 70% of women aged 25–64 have changed their eating habits which is a surprising indicator. One can speculate that many mentioned changes are related to the recommendations and treatment instructions given by the doctors due to suffering from the long-term diseases. The women who have been on a diet for the purpose of losing weight account for about one tenth of those having changed their eating habits. In case of women in different age this indicator varies around 17.4% and 10.7%. The dieting occurs more often among younger women. Less than one of twenty of men have been on a diet for the purpose of losing weight.

**More than half of the men aged 35–44 are overweight**

*The body mass index indicates that more than half of the men aged 35–44 are already overweight, in case of women the same level is reached in the following age group, i.e. among those aged 45–54, but the share of overweight women aged 55–64 is 10% higher than the share of overweight men in the same age. Thus the average weight of women increases faster with age than that of men. At the same time women in the older age are more sportive than men, the difference in the shares in case of those aged 55–64 going in for recreational sport at least once a week within 30 minutes is almost 10% in favour of women. Every fourth of men in this age goes in for recreational sport once a week or more often. The results of 2004 indicate that women in the younger age also pay much attention to the recreational sport and people aged 25–44 account for more than 40% of those going in for sport at least once a week. In case of men aged 25–34 this indicator is on the same level, but by ageing the share of men going in for recreational sport indicates a considerable falling trend.*

### 3. YEARS OF THE ELDERLY

#### 3.1. Overall demographic situation

Either the age of 60 or 65 is regarded as the beginning of the old age, depending on the beginning of the retirement age of the country. This limit in the European Union and also in Estonia is the age of 65.

An estimated of 225,066 persons aged 65 and older lived in Estonia on 1 January 2006, who accounted for 16.7% of the total population. 150,448 of them were women and 74,618 men — 67% and 33%, respectively (Figure 3.1). The increase of the number of the elderly at the beginning of the 2000s is connected with the increasing longevity as well as with the numerous generations of immigrants who are reaching the old age.

Since the male mortality is higher than the female mortality, the number of elderly women is larger than the number of elderly men. Among other Member States of the European Union, Estonia is one of the Member States with the highest proportion of elderly women. The situation in Estonia is also comparable to the situation in Latvia and Lithuania where the proportion of women among persons aged 65 and older is of the similar size as in Estonia, 67% and 66%, respectively. The proportion of women among persons aged 65 and older was 59% as an average in the Member States of the European Union in 2003.

**There are nearly four times more women than men aged 85 and older**

The predominance of women is increasing with age (Figure 3.2). When there are 61% of women and 39% of men among persons aged 65–69, then there are 79% of women and 21% of men among persons aged 85 and older. Therefore, there are 4 times more women than men among persons aged 85 and older. The proportion of women among the elderly population of other Member States of the European Union is increasing with age in the same magnitude but the differences between men and women are not so big. The proportion of women among persons aged 65–69 is 54% as an average in the European Union (in 2003). The proportion of women among persons aged 85 and older is 72%. The proportion of women is higher in the new Member States and lower in the old Member States.

When the life expectancy at birth for women is slightly more than 10 years longer than that of the men (Table 1.2), then the life expectancy of men and women aged 65 does not differ so much any more (Table 3.1). The disparity in life expectancy is ever smaller among 80-year-olds. In 2005 the life expectancy of women was by 10.87 years longer than that of men, the life expectancy for women aged 65 exceeded the life expectancy for men only by 4.95 years. The disparities had decreased to 1.25 years among the persons aged 80.

**Men aged 65 and older are 2–3 times more married than women of the same age**

The share of widowed persons among men as well as among women is increasing with age. There are certainly more widows than widowers among the elderly. According to the data of Population Census 2000, there were 52% of widows and only 16% of widowers among the persons aged 65 and older. However, the percentage of widows among persons aged 85 and older was already 80 (Table 3.2). The conjugality of elderly men is considerably higher than that of women. 74% of men and only 42% of women aged 65–69 are legally married, but the difference is already threefold at the age of 75–79: 68% of men and only 20% of women are married. The disparity in the conjugality among men and women is increasing with age.

#### Ageing of population

Ageing of population is the increase in the proportion of the elderly among the total population. Ageing began with the demographic transition when birth rate and mortality started to decrease. The decrease in birth rates is the most important factor in population ageing but the mortality decline is also relevant. Life expectancy earlier was relatively low, as a result of which a small share of population reached the old age. A decrease in mortality brought along an increasing longevity as a result of which more and more people lived to a high age. The decrease in mortality was initially more significant precisely among infants and babies. Later, when infant mortality had declined to a low level, the decrease in mortality among the elderly also became more significant.

The demographic transition in Estonia began in the middle of the 19th century. The Estonian population indicated signs of ageing already in 1922 according to the data of Population

Census. According to the data of Population Census 1934, the population had reached the initial stage of ageing. Ageing of population stopped after the war, the reason was intensive immigration as well as mortality stagnation (Katus et al, 1999). Extensive immigration into Estonia ended in the 1990s and the proportion of the elderly started to increase quickly. Ageing was also speeded up by the fact that the generations having immigrated into Estonia after World War II reached the old age. The fast decrease in birth rates in the 1990s also played a role in it.

Figure 3.3. indicates that the proportion of elderly men and women has changed differently in time. When the elderly female population at the end of the 19th century was slightly over one percentage point higher than the elderly male population, then by the beginning of the 21st century their disparity has increased approximately to 10%. The reasons for that are the crises in population of the 20th century — the two World Wars, the Estonian War of Independence, however, development in mortality and immigration are also important. The noticeable decrease in the proportion of elderly men occurring in the 1950s was partly caused by the immigration into Estonia, because the share of young men was excessive among immigrants from other regions of the Soviet Union (Kulu, 2001). There were 26% of women aged over 60 among female population and 17% of men, respectively, in 2005.

The elderly do not form a uniform part of population. The Third and Fourth Age is often mentioned among them which are based on the life cycles of people. The difference among them is primarily caused by social coping of people. Persons of the Third Age cope well socially, yet they often do not go to work any more. On the other hand, persons of the Fourth Age often need outside assistance in performing their social activities, the expenditures on social welfare and health also increase noticeably in this phase of life. The Fourth Age is rather connected to the biological ageing of a person. The terms young elderly and oldest old are often used with regard to speaking about the Third and Fourth Age.

The Laslett indices describe the development of the Third Age. The Third Age has developed among population when at least half of the adult population probably live to the age of 70 (I70/I25). The proportion of survivors of the life table among birth generation is used as basis for calculation of the given index. The second indicator describing the development of the Third Age is the proportion of the elderly among adult population. According to the indicator, the Third Age has developed when one fourth of the population aged 25 and older are over 60 years old. The development of the Third Age is especially important among male population because the proportion of women is continuously increasing with age (Laslett 1993).

**In the coming years, at least half of the 25-year-old men will probably live to the age of 70**

Figures 3.4 and 3.5 indicate that the Third Age has already developed among the Estonian female population, the development of the Third Age among male population is occurring at the beginning of the 21st century. The trend demonstrates that at least half of the 25-year-old men will probably live to the age of 70 in the coming years (Figure 3.4). Also one fourth of the adult men are 60-year-olds and older during the last years (Figure 3.5). The earlier development of the Third Age among female population is conventional and explicable with the longer life expectancy for women. The Third Age developed already in the first half of the 20th century among some male population of the European countries such as in France, England and Sweden (Laslett 1993).

The proportion of oldest old or the proportion of those who belong to the Fourth Age is increasing among the ageing population. The Fourth Age is starting to form after the development of the Third Age. The beginning of it is the age of 80, sometimes also the age of 85. The share of women aged over 80 was 4.5% among the Estonian female population in 2005. The corresponding indicator for male population was 1.5%. The proportion of oldest old among elderly population is significantly higher. The proportion of persons aged 80 and older reached 22% in case of women and 13% in case of men among over 65-year-olds in 2005. The needs for medical care and social assistance increase fast with regard to the people in the Fourth Age.

### 3.2. Income and poverty

The people aged over 65 received an income lower than the average of Estonia. The average income of men was 1.2 times higher than that of women. The average income of men in 2003 was 41,650 kroons, the income of women was approximately 6,000 kroons lower — 35,619 kroons. The median income, of which half of people receive a lower and half of people higher income, was for men 34,624 kroons and for women 29,360 kroons per year.

#### Income by quintiles

**Over half of men aged 65 and older belong to the three highest quintiles**

By looking at the division of women and men aged 65 and older by quintiles it can be seen that men received a higher income than women because men were more likely to belong to higher quintiles. 51% of men and only 36% of women belonged to the three highest quintiles. Approximately half (41%) of women belonged to the second fifth in 2003, the number of men there was also the highest (36%). In comparison with the persons aged 25–64, there were few persons aged 65 and older in the fourth and fifth quintile. 17% of women belonged to the latter, the income was higher in case of men — 24% of men were in the last two quintiles. Different from the persons aged 25–64, the number of women receiving the lowest income here was higher than that of men (by 11 percentage points). The persons aged 65 and older were more likely to belong to the middle quintiles — pension as the main income was insufficient to receive an income higher than the average (Figure 3.6).

While observing the income of men and women aged 65 and older received in the different quintiles it can be noted that the average income received in a quintile here did not depend on sex, different from the income of persons aged 25–64. The average income of the last quintile was the exception which is higher in case of men. The average annual income of men in the fifth quintile was 99,115 kroons, it was 5,800 kroons lower for women.

#### Income by household type

The average income of men was higher than that of women in all household types. The people who lived together with other adults (and their children) received the highest average income. These were often households consisting of several generations where there were also persons aged under 65 whose income is usually higher than in case of people in the retirement age, which increases the equivalent income. Men living in other household types received an income in the amount of 50,759 kroons and women 44,715 kroons. Persons aged 65 and older without children living with a partner received a rather high income (in comparison with the average income of women and men aged 64 and older). Men and women living alone were in a far worse situation. The average annual income of men was 32,647 kroons which was almost 9,000 kroons lower than the income received by men living in a couple. The average annual income of women living alone was 27,929 kroons, the disparity with women living in a couple was approximately 11,000 kroons (Figure 3.7).

#### Income by education

**The disparity in average income is the greatest by the highest educational level in case of men and women aged 65 and older**

While observing men and women aged 65 and older by education it can be seen that income was rather similar in case of education lower than the higher or vocational secondary education (after the acquisition of secondary education). The average income of men with basic or lower education was 36,216 kroons in 2003, the average income of men with secondary education (vocational education on the basis of primary or secondary education, secondary education, vocational secondary education on the basis of primary education) was 40,928 kroons. The average income of women in case of primary education was about 3,400 kroons and in case of secondary education by 5,500 kroons lower. The disparity in income was greater among men when comparing the secondary and tertiary educational levels. Men with the highest educational level received an income which was by 1.3 times higher than the income of men with secondary educational level. The disparity was 1.2 times with regard to women with tertiary and secondary educational level. The disparity in the average income of men and women was the largest in the highest educational level. The average income of men with higher or vocational secondary education was 53,619

kroons, on the other hand, women with the same education received only an average annual income in the amount of 40,893 kroons (Figure 3.8).

The income of persons aged 65 and older was in general similar in different regions of Estonia. People in the Northern Estonia received the highest and people in the North-Eastern Estonia received the lowest income. The greatest disparities in income of men and women appeared in these regions. Men living in the Northern Estonia received a considerably higher income than women. The average annual income of men in that region was 50,564 kroons, women received an income which was by 10,000 kroons lower. The average income of women and men aged 65 and older living in the North-Eastern Estonia was by 1.4 times lower than in case of the income in the Northern Estonia. The type of settlement did not play a major role in income in case of women. Women living in urban areas received an income which was by 2,500 kroons higher than the income of women who lived in rural areas. The average income of men living in urban areas was by 8,300 kroons higher than the income received in rural areas (Figure 3.9).

### Poverty

**There are two times more women than men aged 65 and older living in poverty**

21% of persons aged 65 and older lived in poverty in 2003. Their income remained under 24,073 kroons. The relative number of women living in poverty was almost two times higher than the number of men in this age group. At-risk-of-poverty rate of men aged 65 and older was 13% and 24% of the women of the same age.

The poverty of women did not depend on the place of residence, 24% of women aged over 64 living in urban as well as in rural areas were under the at-risk-of-poverty rate. Men living in urban areas were in a far better situation than men living in rural areas — at-risk-of-poverty rate for men was only 11% in urban areas, the rate was 19% in rural areas. Income from paid employment is an important factor in getting out of poverty. 15% of men aged 65 and older living in urban areas and 6% of men living in rural areas received income from paid employment.

Various benefits paid by the state, especially the old-age pension, play an important role in case of income of persons aged 65 and older. In order to make sure whether these transfers are justified and how important they are in getting out of poverty, income before social transfers should be studied. By leaving the at-risk-of-poverty threshold unchanged, two different at-risk-of-poverty rates can be observed: at-risk-of-poverty rate before social transfers but besides old-age pensions and at-risk-of-poverty rate before all social transfers (incl. old-age pensions) (Figure 3.10).

**The effect of social transfers on getting out of poverty is almost two times greater in case of older men than in case of women**

The at-risk-of-poverty rate before social transfers but with pensions did not differ to a great extent from the rate after transfers. The number of women living in poverty was relatively higher than the number of men also in case of this indicator. The proportion of women with an income lower than the at-risk-of-poverty threshold increased by 6 percentage points among women and by 4 percentage points among men. The importance of pensions in getting out of poverty was much higher among persons aged 65 and older. By excluding all social transfers of income (incl. pensions), the at-risk-of-poverty rate of persons aged 65 and older increased by 63 percentage points, to 84%. The at-risk-of-poverty rate of women increased 3.5 times due to all social transfers, and 6.3 times in case of men. Therefore, the effect of transfers on poverty is almost two times higher for men than for women.

## 3.3. Lifestyle

### 3.3.1. Composition of household of the elderly

The term old age is conventional. Researchers of population regard men and women aged over 60 as elderly population, they are usually called the elderly. The formal pension age is approaching the age of 65, the age has become longer by ten years in case of women and five years in case of men since the beginning of the 1990s. The presently established age of 63 will probably remain valid as the retirement age in Estonia for a relatively long time. The mode of living of every elderly person depends on the person himself/herself to a great extent: health status, capacity and will for work, previous life history as well as composition of family and household.

**40% of women aged 65–74 live alone**

The composition of household is changing in the old age and the disparities are great in the composition of the household of men and women. Over 40% of women aged 65–74 live alone, the corresponding indicator of men is slightly over 10%. The disparity is increasing even more with age, over half of the women aged 75 and older and approximately one third of men of the corresponding age live alone. The situation in Estonia is not unique. For example, more than half of women aged over 65 live alone also in such countries as the Netherlands, Germany, Great Britain, also in our closest neighbouring countries Finland and Sweden. Men are more likely to live with a partner: over 60% of men aged 65–74 live with a partner and over half of men aged 75 and older, at the same time, only slightly over 10% of women aged over 75 live with a partner. A similar trend is also characteristic of the European Union where 60% of men aged over 75 live with a partner (only 30% of women). The share of men and women aged 65–74 living in other composition of the household (either with children or together with other relatives) is more or less equal, the same applies for over one third of women aged 75. Living as a couple helps the elderly to manage better and their living conditions are better than in case of the elderly who live alone (Figures 3.11, 3.12).

**Households of persons aged 65 and older living as a couple with the female head of the household spend more on leisure time**

**3.3.2. Consumption structure of the elderly**

The size of the hypothetical household is starting to influence the consumption structure of the elderly to the significant extent, as could be stated also in case of composition of household, elderly women are more likely to live alone in comparison with elderly men and as a consequence of that the level of expenditure of households of persons aged 65 with the female head of the household with other modes of life is higher per member because the size of household is the smallest in this life cycle. Observing the consumption structure of the elderly, it can be noted that the share of expenditure on food is increasing in the consumption structure with age. The share of expenditure is the highest in case of households of persons aged 65 and older living as a couple with a female head of the household, amounting to 36%, expenditures on leisure time are also considerably higher in comparison with households living as a couple with a male head of the household in the same life cycle. Expenditures on household equipment and operation are also higher in comparison with the households with a male head of the household in the same life cycle. The share of expenditure on transport has remained high in case of elderly households with a male head of the household. The share of expenditure on health is also higher in the consumption structure of the elderly.

**Expenditure on health is the highest of women aged 65 and older with other mode of life**

The expenditure of health was the highest in case of women with other modes of life (8%), expenditure of women was by 2.6 percentage points higher in comparison with men in the same life cycle, the reason for that lies in the fact that the share of women living alone is high among the women aged 65 with other modes of life. Expenditure on health of women and men living as a couple are similar, amounting to 7% of the consumption expenditure. The share of expenditure on housing is higher also in the consumption expenditure of women and men in other modes of life, amounting to one fourth of the consumption expenditure of women and to slightly over one fifth of the consumption expenditure of households with a male head of the household. Therefore, the expenditure on food and housing account for 54–57% of the consumption expenditure of women and men aged 65 with other modes of life, the share of expenditure of this kind is slightly smaller in case of women and men living as a couple, yet it accounts for 53–55% of the consumption expenditure. The share of expenditure on housing in the consumption expenditure is higher primarily in case of households with a female head of the household with different mode of life and the share is the lowest in case of the households living as a couple with a female head of the household, the disparity being as high as 7.4 percentage points. Table 3.3 provides a more detailed overview.

**One third of men aged 65 and older participate in the labour force**

**3.3.3. Cohesion of the elderly with the society**

The labour force participation rate of men as well as of women decreases from the age of 60ies: half of the men and 40% of women aged 60–64 participate in the labour force in their age group; approximately one third (27%) of men and about one fifth of women in the older age group 65–69 and one tenth (11%) of men and under one tenth (8%) of women aged 70–74. Although men are excluded from employment considerably earlier due to health and



their life expectancy is shorter, it must be noted that elderly men are more likely than women to do paid work. The employment rate of elderly men is higher in comparison with women of the same age, the employment rate of the men aged 65–69 is thus 26.1%, and of women by 7.4 percentage points lower or 18.7%. The employment rate for men aged 70 and older is 10%, for women 8.4%. Men and women aged 65 account for only 3.2–3.7% of the total number of employed persons.

The employment of the elderly also plays an important role, although the main sources of income of the elderly are pension and transfers. The older the elderly person becomes, the smaller is the importance of wages and the greater is the share of transfers, yet the possibility of the elderly to participate in community life and the existence of work colleagues are considerably more significant, this also increases the cohesion of the elderly in the society. Unemployment is lower among men as well as among women since the age of 60ies in comparison with the age groups 50–54 or 55–60. The peculiarity of the unemployment of the elderly is that it is considerably harder for them to find a new job (often it is hopeless) when they have lost their job. An elderly person is more likely to quit participating in the labour market rather than search for work intensively.

At the same time, it is characteristic of working that approximately half of the employed persons aged 65 and older already work part-time in that age. Women work more often part-time in comparison with men.

Men aged 65 and older living as a couple have most leisure time, an average of 7 hours a day, an hour and a half more in comparison with women of the same life cycle (Figure 3.13).

The disparity in leisure time of women and men in a different mode of life amounts to 50 minutes a day on the average.

**Women aged 65 and older spend three times more time on religious activities in comparison with men**

The use of leisure time of the persons aged 65 and older is different in comparison with the younger generations. Time for resting is increasing for women as well as for men with age. Women aged 65 spend an average of one hour on resting, they read books or magazines, newspapers on an average of one hour in a day and spend slightly over two hours and a half in front of the television. An average of half an hour is spent on listening to the radio, women less and men more than half an hour. Observing the use of leisure time of women and men aged 65, it can be emphasised that women spend three times more time on religious activities in comparison with men (going to the church). Women at this age level communicate more with their families. On the other hand, men spend more time on walking, fishing and hunting, picking berries and mushrooms in the forest.

The share of our elderly people who spend their old years at the retirement or care home is still low, accounting for only 2% among persons aged 60–79. The number of care home users is increasing among the persons aged over 85, amounting to 5% of the people of the same age. Therefore, it is characteristic of Estonian society that mainly family members take care of oldest old persons.

**Women aged 65 and older communicate with relatives more than men**

The connection to close relatives and friends and the possibility to communicate with them is important in the life of the elderly. It is important that communication is not carried out only over the phone, but that the elderly have the possibility to meet their close relatives and friends. 31% of men and 41% of women aged 65 have the possibility to meet their relatives with whom they do not live together. One fourth of men and women meet their relatives rarely and over one third of men and one third of women get together with their relatives very rarely. At the same time, 8% of men and 5% of women of that age do not have any relatives. Elderly people communicate considerably often with friends, neighbours or work colleagues. Over half of men and women aged 65 claim that they communicate with friends, neighbours almost every day or once a week. Approximately one fifth of men and women communicate rarely, an average of 17% of men and women communicate very rarely and the share of men and women with no friends, neighbours or work colleagues accounts for 7–8%. Therefore, there are no significant disparities in the communication pattern of elderly men and women; it can only be observed that elderly women are more likely than men to communicate with their relatives.

**Two thirds of women aged 65 and older have received assistance in housework**

Many elderly persons have difficulties in coping with housework, therefore receiving assistance is important. The disparity among elderly men and women is great in receiving free of charge assistance. One third of men aged 65 and older have received assistance and that mainly from their children or from friends and neighbours, but about two thirds of women have received assistance, first and foremost from their children and relatives, followed by neighbours and friends. Important disparity is largely caused by the composition of household mentioned previously where the number of elderly women living alone was several times higher than the number of men.

### 3.4. Health

**In the old age ischaemic heart diseases and cerebrovascular diseases are the causes of death among both men and women**

Diseases of the circulatory system are the most frequent causes of death for the elderly, followed by malignant neoplasm. Ischaemic heart diseases (myocardial infarction being a form of it) and cerebrovascular diseases (incl. strokes) are the most frequent among diseases of the circulatory system. Figures 3.14 and 3.15 present the mortality rates for different age groups. These are causes of deaths typical of elderly people, the mortality rate increases with age. It is higher for men than for women in all age groups, except for the mortality of persons aged 85 and older due to cerebrovascular diseases which is significantly higher for women than for men.

**Mostly men aged 80–84 die in transport accidents in the old age**

Deaths due to injuries and poisonings as deaths of external causes are high among persons aged 65 and older in the age group of 65–69, differing by 5.8 times among men and women in favour of men. The indicator of men amounts to 298 cases per 100,000 men, and only 51 cases per 100,000 women. The mortality rate of women increases in each subsequent age group, at the same time, in case of men it decreases. An abrupt increase occurs in case of men in the age group of 85 and older (277 deaths per 100,000 men). In this age group the main causes of death are injuries, accidental falls and suicide. There are 92 suicide cases per 100,000 men among men aged 85 and older and half as much cases among women yet the indicator is the highest in all female age groups, amounting to 48 suicide cases per 100,000 women. The disparity is also great with regard to deaths caused by transport accidents among elderly men and women (depending on the age group, 2–3 times in favour of men). Elderly men die due to transport accidents most often at the age of 80–84; the number is somewhat smaller among 70–74-year-olds.

Mortality due to malignant neoplasm is not to be connected to age one-to-one (Figure 3.16), the mortality rate for men in the age group 75–79 is slightly higher than the rate of the next age group — 80–84-year-olds. This is caused by high mortality of men due to malignant neoplasm of the respiratory system in the age group 75–79 (Figure 3.17). The indicator for women is the highest between 80–84 years. Development of malignant neoplasm of the respiratory system is strongly connected to smoking, therefore the connection with the age is typical of the causes of death related with risk factors. As men smoke more, the predominance of men is also greater.

The Survey on Health Behaviour among Estonian Adult Population conducted every two years among Estonian population includes people aged 16–64. The Estonian Health Interview Survey, the age distribution of the sample of which is wider including persons aged over 15, was conducted in 1996 and the next survey is planned for the period of 2006–2007. Some health-related issues are presented in the EU Survey on Income and Living Conditions (EU-SILC), which also includes the sample of persons aged 65 and older. Therefore, it is not possible to analyse more thoroughly the different aspects of the health behaviour of the elderly in Estonia at the moment and statistical morbidity indicators are main source of information.

**Over one third of men aged 65 and older and almost half of women regard their health as very bad**

Clear disparities continue to exist among men and women in this age group when analysing the health status which could also be observed already in case of younger people. The share of the women who rate their general health fair or bad and very bad is of the same size — 43.5% and 46.1%. Evaluations of men are higher: 36% of them regard their health as very bad or bad and 47% of men aged over 65 regard their health as fair. As a result of this, the share of healthy life years in the average life expectancy is higher among older men than among women. This trend has been analysed in a slightly longer period of time among

young people because though the average life expectancy at birth is shorter for men yet the share of healthy life years in it is greater than for women. Although men live a shorter time on the average than women, their quality of life is higher with regard to the health status and they suffer less from diseases with a significant long-term effect on health. That can be mainly explained by their shorter life expectancy due to which they are exposed to diseases during a shorter period. 70.5% of the elderly men mention the occurrence of long-term illnesses and over 10% more in case of women — 81.1%. In case of 30.6% of men and 39.55% of women, everyday activities are very much restricted due to health problems. More than one third of men over 65 and slightly over one fourth of women of the same age did not have to restrict their everyday activities at all.

**A 70-year-old man lives the next 3.23 years of his life years healthy**

The number of healthy life years of middle-aged women was numerically higher than the corresponding indicator of men, yet the share to average life expectancy was smaller. The numerical indicator of men increases at the older age in comparison with women. For example, a man who has become 70 lives the next 3.23 years of his life years healthy. A woman of the same age lives another 13.9 years on the average, 2.8 of which healthy. The disparity between healthy life years is 0.7 to the disadvantage of women in the next age group, the 75-year-olds. The structure of morbidity has somewhat changed in the old age, when comparing it to the most frequent diseases that the 25–64-year-olds suffer from. The distribution of the disease groups is relatively similar among the men and women aged over 65 (Table 3.4).

Injuries and poisonings or other health problems due to consequences of external causes are not at such a high place any more among morbidity indicators in comparison with younger age and especially among men. The diseases of the respiratory system are on the first place among men as well as among women, diseases of the circulatory system, diseases of the musculoskeletal system and connective tissue and various diseases of the eye follow in case of men. The two disease groups mentioned as last belong also to the top three of morbidity for women.

Older people do not regard accessibility of health care as problematic, because over 90% of women and men had the opportunity to see a family physician or a specialist when they needed to.

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