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Juha Antila and Pekka Ylöstalo:

Working Life Barometer in the Baltic Countries 1999

FOREWORD

The working life barometer describing the change in working conditions in the Baltic Countries will be published as a volume 214 of Labour Policy Studies, a series of studies of the Ministry of Labour. It continues the barometer started in Finland in 1992. In 1996 the working life barometer was used as a help to compare the changes in working life in Tallinn, St. Petersburg and Helsinki. Now the target group consists of all three Baltic Countries; this is the second time for Estonia.

The working conditions in the Baltic Countries have changed rapidly and therefore it is important to gain accurate information on the changes now and in the near future. The survey is a part of Finland's co-operation with the neighbouring areas. In order to have a reliable picture, a little more than 900 randomly chosen working people have been interviewed in each of the Baltic Countries. They have told about their working conditions and the changes in the conditions and they have also estimated the changes in the near future. The results form a reliable cross section of the situation in each country.

The development of the Baltic Countries has slowed down during the last couple of years. This is the most obvious in the changes of Estonian working life and the expectations of Estonian working people. Latvia has developed very evenly and more positive changes have occurred there than in the other Baltic Countries. Lithuania's strategies are a little different compared to Estonia and Latvia, and there have been less changes than in the other two countries.

Harri Skog Director-General

SUMMARY

The purpose of the Working Life Barometer of the Baltic Countries is to describe the state of working life and the changes in it in Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania. The research is a part of Finland's co-operation with the neighbouring areas.

The target group of the quantitative research consisted of working wage earners and entrepreneurs between the ages 16 and 64. The research material was collected between October and December in 1998. The sampling method was a structured face to face interview, carried out at the respondents' homes. More than 900 replies were received from every country.

The first part of the report consists of essays about each country. The essays provide a general picture of the present state of the countries and recent development. The second part of the report is based on the collected material. It handles the following themes: unionisation and bargaining, working time, salary and livelihood, conflicts, stress factors, work results and support, task autonomy and work satisfaction, labour market position, the change of the direction and future prospects.

The researched countries are superficially very similar, but this study shows that significant differences between the countries can be found. In Estonia, the working life along with the whole society has experienced sudden changes earlier than in the other Baltic Countries. Estonian working life was enjoying continuous development and optimism for a few years. However, the positive trend has stopped in recent times and Estonian working society has met with setbacks in different sectors of the working life. Latvia shows an even progress; there working life is developing towards modern procedures both in good and bad. Estonia and Latvia are in many ways very close to each other. Lithuania differs clearly from the other two countries in most points. In Lithuania, working life has changed very little and it can be assumed that there the modernisation of working life is still in the future.

Keywords: The Baltic Countries, quality of working life, transition of working life

PREFACE

The change in the quality of Finnish working life has been monitored yearly with the help of a working life barometer developed for the monitoring. In the middle of the 90's, working life in neighbouring areas, especially in so-called transition countries aroused interest. The working conditions there had not been studied. In 1997, the first comparative working life barometer was published. It compared three cities; Helsinki, Tallinn and St. Petersburg. The results of this comparative study proved to be very useful and the Ministry of Labour decided to continue the comparative study of working life quality and changes as a part of the collaboration with the neighbouring areas. This time, the Baltic Countries, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania were chosen to be studied. The Baltic Countries are a part of Finland's neighbouring areas, but Finland has very little information on working life and especially on working quality there with the exception of Estonia. This study helps to remove the gap in the knowledge.

During our work we have received support and professional comments from many directions. During the project we have co-operated closely with the Ministries for Social Affairs of each country. Local experts, authorities and representatives of both parties of the labour market have been a great help both in preparation and in analysis, we thank you all. We want to thank especially Malle Kindel, Ylle Papp, Gintare Buzinskaite, Jurgita Baltramiejuniene, Ineta Tare and Maris Linga for operating as local contact persons. We also thank Toomas Piliste, Juta Pupure and Alge Makulaviciene for writing the essays about the countries for the report.

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Helsinki, October 1999

Juha Antila and Pekka Ylöstalo

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INTRODUCTION

Working life and the changes in it form a sensitive indicator for the whole society's development. Economical and social statistics that are often used as indicators, provide useful information on macro level, but they seldom help in observing single, quality-related changes inside working life, not to mention the expectations for the future. For fulfilling this need, the Working Life Barometer was developed in Finland. With the help of the barometer, working life and the transitions in it have been observed in Finland since the year 1992.

There are two key words in the working life barometer, *quality* and *transition* of working life. The quality of working life refers to all working conditions, from the basic safety to the relationships between the persons at work. By monitoring the transition, descriptive information can be gained about the recent development, present state and expectations for the future.

In the present working life, personnel matters are emphasised and therefore accurate information about transition is needed. Thus the development and regulation of working life can be based on reliable data instead of general beliefs. Versatile comparisons enable problem and development areas and transition trends to be located. The central idea of the Working Life Barometer is to point out matters that need thorough handling by forms of discussions and seeking further information. This way the Working Life Barometer can promote the development of the working life quality.

THE SHAPING OF THE WORKING LIFE BAROMETER

The working life barometer is influenced by a so-called 'tradition of social indicators' (see Lehto, 1996). After the second World War a need of describing the social reality of societies was born in the western industrial countries. This social reality could seldom be seen in statistics. Various statistical ways of measuring this welfare, so-called social indicators, were developed. With the help of these social indicators, descriptions of the reality of life were produced in many different areas. These descriptions were also called social reports. The main purpose of these reports was to form a tool for states' regulations (Hartikainen, 1980; Allardt, 1998). Increased regulation policy of the state was a part of the development of a welfare state; social politics was developed to

protect people against the negative side-effects of capitalist growth. The idea was both to decrease social problems and to increase social cohesion and social capital in the society. Especially in the Nordic Countries, the social reports had a normative goal: to produce descriptive information about the real situation so that the decision-makers could act to improve the conditions.

It is as such a difficult and partly a controversial task to measure welfare. What should be measured and how? The social indicators movement was divided into two groups who emphasised different things. On one hand there was an objective school, that was strong in the Nordic Countries. It emphasised the measuring of living standards and conditions (e.g. income, property, health) when information was especially received on the material and economical life of the population. In the rest of Europe and in the USA a subjective school was strong. It emphasised more the individual's own experiences and opinions on his/her welfare. Due to these differences the harmonisation of social reports has not succeeded (Vogel, 1989).

A Finnish sociologist Erik Allardt has made a kind of compromise between objectivity and subjectivity. He emphasised both points of view in his analysis about welfare (Allardt, 1976). He formed a field of four with standard of living and quality of life on one axis (objective) and welfare and happiness (subjective) on the other axis. From these combinations Allardt formed three central dimensions of welfare: *having*, *loving* and *being*. *Having* includes matters concerning the living standard, *loving* means social relationships and *being* indicates possibilities to express oneself. Allardt's concept of welfare emphasises both objective and subjective points of view. It takes into account material and economical basics, social relationships and the individual's possibilities to express own ideas and activities (Roos, 1998, 25). Allardt's idea is very versatile and it can be summarised as follows: 'A being needs all things, which he/she feels bad without' (von Wright, 1984, 25-38).

Allardt's concept of welfare forms the theoretical basis or a sort of a metatheory for the Working Life Barometer. The Working Life Barometer studies matters concerning the standard of living (e.g. salary and livelihood), matters related to social relationships (e.g. unionisation) and matters concerning possibilities to express oneself (e.g. possibilities to influence). However, many themes of the

barometer have been born from a phenomenon in working life and have no connection to theories of needs.

WORKING LIFE BAROMETER IN THE BALTIC COUNTRIES

The working life barometer now realised in the Baltic Countries is a part of Finland's co-operation with the neighbouring areas. In 1996 the working life barometer was extended to co-operation with the neighbouring areas for the first time. Then material was sampled from Finland, Estonia and St. Petersburg area. As a final product a comparative study of three cities (Helsinki-Tallinn-St. Petersburg) called "Työelämän muutos Suomessa ja lähialueilla" (Rahikainen & Ylöstalo, Työpoliittinen tutkimus 179, Työministeriö, 1997) was published in addition to the Working Life Barometer of Finland. The study attracted plenty of attention both in Finland and in Estonia.

This research continues with the same ideas as in the study comparing the three cities. This time the countries of Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania are compared. Geographically the countries are near Finland, but the Baltic Countries with the exception of Estonia are relatively unknown in Finland. This research aims to increase the amount of information on these countries.

In this report Finland is only referred to as an example, not actually studied. The 'Baltic Barometer' differs from the earlier barometers also in other ways. Some themes have been changed and the levels of generality of the phenomena are also clarified in addition to the transition. Barometers often concentrate on measuring changes. The reason for this is the fact that people are very sensitive to changes of matters and conditions. For instance, the increase in possibilities to influence or in the threat of getting notice is seen very easily. But for example the fact how significant the possibilities to influence are and on which level they are is something that people have been used to, and in fact it can be very difficult to estimate the amount of possibilities to influence. On the other hand, it is almost impossible to interpret mere information on transitions, if the level of generality and frequency cannot be estimated even roughly. A very rare phenomenon may increase very quickly and the changes can be very big. Again, a very general matter cannot multiply even theoretically. For interpretative reasons, the measuring of levels and changes have been used parallel in many questions in the Working Life Barometer of the Baltic Countries.

The change of the study themes has partly been affected by the needs of the countries. In each of the countries, a local team of experts or a local contact person has participated in the project. These teams and persons have given 'internal' professional and current comments in the preparation stage of the research. The comments have been taken into account when forming the questions. The need of measuring the levels was seen important, since there were no data on the basic levels in many themes. In the Finnish Working Life Barometer the yearly study of the changes is very much based on the fact that the Quality of Work Life Survey by Statistics Finland documents regularly the generality and size (= levels) of the phenomena.

COLLECTING THE RESEARCH MATERIAL

This is a quantitative research. The sampling method was a structured face to face interview, carried out at the respondents' homes between October and December 1998. Both sampling and collecting was carried out by local market research institutes: Saar Poll (Estonia), Latvian Facts (Latvia) and SIC Market Research (Lithuania). The method was nation-wide sample designed by multistage stratified sampling. The aim of the sampling was to get at least 900 answers in each country (reached sample). In Estonia, the number of answers was 911, in Latvia 921 and in Lithuania 901. The results can be generalised to the whole country in question. A more specific description of the sampling, non-response and material representativeness is given in the enclosed technical reports of each country (appendix).

The target group consisted of working wage earners and entrepreneurs between the ages 16 and 64. Unemployed people were not interviewed. Since the question of language is very important in this kind of research, the inquiry form was translated to the national languages and to Russian. The original text was in English. The translations were checked by teams in each country and native speakers of each language checked the translations of the English and Russian versions. Naturally, the Russian version is the same in all three countries. All versions of the inquiry form are enclosed in the report.

STRUCTURE OF THE BOOK

The book consists of two parts. In the first part, background information of the Baltic Countries is provided in essays about each country. The essays are mainly descriptive texts written for persons who do not know much about these countries, there present situation and transition. The essays include information on economy, labour and income distribution and their purpose is to form a basis for the analysis.

The second part of the book is the actual working life barometer. It is divided into four sections. *Framework of working life* deals with the structure of working life. It studies unionisation, working time and questions of salary. The second section, *internal condition of working life*, consists of the following themes: conflicts, stress factors, work results and support, task autonomy and satisfaction with work. The third section, *working life in transition*, deals with the changes of working life seen from the individual's point of view. Finally, in the discussion section the transition is handled more extensively as a social phenomenon and the central matters of the research are summarised.

COUNTRY ESSAYS

ESTONIA

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Estonia is a small country in the eastern part of Europe on the Baltic Sea. Finland is its neighbour the north, in the south it borders on Latvia and in the east, on Russia. Although its area is small (45.2 thousand sq. km) Estonia is larger than such European countries like The Netherlands or Belgium. Having been born in the turmoil of World War I, Estonia has existed as an independent state for less than half of its life span. It was only in 1991 that the Soviet occupation, which had begun in 1940 and was followed by annexation of Estonia by force, terminated with the re-establishment of independence. Although social and economic changes started somewhat earlier (the period of *perestroika* in the Soviet Union), we can speak of real independence only since 1992 when the monetary reform was made and the Estonian kroon became the only legal tender. The Estonian kroon (EEK) was pegged to the German mark (DEM) at the exchange rate DEM 1 = EEK 8. In spite of the tumults of the world economy and much to the annoyance of sceptics, this exchange rate is still in force.

DEMOGRAPHY

As of 1 January 1998 the population number of Estonia was 1.454 million. Females outnumber males to a small extent (respectively 53 and 47%). Estonians make up 65% of the total population. Among the remaining part Russians prevail (28% of the total); however, for example Finns account for nearly 1% of the total population of Estonia. The urban population makes up 70% and the rural population 30%. Almost all rural dwellers are Estonian. Non-Estonians have concentrated mainly in towns, above all in the capital Tallinn, which is home for a third of the inhabitants of Estonia of whom about a half are non-Estonian. Another major area of non-Estonian population is the industrial region of Northeast Estonia, bordering on Russia, mainly its towns (Narva, Sillamäe, Kohtla-Järve). In this region non-Estonians constitute an overwhelming majority of the population.

The population of Estonia has been constantly decreasing since 1990, when it numbered 1.572 million. Migration processes have played and continue to play an important role in this. These processes underwent important changes in the early 1990s. Still in 1985 the net migration was +6510, in 1988 +965 and in 1989 +172 persons, but in 1990 the net migration was for the first time in postwar years negative: 4022 more persons left Estonia than settled here. From then on the net migration has constantly been negative and after the record year of 1992 (net migration –33 827) it has stayed around minus 3–7 thousand in recent years. Almost all immigrants of the 1980s as well as of earlier years were Russian (before occupation and the beginning of Russification, Estonians made up about 90% of the population) and so were the emigrants of the 1990s. Therefore, this process can be called repatriation of Russians to their historical homeland.

In addition, from the late 1980s onward the natural increase of Estonian population has been continuously falling. In 1998 the number of births registered in Estonia was 12 269 and the crude birth rate was 8.5. Both these figures make up only about a half of the relevant figures of 1987 (25 086 births, crude birth rate 16.16). Moreover, the fall has been continuous. Mortality was relatively stable over this period: in 1998 the number of deaths was 19 446 and the crude death rate was 13.4. In addition to the increasing proportion of aged people among the total population, the high mortality has been caused by a relatively high number of suicides, which in Estonia is about three times as high as on average in Europe.

As a result of these processes the natural increase, which still in 1987 was +6807 (rate of natural increase 4.38), has been negative since 1991 and, for example, in 1998 it was -7177 (rate of natural increase -5.7). Considering the small population number in Estonia, it is almost a demographic crisis, which will not be easy to overcome. Socio-economic stability, general improvement of well-being and efficient family policy (which is lacking today) may have a certain impact on demographic processes; however, as is well known, a tendency towards the worsening of the demographic situation is common in developed countries.

As a result of the combined effect of a negative natural increase and migration processes, the population number in Estonia has been constantly decreasing since 1990, as mentioned above. In 1998 it made up 92% of the peak level of 1990. The same does not hold about the working age population (from 16 years to retirement age), which has remained relatively stable at around 880–890 thousand in the recent ten years. In the short term no considerable fall can be expected, as in the near future the raising of the retirement age will continue. When Estonia was part of the Soviet Union different retirement ages were valid for men and women (respectively 60 and 55 years); however, by gradual increase the retirement age should be equal for both by the year 2016 – 63 years (true enough, it will take as long as that only for women as men will have this retirement age already by 2001). However, in a longer perspective it is necessary to take into consideration also a decreasing number of working age population and general ageing of the population.

LABOUR MARKET

The Estonian labour market has undergone great changes during the last decade. The number of employed persons has been continuously decreasing since the second half of the 1980s. At the beginning of 1998 the number of employed persons in Estonia was about 640 thousand, that is 200 thousand less than in 1989. Over the same period the labour force participation rate fell from 77% to 64% and the employment rate from 77% to 58%. The most drastic changes occurred in 1993–95, when unemployment was actually born and reached its present level. From 1996 on a certain stabilisation can be observed. The number of employed persons, employment rate, labour participation rate as well as unemployment rate have changed little afterwards. This suggests that the major changes connected with transition in the labour market had been completed by that time. Of course, this does not mean that changes have been completed altogether. The collapse of the Russian market in the late spring of 1998 had an important effect on Estonian manufacturing in general and especially on the food industry exporting mainly to the Eastern market. As yet no data are available on the extent of the decrease in employment and increase in unemployment due to this.

From year to year the distribution of employment by fields of activity is drawing closer to the employment structure of developed countries. The proportion of industry and, especially, agriculture in employment is falling while that of services is increasing. The greatest changes have occurred in the primary sector, where the share of agricultural workers in the total employment has fallen from 18% to 8% (the whole primary sector accounts for 10%). At the same time the proportion of the services sector increase from 43% to 57%. The shares of trade, financial mediation, real estate, government and education in the total employment rose. Also in the future a fall in the agricultural employment and a rise in the employment in services can be expected.

The share of the private sector in employment was 69% at the beginning of 1998 and that of the public sector, 31%. The proportion of private sector in employment has been continuously increasing: it was 24% of the total employment in 1989, 39% in 1992 and 61% in 1995. In manufacturing the private sector accounted for only 9% in 1989 but for as much as 97% in 1998. The share of the public sector has decreased also in such fields as education and health care, although not at the same rate as in industry.

Of all those employed 91% are employees and 9% are entrepreneurs (including unpaid family members). A large part of the entrepreneurs are engaged in agriculture, where private entrepreneurship started ten years age. Entrepreneurs (farmers) make up nearly a third of those engaged in the primary sector, at the same time their share in the secondary sector is only 5% and in the services 7%. Still, as compared with developed countries the proportion of employees is large in Estonian agriculture and the proportion of entrepreneurs can be regarded as small also in industry and services. Moreover, the growth in the share of entrepreneurs in the employment has practically halted in recent years.

The number of unemployed, which was nearly 70 thousand in spring 1998, has been quite stable since 1995 and the unemployment rate has stabilised at 9–10%. By now (summer 1999) unemployment has most likely increased due to the collapse of the Russian market in late spring 1998. Among other things, an increase in the number of persons seeking job at labour exchanges is a sign of this. However, because of the inadequacy of Estonian statistics a survey of what actually happened on the Estonian labour market in 1998 will be available only at the beginning of the year 2000.

Less than half of the unemployed register themselves officially at employment agencies as job seekers; for example, in 1998 on average 32 thousand persons a month were registered and the respective "unemployment rate" was 4-5%. Moreover, less than 18 thousand persons a month got unemployment benefits. It is not easy to qualify for unemployment benefit in Estonia: for example, to apply for a benefit one must have worked for at least half of the one year period prior to application. As a rule, the benefit is paid six months and since 1999 one gets 400 kroons a month (earlier 300 kroons a month). Practically no unemployment insurance or any other possibilities of getting benefits exist in Estonia besides the state system. In addition to unemployment benefits the employment agencies offer job seekers also some assistance that can be classified as measures of active labour policy: financial support to start one's own business (10 thousand kroons paid on one occasion), training for labour market and financial support for employers, who hire an unemployed person whose competitiveness on the labour market is low (handicapped, young persons between 16 and 20 years of age, persons who have less than 5 years before retirement age, persons released from prison, etc.).

Labour force survey has shown that in Estonia unemployment is somewhat higher among men (unemployment rate 10.4% at the beginning of 1998) than among women (8.6%). However, 60% of the job seekers registered at employment agencies are women, which implies that women are more active in trying to find a job through an employment agency. The number of persons who have been out of work for a long time has been increasing continuously. While in 1995 the share of long-term unemployed was 32% of all unemployed then in 1998 already over 45%. This means that 30 thousand persons have not found a job for a year or even longer. The situation is especially tough in rural areas.

Unemployment is higher than average among the young. At the beginning of 1998 the unemployment rate of the 15–24-year-olds was about 15%. As a rule, young persons fail to find a job because of lack of professional skills, work experience and/or proficiency in the Estonian language. Often vocational school leavers cannot find a job because employers are not satisfied with their skills or there is no demand for the trade learnt in the labour market. This indicates to serious shortcomings in the system of vocational training in Estonia and to the need for thorough reforms in this system. However, efforts made in this

direction by the government with support from the European Union have not yielded results meeting the expectations of employers. At the same time, however, in such new highly paid fields of activity as financial mediation and real estate, which developed practically from scratch, most employees (even managers, not to speak of specialists) are young.

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Regional differences in the unemployment rate in Estonia are nearly two-fold. For years unemployment has been the highest in Northeast and Southeast Estonia. These regions suffered most strongly in the course of the restructuring of the economy (privatisation, bankruptcies of large state-owned enterprises and liquidation of collective farming) and have not been able to solve the problem of unemployment. On the contrary, the situation tends to aggravate due to reforming the huge infrastructure enterprises so far owned by the state (power stations, oil shale mines) and the continuing decline of agriculture. The overwhelming majority of the 10 thousand miners and employees of power stations in Northeast Estonia are non-Estonians, who have practically no opportunity of finding a new job if they lose the present one. The mobility of labour is significantly retarded by the underdeveloped housing market and the too high prices of flats as compared with average incomes.

Side by side with unemployment, which is on the average level of the European Union, Estonia has a notable shortage of qualified labour. Thus, unemployment in Estonia is largely structural. There is shortage of both highly qualified white collar and blue collar workers. Often the education and professional training acquired during Soviet time do not meet the requirements of employers. Besides, the work morale of a large part of the labour force leaves much to be desired.

WAGE POLICY

Estonia chose a liberal wage policy in its transition to a market economy. Above all this means that the government's interference in the wages of the business sector is negligible limited to the establishment of minimum wages and adherence to the provisions of the wages law. The latter means mainly that the employees as the weaker party in the labour market are given internationally acknowledged guarantees. In the regulation of the wages of the government institutions and other public institutions (whose wage costs are established by

the law on the state budget) the role of the government is much greater: it regulates the wages of about 10% of the employees. For these employees a scale of wages differentiated mainly on the basis of educational level required, the rate of wages all categories and some requirements concerning the payment of wages have been established. Special acts regulate the system of salaries of members of parliament, government officials, judges, public prosecutors and some other, mainly high-level public servants.

The minimum wage established by the government since 1999 for full-time work is 1250 kroons a month. According to statistics, this is what 5–6% of the employees actually receive. In 1995–98 the minimum pay increased from 450 kroons a month to 1100 kroons, or 2.4 times. At present the minimum threshold above which any income is liable to income tax is 6000 kroons a year or 500 kroons a month. The threshold will rise to 800 kroons a month from the beginning of the year 2000, moreover, the threshold will be in force for the income received in 1999. Income tax is levied on all incomes above the minimum threshold according to a uniform rate of 26%. The income tax is deducted from the wages and salaries by the employer. In addition, the employer pays the social tax, which is 33% of all payroll costs. This is used to cover the expenditures on pensions and health insurance.

In 1998 the average wage in Estonia was 4100 kroons a month. Over the period 1995–98 the total rise in the average pay was 78% (consumer price index rose 48%). The increase in wages was higher than the rise in the CPI in all fields of activity without any exception. In recent years the increase in wages has slowed down. While in 1996 the average wages increased by 28% as compared with the previous year and in 1997 by 18%, then in 1998 by 14%. There is a great difference between the wages in Tallinn and Harju County, surrounding the capital, on the one hand and the remaining regions of Estonia on the other. The average wages in Tallinn and Harju County were over 5000 kroons a month in 1998. This figure is 1.7 times as high as that of the county with the lowest level of incomes and the only one that is higher than the average for the whole country (Estonia has a total of 15 counties). The lowest average wages are in Southeast Estonia, which is predominately an agricultural region. Moreover, as a result of uneven regional development (investments, especially foreign investments tend to concentrate into Tallinn and its environs), the gap between earnings has been increasing rather than decreasing. Among other things, the lack of a uniform

labour market has resulted in the fact that Tallinn is the place of work for some inhabitants of practically all other regions of Estonia.

Average wages in different fields of activity differ in Estonia more than three times. Moreover, the difference between the lowest level, which is in agriculture (average wage 2506 kroons a month in 1998), and the highest in financial mediation (9023 kroons) has been increasing. The same tendency can be observed in the dynamics of the earnings in financial mediation and the average of the whole country. The wage differences between the sectors of the economy are considerably greater than would be normal considering differences in work and working conditions. It is worth mentioning than only hotels and restaurants (average pay in 1998, 3382 kroons a month) and agriculture (2506 kroons) have lower average wages than education (3382 kroons).

In some fields (construction and trade are typical examples) the so-called 'envelope pay' plays a significant role. There are different estimates of the proportion of shadow economy in Estonia, but most probably it is around 15–20% of the GDP. According to the estimates of the Ministry of Social Affairs the amount of hidden incomes will be at least 5 milliard kroons in 1999. Therefore, a critical approach to the proportion of the above-mentioned minimum wage bracket is necessary. The amendments made into Estonian legislation in 1998 (acts on social tax and pension insurance, which connect the collected social tax directly with the size of the future pension of the person concerned) should increase every person's interest in legal incomes and thereby reduce the proportion of the shadow economy in Estonia.

The average monthly net income per household member was 2014 kroons in the 4th quarter of 1998. Of this, income from wages or salaries amounted to 1270 kroons or 63%. The second largest source of income was transfers from government – on average 24% from all disposable income. At the same time the average minimum of subsistence of a person was 1202 kroons per month. The average old-age pension was 1247 kroons a month in 1998. Of course, all these figures have increased from year to year. For example, the wage index increased about 7.5 times in the period 1992–98.

Since 1997 the Estonian Statistical Office has calculated quarterly the Gini coefficient, which is based on average monthly expenditures. Although in 1997–

98 the coefficient was as a rule between 0.35 and 0.40, a very slight tendency towards its growth is apparent. In the 4th quarter of 1998 the difference between the incomes from wages and salaries of the tenth and first income deciles was 20-fold and for total disposable income, 10-fold. Irrespective of certain fluctuations, also these ratios have in general not changed over the period 1997–98.

In general lines, in the 1990s the population of Estonia has fallen into three large groups by incomes: 5–10% are very wealthy, 15–20% are very poor and 70–80% are between these two. Approximately one-third of the population's income is distributed among the tenth decile families. One-fifth of Estonian households (9th and 10th deciles) earn almost half of the overall income. The first and the tenth decile differ sharply from the adjacent second and ninth decile. Those belonging to the first or ninth income deciles would have to cross a relatively higher barrier in order to reach the next decile than the families in the other deciles. In order to move to an adjacent higher income decile, a household would have to increase its income by 10–20% in most cases, yet the difference as compared to the adjacent decile in the case of the first and ninth deciles is nearly twofold.

The placement of a family in the hierarchy of income largely depends on the makeup of the family. A clear pattern emerges: the fewer children in the family, the higher income decile it occupies. From the eighth decile upwards, approximately half the households have no dependent children. The number of children in the first income decile is approximately twice as high as that in the higher deciles. The most likely to find themselves in the lowest income decile are the families with a single breadwinner, two or more children and economically inactive members.

The first step for Estonian social policy (towards helping the people in poverty) was the establishment of a poverty line in 1993. At the moment (summer 1999) the poverty line is 500 kroons per single adult per month. Another component of general social policy that provides aid to the poor is the housing subsidy benefit (implemented in 1994). The housing subsidy benefit could be given when a family's payments for rent and communal services exceed 30% of the family's total income and the family is occupying a space less than the official norm.

ECONOMY

During the whole period of independence Estonia has followed a liberal and open economic policy. Its characteristics are, besides the fact that the exchange rate of the Estonian kroon is pegged to the German mark, balanced state budget, proportional income tax of 26% levied on the incomes of individuals as well as corporations and no customs tariffs. After the drastic fall in the first half of the 1990s, the Estonian economy grew rapidly from 1995 onward. While in 1994 the GDP fell by 3% as compared with the previous year, then both in 1995 and 1996 the GDP underwent a 4% growth and in 1997 the growth was as high as 11%. A very rapid economic growth (7%) continued also in the first half of 1998. From then on, however, the economic climate has been quite different. The growth of the GDP in the second half of 1998 is estimated at only 1-2% (in the 4th quarter already minus 1%) and the economic growth of the whole year at 4%. The economic fall has continued and in the 1st quarter of 1999 the GDP fell by 6%. The deceleration of economic growth and the new economic decline were caused by the economic crisis in Russia and its effect on enterprises whose exports were targeted mainly to the Eastern market (primarily food processing enterprises and the chemical industry) and on the financial sector (in addition to earlier failures, three more banks disappeared from the Estonian banking sector). Besides, the tightening of the conditions in the global economy brought about increasing interest rates, which have retarded the growth in domestic demand. Experts expect that economic growth will be restored by the end of 1999. The Estonian GDP per capita was 28 thousand knoons (3500 DEM) in 1995 and 45 thousand kroons (5600 DEM) in 1997.

The retarded growth of demand and increasing competition have decelerated the growth in prices. While the consumer price index compared to the previous year was 148% in 1994, 129% in 1995, 123% in 1996 and 111% in 1997 then in 1998 inflation fell for the first time in the 1990s below 10%, being 8% for the whole year. In the last months of 1998 price rises practically stopped and in the 4th quarter of 1998 the prices were only by 0.1% higher than in the 3rd quarter. The price rises of the recent years have occurred mainly due to the regulation of prices in the closed sector (electric energy, transport, communications and public utilities). Producer prices even fell in 1998, although very slightly.

Privatisation as a political and economic reform has been practically completed in Estonia. The basic change in the ownership structure was made in 1993–96. The lion's share of the former state-owned enterprises were privatised in 1994–95. The state participates in business mainly through enterprises of infrastructure and also in this sphere preparations for privatisation are underway. In the other sectors the role of the state is negligible. For example, in autumn 1998 the share of state and municipal enterprises in the total industrial output was 16%, whereas in power engineering it was 100%, in food processing 4%, machine-building 3% and in the wood and paper industry 0.1%.

WELFARE AND EVERYDAY LIFE

Today an average Estonian wage-earner spends notably less time on various day-to-day chores (shopping, visits to service establishments) than during the Soviet period. The problem what you can get and where you can get something has been replaced by the problem of money (which does not mean that the latter did not exist during Soviet time) and a higher motivation to work. There is no doubt that people work harder today, and not only in the private sector but also for example in governmental institutions. Still, there are signs that the period when it was popular, especially among the young and successful, to be workaholic and spend all the time left from sleeping on work year round without any recreation seems to be drawing to an end. Most likely in the near future a serious problem for numerous college and university graduates with a high self-esteem will be finding a job meeting the expectations.

Leaving aside those who are clearly winners (the successful) and those who have fallen into poverty and misery (losers), whose attitude is obvious, the attitude of the majority of the others to changes accompanying the socio-economic transition is to a certain extent contradictory. The safe closed society has been replaced by a less safe but open society. Moreover, safety has not decreased only in the economic sense. Also the fear of falling victim of crime has increased. As a result of different abilities, enterprising sprit and starting position of persons differentiation by wealth has deepened. This is psychologically quite depressing considering the recent past when all persons were rather equal and the relative success, which had strictly fixed limits, depended on other criteria. Besides, often the present success has been achieved in an unethical way, which the majority of the society find hard to tolerate. At the

same time, however, under the new conditions all opportunities are open to everybody (at least theoretically). The failure of some people to use them (which is natural and inevitable – all persons are not equally talented and enterprising) aggravates tension. The liberal economic policy (which is obviously the most efficient though also the most painful in a society in transition) coupled with underdeveloped social policy has created a fertile soil for the polarisation of the society and is also reflected in people's differing attitudes towards changes.

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LATVIA – STAGES OF DEVELOPMENT AND CURRENT SITUATION

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To start with, there are several things that have to be discussed to get a concrete view about the current situation in Latvia and how it developed. In this essay we are going to cover the following themes: geography, demography, labour force, economic situation, wage policy and income distribution.

GEOGRAPHIC SITUATION AND DEMOGRAPHY

The surface area of Latvia is 64.6 thousand square kilometres. It is bordered by Estonia to the north (0.3 thousand kilometres), Russian Federation to the east (0.3 thousand kilometres), Belarus to the south - east (0.2 thousand kilometres), and Lithuania to the south (0.6 thousand kilometres). The length of the Baltic Sea coastline is 0.5 thousand kilometres. The capital city of Latvia is Riga. It is located at the estuary of the river Daugava, where it flows into the gulf of Riga. It has the population of 900.000 within its 300 square kilometres, being the largest city in the Baltic States. Riga is also the Baltic's biggest industrial, financial and transport centre. Other big cities of Latvia are Ventspils, Liepaja, Jelgava and Daugavpils. Ventspils has the population of 50.000, it is a seaport city in the north-western part of Latvia at the mouth of the river Venta. It is large petroleum exporting terminal and a chemical plant producing chemicals for export and processing imported substances. Liepaja is the third largest city of Latvia, with the population of 93.000 it is located in the south - western side of the country on the Baltic Sea coast. There is a Special Economic Zone in Liepaja, where the enterprises can get the following tax breaks, like exemptions from customs, reductions to calculated business income, property and land taxes. Jelgava is a city in the south of Latvia on the banks on the river Lielupe, its population is 74.000 Jelgava is a major industrial centre and a key junction for several railway and main roads, the leading industries there are machine building, food processing and light industry. Daugavpils is the second largest city in Latvia in terms of population (122.000), it is situated in the south-eastern part of Latvia and lies on the banks of the river Daugava. In Daugavpils there is a chemical fibre

plant, the biggest enterprise of chemical industry in Latvia. Also, a meat producing plant, milk and beer producing industries are situated there.

When attempting to assess the relationship among the various ethnic groups in Latvia one must directly take its point of departure in the demographic development since the 9th century when Latvia was under the patronage Russian princedom. The occupation of the German Order lasted from the 13th till the 15ht century, then followed by occupations by Russia, Sweden, Denmark, and Poland. The book "The Baltic States After Independence" informs us about the next following aspects of this matter. The status of Latvia as a Soviet republic (1939-1989) irrevocably influenced the ethnic composition of the country and formed the fundamental basis of the nationality conflict, as more than 1.5 million immigrants that differed from the indigenous people entered Latvia. This much to history, but nowadays Latvians form 55.3% of the population (2.5 million people), Russians – 32.5%, Belorussians – 4%, Ukrainians – 3%, Poles -2%, Lithuanians -1.3%, Jews -0.4%, Gypsies -0.3, Estonians -0.1%, Germans -0.07%, others -0.9% (Statistic Yearbook 1998). Reading further "The Baltic States After Independence" it has to be seen that in none of the seven largest cities of Latvia do Latvians comprise more than half the residents and in Latvia's second - largest city, Daugavpils, Latvians constitute a mere 13 per cent. The unstable economic situation and the social problems in Latvia following independence have affected all the population groups. However, the deteriorated living conditions have had an especially large impact on non-indigenous immigrants. The immigrants were represented within heavy industry, where large unprofitable plants have been shut down in recent years. The Slavic immigrant groups tend to be more sceptical towards rapid market economic reforms than Latvians, nevertheless many non-Latvians can be found among the new economic entrepreneurs. They have been forced into entrepreneurial occupations because it is pretty difficult for them to make a career within the state administration or the part of the economy governed by the state, due to the language and citizenship laws. Furthermore, their experience from industry contacts with the other former Soviet republics and financial resources have given them a better point of departure in the new market economy than many Latvians themselves.

One of the most important factors that can not be parted from the population of the country is education. 50 years as a Soviet republic have meant also major changes in the educational system of Latvia, for example, subjects like history,

law, philosophy and economics were taught within strictly defined ideological precepts. Nowadays the situation is different as, after the reform of education, all the ethnic groups study accordingly to the same system. It consists of the following stages – primary school that can be followed either by trade school or high school, the latter gives the possibility to sit for the entrance exams in the university.

At the very moment a process of naturalisation of immigrants is being implemented as the Latvian citizenship is allocated to children born in Latvia after the year of 1991. This is a further step to minimising the sharp contrasts among the legal rights of different ethnic groups in the country.

LABOUR FORCE

Currently, the labour market in Latvia is unbalanced in a number of ways. From Human Development Report 1998 one can find much information on this topic. Long working hours for those who are employed contrast with the limited opportunities to find a job for those who are not. There are inequalities in access to employment between men and women, between regions, and between those who speak Latvian and those who do not. The low level of wages does not correspond to the heavy demands of work. There is a mismatch between employers' demand for skilled employees, their current availability, and the educational systems' capacity to produce skilled employees for the professions that are promising and in high demand.

Two challenges face the Latvian labour market. On the one hand, the transition to a market economy requires serious structural and institutional reforms. On the other hand, the Latvian economy, labour market, and educational system must adapt to the increasingly rapid process of globalisation. It has to be mentioned that people work more and more, managing even more than one job. Employment is no longer long – term and secure, but fragmented. As Latvia has liberalised trade with EU countries and joined the World Trade Organisation, local industries are faced with increased competition. As a result some sectors of Latvia's economy may no longer be competitive, and many people could lose their jobs.

Working age limit in Latvia is from 15 to 60 (women) and 65 (men). Accordingly to Central Statistics Bureau of Latvia, 49% of Latvia's permanent residents (1 million 220 thousand) were economically active in 1997, and 85% of that number (1 million 37 thousand) were employed. Therefore, it can be concluded that 41.5% of the population are employed. It has to be stressed that since the beginning of the nineties the number of people who are economically active has decreased considerably by almost 200.000.

Sphere	Employed
Agriculture and forestry	187.000
Industry	209.000
Construction business	60.000
Wholesale and retail trade	152.000
Hotel and restaurant business	21.000
Transport and communication business	89.000
Financial intermediation	15.000
Real estate business	38.000
Public administration	63.000
Education	91.000
Doctors, other health and social workers	61.000

Statistical Yearbook 1998 informs and the table above shows that from all the employed people 187.000 represent agriculture and forestry, 209.000 work for industry, 60.000 are in construction business, 152.000 work in wholesale and retail trade sphere. It is interesting that 21.000 are employed in hotel and restaurant business, 89.000 have dedicated themselves to transport and communication business, but 15.000 represent financial intermediation sphere and 38.000 are engaged in real estate business. It has to be mentioned that 63.000 are involved in the public administration, 91.000 represent education sphere, 61.000 are doctors and other health and social workers, but 45.000 work for community, social and personal service. Besides it is vital to stress that from all the employed 528.000 are men and 509.000 are women. Men mostly represent agriculture, industry, transport and communication sphere, but women are more go into wholesale and retail trade, industry, agriculture. However there are examples of discrimination, based on the basis of gender and age found. This is particularly noticeable in hiring practices. Newspapers, radio TV advertisements

of vacant jobs often state only men or women can apply regardless the qualifications or other criteria. Advertisements specifying the age of the applicants, for example, that people over 35 can not apply, are also common.

Accordingly to the Central Statistics Bureau of Latvia, every fifth worker works overtime at their principal job. The number of hours people spend on those other jobs is rather large: an average 18 hours per week. On the other hand 13% of the labour force works only part time. Moreover, 63% of these people are working part time involuntary, either because this was the only available work, or because of the decisions of the management. This type of mandatory part time work is most widespread in agriculture, forestry, the processing industries and trade. There can be concluded that working people have very high total workloads. Many workplaces are insecure and stressful. Fearing they may lose their jobs and their livelihood, a large proportion of employees work overtime and as a result have no time left for their families, health, improvement of skills and education. A contradiction has to be remembered that while some people are working a great deal for a relatively small wage, a significant part of economically active population is seeking work.

Accordingly to the data provided by the State Employment Board, there are 86.531 non-working people, of them 84.934 are unemployed. The number of unemployed has decreased comparatively to the year of 1996, when there were 90.819 unemployed. It has to be mentioned that registered unemployed persons that receive an unemployment benefit form only 30.894. From the unemployed, there are 40.6% males and 59.4% females. The educational background of the unemployed should also be mentioned, as only 6.1% of the unemployed are with higher education, 21.7% - with secondary specialised education, 16.3% - with vocational education, 30.2% - with comprehensive secondary education. But if we look upon the unemployed from the occupation groups' crosscut we find out that the biggest part is formed by craft and related trade workers, plant and machine operators and assemblers.

Human Development Report stresses that in 1997, 14.8% of the economically active population were job seekers and 31% has been unable to find work in one or two years. One of five job seekers was young person between 15 and 24, indicating that the educational system and the labour market are not in balance. The proportion of job seekers is higher in the cities than in the rural areas.

Latvia's eastern regions have the highest unemployment rate in the country, more than half of the job seekers with work experience lost their jobs due to the liquidation of their place of work.

Furthermore we are going to discuss the difference between the public and private sector. Human Development Report informs that pay in the private sector is higher than in the public sector, the situation is similar also in other Baltic states, as by paying higher wages the private sector can always attract workers and choose them from a larger application number. For the most part small and medium sized enterprises plan to hire qualified, full time workers, though the planned increase is not large, generally from 1 to 4 employees. There are more men represented in the small and middle-sized enterprises than women. It is interesting that there are differences between "official salaries" and "actual salaries" in the private sphere, although many private entrepreneurs do make their actual salaries officially known. The private sector is characterised by significantly greater wage differentiation than the public sector and by the best and worst paid jobs. Significant differences in wages also exist between Riga – based enterprises and regional enterprises. The private sector is developing a flexible compensation policy, where fixed wage is combined with bonuses. The pay increase in the organisations financed by the state budget is dependent upon the size of the state budget. Now the budgetary organisations are planning to implement an "equal wage for equal work" due to the several documents adopted by the government in 1998 that are connected with EU directives and the Conventions of the International Labour Organisation.

From the "The Wall Street Journal Europe's Central European Economic Review" we can conclude that the private sector's share (70% of the enterprises belong to the private entrepreneurs) in Latvia is similar to that of other countries in transition, for example: Estonia, Lithuania – 70%, Czech Republic, Hungary – 75%, Poland – 65%. Besides the private sector's share of the economy tend to grow even more. Currently the most significant process that is both economically and politically complex is privatisation of the 6 large state infrastructure enterprises.

ECONOMY

1997 and 1998 were successful years for Latvia. As International Statistics refer, GDP per capita (in purchasing power capacity) 1997 formed 3875 USD, but in 1998 – 4086.75. Human Development Report 1998 gives us a complete view on the economic situation of the country, referring that GDP growth was significant (1997 - 6.5%, 1998 – 5%) that is the largest increase since the beginning of economic reforms. As a result of fiscal policy, inflation and interest rates decreased. Inflation was 8.4% (1997), one of the lowest rates among the countries in transition. Therefore, in terms of macroeconomic indicators it can be said that Latvia has defined medium – term objectives of economic development, continued aiming the efforts at integration into the European Union. It is very important fact that Latvia has become a member of World Trade Organisation, and achieved a great progress in the liberalisation of trade. The EU's 1998 Vienna summit evaluated Latvia's achievement positively.

Structural reforms are continuing, but the privatisation of large state monopolies has slowed and was not completed by the end of 1998 as originally planned. Due to the Russian financial crisis 1998 has not been as successful as 1997. Latvia's trade with Russia and the other Community of Independent States (CIS) is progressively decreasing. Because export growth is mainly to the West, the effects of the Russian crisis are smaller than they would gave been in the past and Latvia's economy remained stable. Since the 1995 banking crisis Latvia's financial system has become considerably stronger.

The role formerly played by the state in the command economy has decreased. However it has not to be forgotten that the state must strive to play a balanced regulatory role in directing the economic and social possesses. Though the economy of Latvia is developing fast, the living standard of large segments of the population is still low, macroeconomic growth and structural change have not created a sufficiently large, prosperous middle class.

Speaking more precisely of the growth of GDP and considering the low level of GDP per capita (27% of EU average, expressed in purchasing power parity dollars), it is important to maintain high annual growth. It should be noted that Latvia experienced a grave economic crisis at the opening stage of its reforms. Latvia's GDP in 1995 was only half of that in 1990. In comparison, in Estonia and Lithuania GDP in 1995 was 60%, of that in 1990.

In 1997 employment increased, and the registered unemployment rate was 7%. At the beginning of 1998 employment continued to rise. However the crisis in Russia halted this trend. Some of the companies, while looking for new markets in the west have been obliged to lay off workers.

The latter two years have seen growth in the service sector and industry. Trade has grown more rapidly, stimulated by the availability of new financial services such as leasing. Foreign investments increased and made 15 million USD, much of this money has been invested in the construction or reconstruction of large stores, gas stations, and automobile dealerships.

Industrial production has also grown. The processing industries have grown significantly, by 7%. The largest increase was in the area of food processing that is now the largest sector of the processing industry. Light industry also grew considerably, a large percentage of the products of the textile industry are exported, mostly to EU. During the last two years the exports to the CIS have decreased. The development of the metalworking and engineering industries over the last few years should also be noted. Practically, every sector of the machine-building industry grew except the production of transportation vehicles. However, production did not increase in mining, electric power, and heating. Production in the chemical, rubber and plastics industries declined slightly. It is interesting to mention that the construction industry has changed completely. Compared to the pre-crisis period, renovation and reconstruction make up a much larger proportion of the total. However, the construction of high – rise apartment buildings has practically stopped, and construction of single – family homes is developing slowly.

The transportation and communications sectors are also experiencing a dynamic growth. Transit trade and port services account for almost one – fifth of the exports of Latvian goods and services, while the revenues from the transit trade make up approximately one – tenth of GDP. This is reducing Latvia's negative trade balance. Central Statistics Bureau informs that Latvia's export in 1998 was 1.068 billion Lats (1.845 billion USD), but import – 1.881 billion Lats (3.249 billion USD).

Growth in the agricultural sector was lower than the average rate of economic growth. Comparing to the continuous decline in the volume of output in the

previous years, the sector has stabilised. To sum it up, it can be said that the structure of the Latvian economy is becoming more and more alike the one of the developed countries.

It has to be stated that the previous years were a turning point in the policy of investment. Since 1995 investment has grown relatively rapidly. In 1996 investment has grown by 21%, and in 1997 by another 11%. But in 1998 it made almost one – fifth of GDP. The growth of investment in the manufacturing industry is especially relevant. Foreign direct investment also plays a vital role in Latvia's economy by promoting the introduction of modern technology and management techniques. In 1997 foreign direct investment reached the highest level since the re – establishment of independence – 408 million USD – allowing Latvia to be the second most successful state in Central Europe. Foreign investment in Latvia could be even higher if it were not for investor uncertainty, caused by the frequent changes in legislation, the slow rate of land reform, the unresolved questions regarding the boarder with Russia. It has to be stressed that most foreign investments are made in Riga and other major cities, which have more highly developed infrastructure. The State Investment Programme also contributes to the implementation of projects concerning investment.

WAGE POLICY AND INCOME DISTRIBUTION

As it already was stressed, a big part of Latvia's population is still living under the level of normal living conditions. The following information taken from the Human Development Report shows us a real situation. In 1998 56.9% of the Latvian population lived below the poverty threshold – the crisis subsistence minimum as defined by the Ministry of Welfare. The extended household budget survey, made in 1998 shows that in comparison to previous years, nominal household income rose by 10.5%, whereas the consumer price index rose by 4.2% during the same period. However, the increase in income for the country as a whole was due entirely to the rise in incomes for urban households. But the living standards for the rural population are continuing to decline. Referring to the same survey, average disposable monthly household income, calculated per household member, was 57.80 Lats in urban areas and 49.86 Lats in rural areas. Despite the fact that in 1998 the Parliament approved the Rural Development Programme, that the World Bank rural development project is underway, up to now, national economic policy has not succeeded in improving the rural

population's well – being. However, it is to be reminded that special attention should be paid to the rural areas, as 31% of Latvia's population lives there. However, income rose faster than inflation in the Greater Riga areas.

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As in general the income of people is insufficient, households are only able to pay for the bare necessities. However, there are significant differences between the structure of expenditure of different income groups. For the poorest 10% of households, 60% of expenditure are on food, while the wealthiest ten per cent only 34% of expenditure are on food, a figure close to that in developed countries. The wealthiest part of the population (3 to 5%) spend much money on clothing and footwear, culture and recreation, travel, hotels. The second major item in Latvian household budget, after food, is housing and utilities. These expenditures have increased both in absolute and relative terms. Moderately, poor households spend the highest percentage of their budgets on housing – 20%. The poorest households are simply unable to make these payments in full, so they allot only 10% of their budgets to housing. Wealthier households allot 13 – 14% of their spending to these compulsory expenses.

Pensioners are the most conscientious in paying the rent and, as a result, they often find themselves in financial difficulties. Housing expenses pay the smallest role in the expenditures of the rural population, the majority of which lives on farms that they themselves own. Penalties for the non-payment or late payment of rent and utilities are becoming increasingly severe.

The third major type of expenditure is transport, which also has a tendency to increase due to rising fares.

Accordingly to the Statistics Yearbook 1998, taking into account average ages and salaries of the employed in the national economy, it has been calculated that the gross salary forms 120 Lats, of which 32 Lats are transferred to the budget as different taxes. In public sector the gross average salary is 127 Lats, but in private sector – 113 Lats (officially declared). The biggest wages in both the private and the public sector are for those working in the sphere of water transport, financial intercession, and aviation. It is interesting to point out that average size of old – age pensions to non-working pensioners is only 42 Lats, but value of minimum consumer basket of goods and services per capita is 79 Lats. What is more, the value of crisis minimum basket per capita is 55 Lats.

Evaluating these data it is not a surprising fact to discover that only 7% of the respondents in an annual survey have declared that they have enough money to live on and even have made some savings.

CONCLUSION

Everyday life in Latvia is very similar to that in the West, however there are several differences that we are going to report on further. Workday starts at different times, as not to overload the public transport. Industry workers start job as the first ones, as they work in shifts, the public and private sector workers begin their work usually at 8.30 a.m.. For them the working day lasts till 6 p.m. Shops and trade centres are open from 10 or 11 a.m. and it has to be mentioned, that we have shops, bars and fast food services that work 24 hours around the clock, including Sundays. As with the transition to market economy, there is a positive tendency, considering the employment of young people. In the Soviet times for a young employee it was impossible to get a wage higher than his parents did. The wage depended not so much on the skills and knowledge, but on the time the person had spent in the situation, how old he was. Now the wage is directly dependent on the knowledge, it allows young people to prove themselves in the labour market.

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LITHUANIA

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The Republic of Lithuania was proclaimed on February 16, 1918, and was restored on March 11, 1990. Highest legislative body is Seimas (141 member; 4 years). 50% of Seimas seats are directly elected and 50% are elected on proportional basis. All Lithuanian citizens of the age of 18 and over may vote. President of Lithuania is Mr. Valdas Adamkus, elected on January 4, 1998. Next legislative elections will take part in 2000, and the presidential ones – in 2003. National currency is Litas (LTL) = 100 centas, restored on June 25, 1993, fixed with USD, 1 USD = 4 LTL.

GEOGRAPHIC SITUATION

The surface area of Lithuania is 65,3 thous.km2. It has frontiers with Latvia to the North (610 km), Byelorussia to the South – East (724 km), Poland to the South – West (110 km) and Russian Federation to the West (303 km). The length of the Baltic cost line is 99 km.

Lithuania, laying in the South of the rest two Baltic states, is at the heart of the transit routes between East and West. It is also a vital link in the 'Via Baltica', the Baltic way running from Poland to Estonia. Indeed, the country possesses an excellent infrastructure, as a network of European-standard 4lane highways links all major industrial centers. The EU Transport Commission designated Lithuania as the region's transport hub, with 2 out of 10 priority corridors in Europe intersecting in Lithuania.

There are 108 towns, 10 counties and 44 regions in Lithuania. Cities in Lithuania are not big. There are only five of them the population of which is bigger than 100'000. The capital city of Lithuania is Vilnius, founded in 1323. It is located to the South – East of the country, on the river Neris, and has a population of 578,4 thous. (01 01 1998). App. 30 km far away from Vilnius to the North – West there is a geographic center of Europe. App. 100 km away North – East from Vilnius there is Ignalina – the country's own nuclear power station, required by the European Commission to be closed if Lithuania wants to

enter EU. The first block will be stopped in 2005, and EC is undertaking much of expenses, as closing of the station could require up to 4'000 million Litas (app. 1'000 million USD) as till 2020. Other biggest cities of Lithuania are Kaunas, Klaipeda (the port city of Lithuania - the only ice-free port on the Eastern Baltic and also the only one in the region to receive EBRD and European Investment Bank funding for a 200 million USD expansion), Siauliai (with its Free Economic Zone and Zokniai airport – a CAT 1 cargo airport with one of the longest runways in Europe) and Panevezys. Close to Klaipeda there is a new oil terminal of Butinge, vital for the country, going to be totally finished in autumn 1999, thou exporting the oil already.

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The country offers 4 international airports, and as mentioned before, the only ice-free port in the Eastern Baltic. There are 3 Free Economic Zones in Lithuania which boast unparalleled infrastructure and transshipment facilities. They offer investors highly qualified labor forces and extremely attractive incentives: tax reduction, no VAT, no customs duties, free repatriation of profits, and a 50% reduction on land lease (Lithuanian Development Agency).

DEMOGRAPHY AND ETHNIC ISSUES

The first census in the Grand Duchy of Lithuania was carried out in 1799, and the population of 2.8 million was recorded. There was a tremendous decrease of population during the World War II and the first decade of Soviet occupation, when a lot of families were deported to Siberia. Lithuania lost around 850'000 inhabitants then, and only in 1964 the level of Lithuanian Republic (1918 – 1940) was reached. In 1961 – 1965 the size of population was growing most rapidly. Since 1980 the increase of population slowed down and stopped, and in 1992 the decrease of population was registered, as after restoration of independence many Russian-speaking inhabitants left to Russia, Ukraina and Byelorussia, thousands of Jews left for Israel, and some emigrated to USA, Germany and Poland.

The current size of population is 3'704 thous. (making Lithuania the biggest among the Baltic states), 2'525.2 thous. of them – urban, and 1'178.8 thous. – rural (Statistical Yearbook of Lithuania 1998). The density of the population is not high and forms 56.7 people/km2. Natural increase is negative from 1994 already, and was –0,9/per 1000 population in 1997.

Lithuania inherited a multinational society from history and its geographical position. The small state has been constantly influenced by distinctive Slavic and German cultures. There were always Byelorussians, Russians, Poles, Jews living in Lithuania, and Tartars and Karaims had even special privileges protecting them. Respect for national minorities and insignificance of ethnic conflicts in Lithuania may be explained by cultural and political tolerance, which was promoted by the following factors (Lakis in Jawlowska, Kempny, eds., 1994). First, the largest minority groups, i.e., Russians, Poles and Byelorussians, have their nation-states bordering Lithuania, which helped a lot to form both inter-state and intra-state relations of mutual tolerance and respect. Second, the roots of the most minority groups and their influence on the economic and cultural development reach back to several historical periods, therefore they can not be so simply ignored. And the third factor is that actually Lithuania never feared the extinction of the titular nation and national culture. Non-Lithuanians constitute only app. 20 per cent of the total population (quite different from Latvia and Estonia), 10% Russians, 7% Poles, 1.7% Byelorussians and 1.2% Ukrainians, which neither initiates the claims of minority groups for territorial separation, nor makes the Lithuanians to be afraid of their position in their own motherland (Statistical Yearbook 1998).

Even while in USSR, the goals of Soviet policies to russify and assimilate all nations into one Soviet identity were not accomplished in Lithuania. Lithuania still enjoyed a large and homogenous population throughout the Soviet era, and after Georgians and Armenians, Lithuanians were the third least likely to change their ethnic identity. The restoration of Lithuanian sovereignty seemed to be a serious trial for national minorities, as they lost their connection with the "protective center". But Lithuanian national movement, Sajudis, which actually began the fight for and won Lithuania's independence back, was &veloping swiftly and in a democratic way, inviting all to join, Communists and anti-Communists, and all nationalities. Moreover, after abolishing an idea of a Soviet nation, the interest of national minorities to preserve their identity has also increased. A lot of cultural, educational and other minority organisations appeared. The laws standardised the citizenship granting procedures much more inclusively than it was done in Latvia or Estonia, the usage of the state language and the rights for national minorities to develop their education and culture.

ECONOMY

With a pro-business government, excellent external relations and harmonious minority relations internally, Lithuania is an oasis of political and ethnic stability in the region. It has a stable currency, strong banking sector, and offers unrestricted movement of capital and dividends. There are good opportunities for investment in several sectors, like wood processing, textiles, electronics, chemicals, financial services, travel and tourism.

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Until 1991 Lithuania was a leader in the electronics industry in the former USSR. Lithuanian companies were also among the major suppliers of electronic products to the Soviet military industry and space program. This sector employed app. 25'000 people and produced an estimated 200 million USD in goods and services in 1990. In 1992, the state initiated a privatisation program under which most of the large companies in the industry were privatised. In 1997, the sector is estimated to have employed some 10'000 people and to have produced app. 120 million USD in goods and services. Several factories have attracted major foreign investments and foreign partners. A number of companies have attained ISO 9'000 status and market their products world-wide. Nevertheless, significant foreign investment is still needed sector-wide in order to upgrade production facilities (Lithuanian Development Agency).

Since the re-establishment of independence, Lithuania has been exposed to modern computer science and information technologies. Computer science and IT specialists are currently being trained in at least six universities, several colleges and schools. Funding for higher education is obtained through the TEMPUS, PHARE and COPERNICUS programs. The yearly number of university graduates per 1'000 inhabitants is the highest in the region.

Lithuania has accumulated a great deal of experience in developing software. The most important development areas are: the development of computer-aided design systems, the creation and development of a database for business and industry, the development of a medicine-oriented software-hardware system.

The largest fertiliser and cement plants in the region are located in Lithuania. The main production industry in Lithuania produces fertilisers, acids, methanol, chemical fibres, synthetic resins, varnish, household chemicals. The amount of foreign interest in the chemicals industry has been increasing over the past few

years. A Finnish fertiliser company Kemira recently set up a joint-venture with a Lithuanian counterpart in order to produce fertilisers for export to the European Union. The chemical sector is still one of largest export sectors.

Similar to other post-Communist countries, Lithuania has experienced a period of crisis at the beginning of its economic reforms. However, the Gross Domestic Product, after its constant annual drop (-16.2% in 1993, -9.8% in 1994), started to grow since 1995 (3.3% in 1995, 4.7% in 1996, 7.3% in 1997), which is very important to maintain, aiming to integrate successfully into the European Union (Statistical Yearbook, 1998).

Russian financial crisis made its negative impact, and 1998 was not so successful for Lithuania as 1997. The GDP growth over 1998 equaled 5,1% as compared to the 1997 and amounted to 10'692 million USD (6'396 million USD in Latvia, 5'206 million USD in Estonia). The GDP per capita made up 2'887 USD. The value added generated by manufacturing industry displayed an annual growth (3.9%), however decrease of it by 3.7% in the IV quarter of 1998 due to a decline in exports of output to the CIS countries slowed down the annual growth (Economic and Social Development of Lithuania, 4/99).

BANKING SYSTEM

After a grave crisis in the banking sector in 1995, most of Lithuanian commercial banks seem to be recovered completely. During the first half of 1999 all commercial banks of Lithuania had 65.8 million Litas of unaudited profit. 9 Lithuanian banks and 1 foreign (Kredyt Bank PBI S.A.) were profitable, and 3 banks (Bank of Industry, Hansabank and Societe Generale) experienced losses. The credits portfolio increased by 15%, deposits – by 6.1%, and private deposits – by 26.6%, as finally lost savings in Roubles were compensated, &posit insurance is functioning, and people started regaining trust in the banking system. Total capital adequacy of banking system as of 1 July 1999 was 22.56% (Lithuanian Bank).

Average annual interest rates on deposits in national currency in February, 1999 were 7.2% for long-term deposits, and 4.9% for short-term deposits. Average annual interest rate on credits in national currency in February, 1999 were

12.6% for long-term credits, and 14.2% for short-term credits (Economic and Social Development in Lithuania, 4/99).

INVESTMENTS

Over January – March of 1999, 875.9 million Litas (218.98 million USD) were invested in Lithuania. Public sector constituted 44% of investment, private sector – 56% of all assets used. The biggest share of investment in 1999 was allotted for manufacturing – 21%, transport – 16%, and for construction of residential buildings – 12%. The main source of investment were own assets which amounted to 71% of all investment, foreign loans – 13%, national budget – 6%, other sources – 10% (Economic and Social Development in Lithuania, 4/99).

FOREIGN INVESTMENTS

Foreign investment in Lithuania has been increasing fastest in Central and Eastern Europe for the last years. Siemens, Motorola, Masterfoods/Mars, Kraft Jacobs Suchards, Festo, Lancaster Steel, Kemira, Philip Morris are among the multinationals that have chosen to locate production facilities/invest in Lithuania. Most foreign businesses invest in Lithuania for export production purposes. Many local producers have already achieved ISO 9'000 status.

As of 1 April 1999, 299 foreign loans were granted to Lithuania which totaled to 3'043.21 million USD, of which 2'077.72 million USD were granted on behalf of the Republic of Lithuania and 965.49 million USD were secured by the Government guarantee. Loans received made up 2'698.25 million USD, i.e. 88.7% of loans granted. In 1996 and 1997 the biggest amount of loans was received (523.31 million USD in 1996 and 656.57 million USD in 1997). Loans repaid to foreign investors amounted to 810.06 million USD or 30% of the loans gained. Lithuanian banks were repaid 106.51 million USD, and their interest gained totaled 88.84 million USD. Debt to the foreign and Lithuanian banks, official financial institutions and companies amounted to 1'888.19 million USD. Debt per capita constituted 510.3 USD (Economic and Social Development in Lithuania, 4/99).

By economic activities, most of the foreign loans were allocated for development of public administration and defence (1'144.45 million USD), electricity, gas and water supply (551.73 million USD), manufacturing (304.18 million USD), financial intermediation (267.94 million USD), transport, storage and communication (223.84 million USD) (Economic and Social Development in Lithuania, 4/99).

STANDARD OF LIVING

Although the economy of Lithuania is developing positively, the living standard of households is not improving so fast, and there is no large middle class still formed – the situation similar to those of other Baltic states. However, one can notice some positive tendencies.

Minimal wage and salary in Lithuania in March 1999 amounted to 107.5 USD (85.32 USD in Latvia, 87.01 USD in Estonia). As compared to March 1998, it grew up by 8% (19% in Latvia, 14% in Estonia). Gross average monthly wage and salary in whole economy in IV quarter of 1998 was 268.90 USD in Lithuania (246.19 USD in Latvia, 325.80 USD in Estonia). As compared to IV Q 1997 it increased by 16% (9% in Latvia and Estonia). An average monthly old-age pension in Lithuania in IV quarter 1998 amounted to 74.76 USD (95.87 USD in Latvia, 95.60 USD in Estonia). As compared to IV Q 1997 it grew up by 15% (22% in Latvia, 12% in Estonia) (Economic and Social Development in Lithuania, 4/99).

In 1998 average monthly disposable income per capita was 105.5 USD. Disposable income, as compared to that of 1997, increased by 14.5%, and compared to 1996, grew up by 29.3%. However, keeping in mind growth of the consumer prices, the real income increased accordingly by 9% and 13%.

Disposable income of the city dwellers in 1998 was 115.75 USD per capita, and that of rural dwellers – 84 USD, i.e., 27% less. As compared to 1997, they grew up by 15% and 12.7% accordingly. Disposable income in the cities is increasing faster, therefore, the gap between urban and rural dwellers' income is constantly growing.

Income from employment in 1998 constituted 68% of all disposable income, retirement pensions, unemployment and other benefits -21%, and other income (winnings, alimonies, etc.) -11% of total income.

Level of income and its structure differs by the composition of households. Single persons and couples with no children owned the highest disposable income – 138.25 USD and 129.75 USD per capita accordingly. The lowest disposable income was owned by households with 3 and more children – 63.75 USD per capita, i.e., 40% less than average in the country.

Monthly consumption expenditure per capita was 106.75 USD in 1998, so it increased by 11.6% as compared to 1997, and by 22.6% as compared to 1996. Again here the gap between urban and rural dwellers is noticed: 116.75 USD and 85.75 USD accordingly. The structure of consumption expenditure has also altered, i.e., expenditure for food slightly dropped down and in 1998 constituted 48.1% of total expenditure. The following table presents the distribution of consumption expenditure in urban and rural in 1998 (Survey Data on Household Income and Expenditure, 1999).

Average monthly household consumption expenditure per capita, 1998						
	Total		Urban		Rural	
	Litas	%	Litas	%	Litas	%
Total	426.8	100.0	466.7	100.0	343.0	100.0
Food and non-alcoholic beverages	205.5	48.1	206.9	44.3	202.5	59.0
Alcoholic beverages and tobacco	17.2	4.0	18.1	3.9	15.1	4.4
Clothing and footwear	34.3	8.0	39.9	8.5	22.6	6.6
Housing, water, electricity, gas						
and other fuel	52.7	12.3	63.2	13.5	30.5	8.9
Furnishings, household equip-						
ment and routine maintenance of						
the house	20.3	4.8	22.8	4.9	14.9	4.3
Health care	14.8	3.5	16.5	3.5	11.3	3.3
Transport	28.8	6.7	32.9	7.0	20.3	5.9
Communication	8.1	1.9	10.1	2.2	4.0	1.2

Recreation and culture	15.0	3.5	18.9	4.0	6.7	2.0
Education	1.4	0.3	1.9	0.4	0.4	0.1
Hotels, restaurants, cafes, can-						
teens	16.4	3.8	20.6	4.4	7.7	2.2
Miscellaneous goods and services	12.3	2.9	14.9	3.2	6.9	2.0

Expenditure for food, which is the best indicator of country's welfare, in hired workers households amounted to 43.4% of the total, while in pensioners households – up to 52.1% of the total consumption expenditure.

Distribution of average monthly consumption expenditure differed highly between the 10% of the richest and 10% of the poorest households. Total consumption of the former ones was 8 times higher than that of the latter. Expenditure for food differed 3.7 times, as the wealthiest spent 32%, while the poorest – 68% of their total consumption expenditure for it. Only for recreation the wealthiest were spending 1.5 times more than the poorest – for total other consumption except food.

As every country in transition, experiencing huge economic and social changes, Lithuania met considerable social problems: poverty of the lowest part of the society, their social isolation, unemployment. The concept of poverty is relative, so it can be measured in several ways. Here two concepts will be used: absolute line of poverty – minimal level of income necessary to satisfy the basic needs (in Lithuania it is expressed by 'MGL', i.e., computed Minimum Standard of Living) and relative line of poverty – 50% of the average consumption expenditure.

In 1998 16% of population in Lithuania were below the relative line of poverty, i.e., their monthly consumer expenditure was less than 69.18 USD, and 5.1% of population was even below the absolute line of poverty, i.e., their monthly consumer expenditure did not reach 49.2 USD. In 1997 the situation was worse: 16.6% and 8.4% accordingly.

The highest level of poverty was registered in rural, in households, where head of the family had the lowest education, where head of the family was under 30 or above 60 years old, in households living out of benefits, scholarships, savings and agriculture, the lowest – in the biggest cities, in households where the head

of the family had higher education and had income from self employment, such as business, handicrafts, free professional activity.

The following table illustrates subjective estimation of living conditions by households themselves, differing by the living place, education of the head of the family, social-economic group of the head of the family, type of the household and sex of the head of the family (Survey Data on Household Income and Expenditure, 1999).

	Evaluation	Evaluation of living conditions				
	We are poor	We are	We are			
	or very poor	middle	well-off			
Total	26.4	71.8	1.7			
By living place						
Urban	26.7	71.6	1.7			
5 biggest cities	26.5	71.7	1.8			
Other towns	27.0	71.4	1.6			
Rural	26.0	72.4	1.5			
By education of the head of the house	hold					
Primary or less	34.8	64.3	0.9			
Basic education	35.7	63.9	0.4			
Secondary education	27.0	71.4	1.6			
Higher education (vocational school)	22.7	75.5	1.8			
Highest education	13.2	83.0	3.8			
By social -economic group of the head	d of the househo	old				
Agricultural workers	30.2	67.0	2.8			
Hired employees	22.0	76.2	1.8			
Self employed	12.5	80.7	6.8			
Pensioners	33.3	65.8	0.9			
Other	46.8	51.9	1.3			
By the type of the household						
Single person without children	33.4	65.2	1.4			
Single parent with children under 18	46.3	53.4	0.3			
Couple with children under 18	19.7	77.6	2.7			

Other households with children under 18	26.5	72.1	1.4				
Couple without children	20.8	77.7	1.5				
Other households without children	27.8	70.8	1.4				
By sex of the head of the household							
Male	21.5	76.1	2.4				
Female	32.2	67.0	0.8				

Only 10% of the respondents indicated that the financial situation of their household got a little bit better comparing with the situation one year ago. 56% responded that the situation remained the same, and 34% replied that the situation of their household got even worse. Half of the households, which indicated that their situation had worsened, pointed out the growth of prices as the main reason of that (Survey Data on Household Income and Expenditure).

In fact, consumer prices in Lithuania (April 1999 compared to April 1998) increased by 3.4% (1.5% in Latvia, and 0.8% in Estonia). Although prices for food dropped down by 6.0%, tariffs of communication increased by 18.7%, tariffs for housing, water, electricity, gas and fuel grew up by 9.0%, prices of alcoholic beverages and tobacco increased by 8.5%, and transport – by 5.7% (Economic and Social Development of Lithuania, 4/99).

30% of households, the situation of which had worsened, related that to unemployment. Rural dwellers were affected by unemployment even stronger.

According to the Department of Statistics by the Government of Lithuania (Survey Data...), to eliminate the absolute poverty in Lithuania almost 69 million Litas (17.25 million USD) are needed yearly, and to eliminate a relative poverty – 348 million Litas (87 million USD), which would amount to 0.16% and 0.8% of 1998 GDP accordingly.

EMPLOYMENT AND WAGE POLICY

In the IV Q of 1998 in Lithuania the number of employed population equaled 1'653.4 thousand. It was by 16.4 thousand less than in the III Q of 1998, and by 24 thousand less than in the IV Q of 1997. As compared to IV Q 1997, the

number of employed mostly decreased in agriculture, hunting and forestry, wholesale and retail trade, hotels and restaurants. The greatest number of employed in the IV Q of 1998 was in agriculture, hunting and forestry -21%, industry -19.9%, trade -14.4%.

511.5 thousand or 30.9% of employed worked in public sector (545.2 thousand in 1997, 1'332.9 thousand in 1991), and 1'141.9 thousand or 69.1% were employed in private sector (1'124.0 thousand in 1997, 564.7 thousand in 1991) (Economic and Social Development in Lithuania, 4/99).

The average net salary in Lithuania in March 1999 was 191.1 USD, while in March 1998 it amounted to 174 USD. The average net salary in public sector reached up to 205.78 USD, while that in private sector amounted to 175.5 USD.

By activities, the biggest earnings were those in monetary and financial intermediation, production and distribution of electricity, public administration and defence, administration of the State, post and telecommunications and compulsory social security activities. The lowest earnings were those in agriculture, hunting and related activities, fishing, hotels and restaurants, human health activities, health and social work.

However, it must not be forgotten that these numbers are supplied by the official statistics, and here the non-observed economy is not included. As the Department of Statistics informs us (Non-observed Economy in Lithuania, 1998), it could be asserted that in 1995 the non-observed economy in Lithuania accounted for 23.4% of the country's GDP (from which 7.4% because of statistical reasons, and 16% because of economic conditions). Therefore, we can also speak about non-observed income which actually explains how a large part of the society survives in a situation described by the official statistics. The households and business units strive to hide certain activities as well as income generated from it, to underreport wages in order to avoid taxes or to evade legal regulation of the activity and obligations arising from it. The basic sources of the non-observed income in household sector are:

- Additional unofficial earnings in cash paid side by side with the official salary,
- Unofficial labour in order to get better salary avoiding taxes and social contributions,
- Business trips abroad Russia, other CIS countries, Poland, China.

UNEMPLOYMENT

The number of unemployed in Lithuania in April 1999, as compared with April 1998, increased by 21.5 thousand or by 17.5%. According to the information provided by the National Labour Exchange of Lithuania the number of unemployed was 144.3 thousand as of 1 May 1999. The percentage of unemployed females made up 47.9%. The unemployment rate at the end of March 1999 amounted to 8.5% (10.1% in Latvia, 5.3% in Estonia) (Economic and Social Development in Lithuania, 4/99).

The demand for new professions, especially for those of higher qualifications has been increasing, though the decrease has been observed in the demand for unskilled labour force, as many huge plants have been shut down. Also, the demand for physicians, lawyers, teachers of foreign languages, police inspectors is great, particularly, in peripheral regions. Speaking about unemployment, one must also keep in mind laid-off workers who temporarily lost their jobs when factories did not have enough money for paying salaries, but did not fire them to avoid paying social benefits to them. Staying out of demand for several months these are not considered unemployed.

The labour market is still age and sex discriminating. It became especially difficult for a middle-aged person, even if highly qualified and educated, to find a new job if one happens to lose it. The employers are looking for all possible ways to reduce the costs, and do not want to employ elder people, fearing that in 3 or 5 years such a person would retire. Moreover, the young and highly educated, speaking languages and computer literate persons filled in the labour market, therefore, usually they are preferred into the competitive positions.

The same situation concerns young married women, which are 'expected' to leave on a maternal leave, or if with children – spend much of time with their ill children, therefore not favourable to employ. Although officially the equal rights are declared, the newspapers' adds declaring a certain age or a certain sex of a person to be employed are not exception.

By education, at the end of I Q 1999 most of the unemployed were unskilled (46.9%), 32.1% of them had vocational training, 15.7% had special secondary

education, and 5.3% were with higher education. Female unemployed tended to be more educated than male.

By age groups, 53.2% of unemployed were 30–49 years old, 15.1% - 19-24 years old, 12.0% had 25-29 years, and 10.4% were between 50 and 54 years old.

Unemployment benefits in April 1999 were paid to 23.5 thousand or 16.3% of unemployed. Minimum unemployment benefit in April was 33.75 USD, and maximum – 62.5 USD. During April 1999 7'200 vacancies were registered (Economic and Social...).

However, here again we have to take into consideration an informal employment. Households use services provided by unofficially employed people as these services are considerably cheaper. For example, according to the Department of Statistics, unofficially working population in 1995 amounted to 233 thousand or about 14% of all employed people. App. 39.4% of them were engaged in agriculture, 20.7% did unofficial work in construction and flat decoration, 18.5% were engaged in trade, hair-dressers and cosmetologists constituted up to 4.3%, etc. (Non-observed Economy in Lithuania, 1998).

EVERYDAY LIFE IN LITHUANIA

Vaida and Rimas are a young couple living in one of the towns of Lithuania. They both are 28 years old, and have been married for 8 years. They have a 6 years old daughter. They are living in a big 4-rooms apartment, and consider themselves to be really lucky for this luxury. Actually, it is the old apartment of Vaida's mother, a widow, who having lost her state-job in one of the plants, left it to her daughter and moved to a nearby village, to her boyfriend, to occupy themselves by growing vegetables and fruits and selling them in a town's market. That is how a young couple got their own home as they would have never afforded it with their own salaries. Vaida is a secretary at a state enterprise, and her salary is miserable – it covers only their monthly expenses for water, gas, electricity and heating of the apartment. She would rather prefer to be a house wife, but this money is needed. She can not find a better job with her secondary education, no foreign languages and no specific training. Rimas succeeded to graduate from Pedagogical University, but there was an abundance of teachers with his profile, and on the other hand, a salary of a teacher would be too small

to maintain a family, therefore, he is working as a driver in a private jointventure. His salary is three times that big as of his wife, so they can live. However, on the weekends they usually go to help Vaida' mother, so in return they always get vegetables and fruits they do not have to pay. As for clothing, they usually do this shopping once a month or so in the biggest market place of the Baltics, close to Vilnius, as everything is much cheaper there. Lately, they even bought a second-hand car there. In the mornings Vaida is leaving earlier from home, as she starts working at 7:30. Therefore, the task to take their daughter to the kindergarten is of her husband. He takes her there at 8:30, so at 9:00 he can be at work. In the afternoons Vaida finishes before, as her work time is fixed, and for this salary she would not even think about working extended hours. She picks up her daughter at 5:00, and they both go to the closest store to buy something for dinner. If there are no urgencies at Rimas' work, he comes home before 19:00, but it happens to work longer as well. They eat all together, and usually spend an evening at home, watching TV. They would love to go out sometimes, but there is nobody to stay with their daughter, except those rare days when Rimas' parents are taking her with them. Thou living close by, they both are still working, therefore do not have much time either, and in addition, there is Rimas' younger brother living with his family with them, so one grandchild is already present at home all the time. Vaida has an elder brother, too. He is 33 years old, divorced (it was a too early marriage, his bride being pregnant, so it finished in one year with a consequent child) and remarried with one more child. He is one of those small businessmen, buying clothes in Turkey and China and selling them in the market in Lithuania, which allows their family to live rather well. Vaida and Rimas would probably love to have one more child, but they do not think they could afford it now. They were never abroad, and they did not have vacations for several years: the job contract of Rimas is prolonged every month, so he is afraid to leave his work and find another person in his place after vacations. So, they relax on week-ends, going for a walk or meeting some friends at home – couples with children similar to them.

Egle and Paulius are another couple living in Vilnius the capital. Egle is 27 and Paulius is 29 years old. They are not married, and this was not approved by their parents, strong Catholics, who feared how the reaction of their relatives. Egle and Paulius both graduated from the University and both are good lawyers. Egle made an excellent career in one of commercial banks and Paulius is doing well

in a foreign company. They both are fluent in English, had much training abroad and travelling often on work purposes as well as during their yearly 4-weeks vacations. After staying for a year or so with Egle's mother (she is divorced after 15 years life with her husband), in her 3-rooms apartment, Egle took a credit at the bank she works for, so they bought a small apartment of their own. Their usual working week consists of five working days, Egle having strictly determined work time, and Paulius – much longer hours, as in their company nobody cares about clock until the work is done. However, bonuses compensate the efforts. They enjoy their free time, going to cinemas and concerts and do not plan children yet. They also help financially the parents of Paulius, who both being scientists of Academy of Science met difficulties after break-up of USSR, when financing national Academies from Moscow was cut-off. His mother is still working there thou the salary is low, just waiting for the moment of her retirement, and Paulius' father, being a talented programmer, hoped to do better in a private sector. However, in some years the company he worked for had bankrupted, and being his age he can not find a proper job now, as the labor market is full of young specialists. The situation of Egle's mother is better – she is a teacher of English in a secondary school for almost 30 years, and as her children are doing well, her salary is enough for herself. There is Egle's younger sister living with her still. She graduated from languages at the University. While working part-time as an assistant in a small publishing house, just for her social security, she is spending much more time unofficially doing translations from Swedish (she was studying in Sweden for a year with an exchange program) and getting well-paid for that. She could afford to rent a small apartment on her own, but she is too sorry to leave her mother alone.

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These two cases can give a brief understanding of an ordinary life in Lithuania.

FUTURE PROSPECTS

The economic crisis in Russia had grave effects on the development of Lithuanian economy in 1999. The growth of economy this year is expected to reach only 1-2%, and average yearly inflation – 2%. The income of national budget is going to be 1'500-2'000 million Litas less than expected before. During the first 5 months 1999, compared with the same period 1998, the export of Lithuania decreased by 24% (to CIS countries – by 66.7%), and import decreased by 19.7%. Foreign trade deficit of Lithuania in 5 months 1999 was

2'834 million Litas (708.5 million USD), or 29.2% less as compared to the same period 1998.

Although there are still many economic and social problems to be overcome in Lithuania, although the country could not avoid negative consequences, such as slowing down the growth of GDP, increase of unemployment, decrease of budget income, the annual report on development of Lithuanian economy for European Commission emphasises the progress of the country and points out the hope in 2000 to start negotiations on entering EU.

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Lithuanian Development Agency

FRAMEWORK OF WORKING LIFE

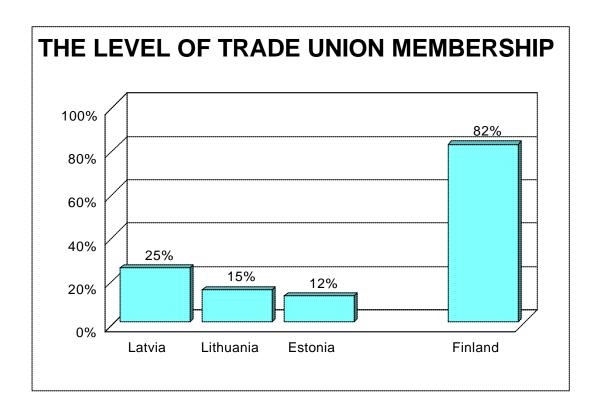
UNIONISATION AND BARGAINING

UNIONISATION

The level of trade union membership varies considerably from country to country and so do the influencing possibilities, duties and traditions of trade unions. In the Nordic countries the level of unionisation has traditionally been high, and corporate tripartite agreement practice has had a central role in forming the so-called Nordic welfare state model (see e.g. Esping-Andersen, 1990; Mishra, 1990; Kosonen, 1995).

In the Nordic countries the role of the trade union movement has been quite different from what it was in the former Soviet Union. The Baltic countries carry the legacy of the Soviet Union also with regard to the trade union movement, at least in the imagination of the people. The trade union played a central part in the Soviet Union's social policy; through it the members obtained all kinds of necessary benefits all the way from worker's holiday opportunities to consumer commodities. On the other hand, the trade union movement did not influence salary policies, because, in practice, salaries were prescribed from higher up (Rahikainen & Ylöstalo, 1997, 71).

In the present capitalistic market economy, the trade union movement in Baltic countries has inevitably fallen into a crisis, and it has had to find its role and redeem its legitimacy anew. The soreness of the change is visible particularly in the number of members, which in all the Baltic countries is rather low by international, especially European, standards.



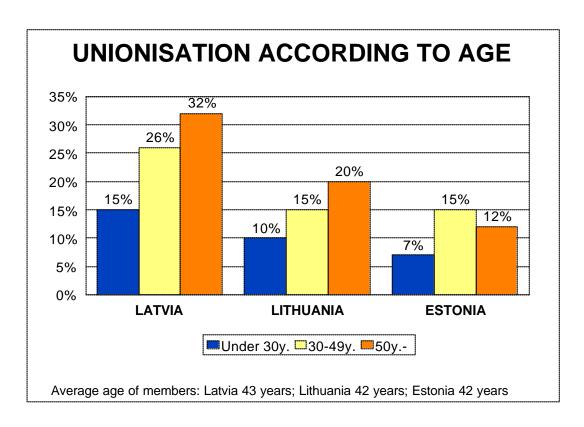
In Finland¹ unionisation is just as common as non-unionisation in the Baltic countries. The difference between Finland and the Baltic countries is truly great. It is possible that due to the interview technique² the level of unionisation in the Baltic countries fell slightly lower in the survey than what the actual level is. Presumably it is a question of few percentage points at most, i.e. no significant error has occurred. Furthermore, the set of questions was the same in all the Baltic countries, so the countries are comparable with each other.

In Latvia unionisation is significantly more common than in Lithuania and as much as twice more common than in Estonia. It is remarkable that in Estonia the level of unionisation has dropped by nearly half in two years. In autumn 1996 the rate of unionisation in Estonia was still 21 % (Rahikainen & Ylöstalo, 1997, 75), now it is only 12 %.

¹ The level of unionisation in Finland is obtained from the 1998 material of the Finnish Working Life Barometer.

² In the interview, the question preceding unionisation concerned the presence of the trade union movement at the respondent's workplace. Only if the trade union movement was represented at the workplace was the respondent asked about membership in a trade union. In other cases the question of membership was skipped.

UNIONISATION AND AGE

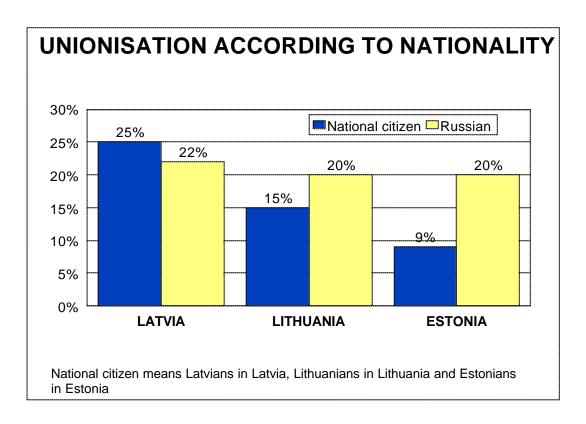


Unionisation is strongly linked to age in all Baltic countries. In Latvia and Lithuania the relationship between age and the rate of unionisation is linear: the older the respondent, the more probable is membership of the trade union. This is perhaps explained at least partly by the fact that the older generations started their working career during Soviet rule, when belonging to the trade union movement was self-evident. It is assumed that for some of the older workers membership is a tradition that they do not want to give up. The average age of members in all the countries was 42-43 years, i.e. it is amazingly similar³.

The rate of unionisation among young people in all the Baltic countries is low. It appears that the trade union movement has not been able to indicate its necessity to young workers. The differences in unionisation levels between the countries holds good also among young people, i.e. there are more young members in the trade union movement in Latvia and the least in Estonia.

³ The average age of all respondents was 39 years in Latvia and 40 years in Estonia and Lithuania, i.e. union members are approximately a little older than the average working people.

UNIONISATION AND NATIONALITY

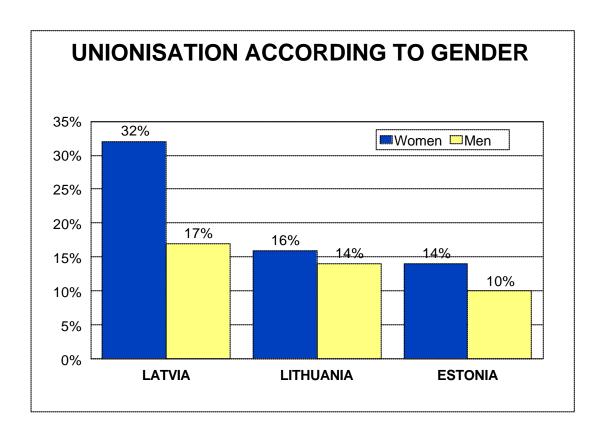


In Latvia where unionisation is already typical in the Baltic context, nationality does not explain unionisation. On the other hand, in Lithuania⁴ and particularly in Estonia, the Russian minority is more often unionised⁵ than the indigenous population. In both of these countries one fifth of the Russian workers belongs to the trade union. On the other hand, less than one tenth of Estonian workers are unionised, which is almost half of what it was two years ago (Rahikainen & Ylöstalo, 1997).

UNIONISATION AND GENDER

⁴ The used division between national citizens and Russians does not function well in Lithuania, since the Russian minority is small. Only 5.4 % of the respondents in Lithuania were Russians. The share of Russians was in Latvia 32.2 % and in Estonia 29.0 %.

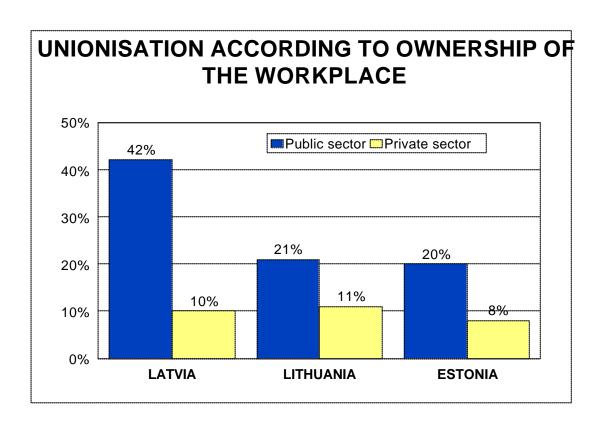
⁵ Unionised Estonian Russians work mostly in heavy industry (e.g. manufacturing and energy supply), and also in education. Unionised Estonians work often in public services (especially education and transport).



In all Baltic countries unionisation among women is more common than among men. Especially in Latvia the difference between women⁶ and men is enormous, almost double. In spite of this, unionisation of men in Latvia is not rare in the Baltic context, just the opposite. The proportion of unionised men in Latvia is greater than the proportion of unionised women in Lithuania and Estonia.

UNIONISATION AND THE OWNERSHIP OF THE WORKPLACE

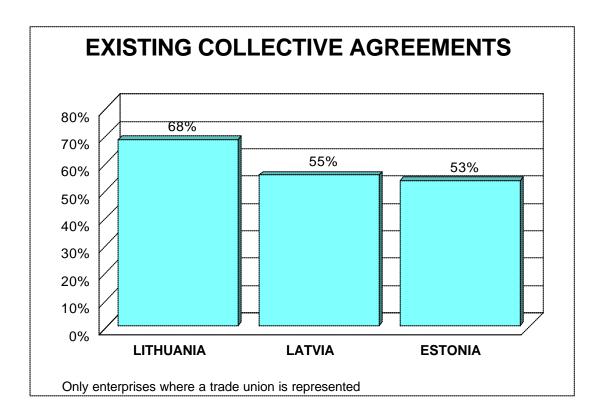
⁶ Women working in public services (especially education, health care/social welfare and transport/communication) are often union members in Latvia.



Unionisation varies significantly between workers in the public and private sectors. Belonging to a trade union is considerably more common in the public sector than in the private sector in all Baltic countries. In Lithuania and Estonia the level of unionisation of public sector workers is approximately double compared with private sector workers. In Latvia the corresponding difference is as much as quadruple.

Approximately one in ten of private sector workers are organised in these countries. It appears that the typical unionised worker is an elderly woman working in the public sector.

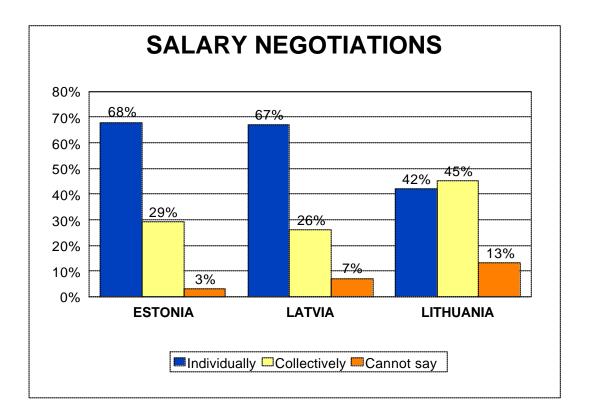
MAKING AGREEMENTS



Collective bargaining concerning some matters appears to be reasonably common in such enterprises where a trade union is represented. On the basis of answers given by the respondents, over half of the enterprises use collective bargaining at least to some extent. It is not possible to examine the actual content of the agreements in this connection.

The comparisons between the countries showed that collective bargaining occurs much more often in Lithuania. Over two thirds of the respondents who had a trade union represented at their workplace stated that there was collective bargaining at their workplace.

NEGOTIATIONS CONCERNING SALARIES



With regard to salary negotiations, the Baltic countries are divided clearly into two camps: in Estonia and Latvia workers negotiate their salary mainly individually, whereas in Lithuania collective bargaining is even slightly more common than making individual agreements.

Over two thirds of Estonia's and Latvia's salary earners negotiate their salary individually, whereas less than half of the Lithuanians do so. A considerable number of Lithuanians did not know how to answer this question, i.e. it may be assumed that they either do not understand the principles of bargaining or then individual and collective bargaining works side by side and therefore the choice is difficult.

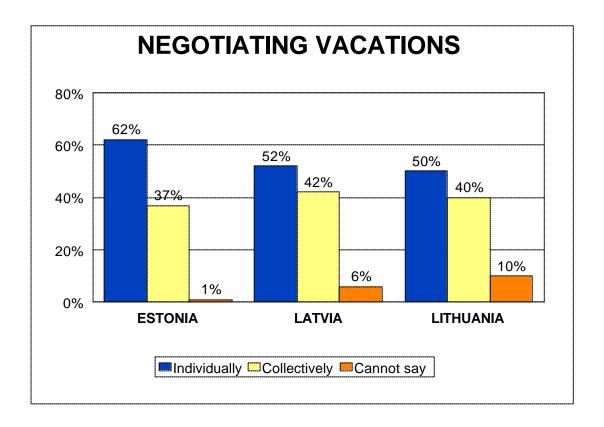
The ownership of the workplace has a strong influence on whether negotiations on salaries are held individually or collectively. In all these countries a clear majority of the private sector workers stated that salary negotiations are held mainly individually. The greatest difference between public and private sector negotiation practice is in Lithuania where over two thirds of the public sector

workers stated that they negotiate their salaries mainly collectively and correspondingly nearly the same proportion of private sector workers do so individually.

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In Lithuania and Estonia the negotiation practice is also linked to some extent to gender. Men negotiate their salaries individually in the countries in question more frequently than women, while in Latvia individual bargaining is just as common among men as among women. Negotiation practice is not linked to the age of the worker in any Baltic country.

NEGOTIATING CONCERNING VACATIONS



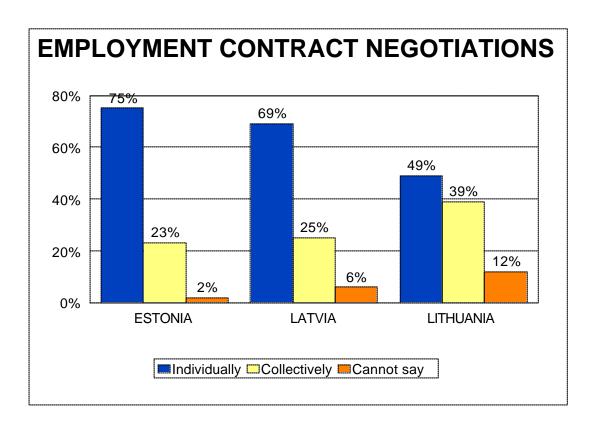
In all the Baltic countries vacations are negotiated more often individually than collectively. Clearly the most individual negotiations on vacations occur in Estonia where nearly two thirds of the respondents stated that they make agreements on their vacations individually. In practice, Latvia and Lithuania are identical on this question. In both countries there were 10 % more of those who agree on their vacation individually than those who agree collectively.

In all the Baltic countries making individual agreements concerning vacations is clearly more common in the private sector than in the public sector. In Estonia individual agreements are so common that even in the public sector over half stated that they agree their vacations individually.

Men make individual agreements concerning their vacation more often than women. The difference between the genders in agreement practice is greatest in Lithuania where half of the women agree on their vacation individual and half collectively. Of Lithuanian men, nearly two thirds (62 %) make individual agreements concerning their vacations.

The worker's age does not influence the agreement practice regarding vacations any more than it influences agreements on salaries. Individual agreements are just as common in all age groups.

NEGOTIATIONS REGARDING THE DURATION AND PERMANENCE OF AN EMPLOYMENT CONTRACT

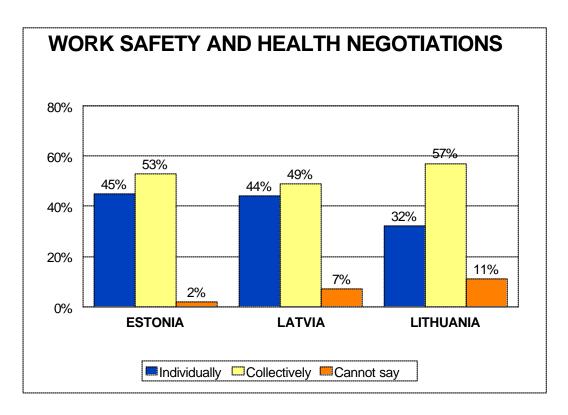


The duration and permanence of an employment contract is negotiated more often individually than collectively in all the countries. In Estonia and Latvia the majority of interviewed persons stated that they agree these matters individually. In Lithuania those making individual agreements amount to 10 % more than those making collective agreements.

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As is the case regarding salaries and vacations, also the duration and permanence of employment contracts are negotiated individually clearly more often in the private sector than in the public sector. On the other hand, gender or age do not significantly affect whether employment contracts are negotiated individually or collectively. Even though the effect of age on contracting is not statistically significant⁷, it is noticeable that in all the countries the younger workers (under 30 years) stated that they agree on the conditions of their employment individually more often than the older respondents.

NEGOTIATIONS ON WORKERS' SAFETY AND HEALTH AT WORK



⁷ Pearson's x2 values regarding age and the practice for negotiating the employment contract are country by country as follows: Lithuania 0.074, Latvia 0.213 and Estonia 0.385.

Work safety is negotiated more often collectively than individually in all the countries. Work safety questions differ noticeably with regard to the negotiation practice from the other factors (salaries, vacations, and the duration and permanence of employment contracts).

On the basis of the data, the traditional collective bargaining practice is more common in Lithuania than elsewhere in the Baltic States. This is also true of work safety matters. Only approximately one third of Lithuanians said that they made agreements on work safety matters individually, whereas in Estonia and Latvia nearly half of the workers did so.

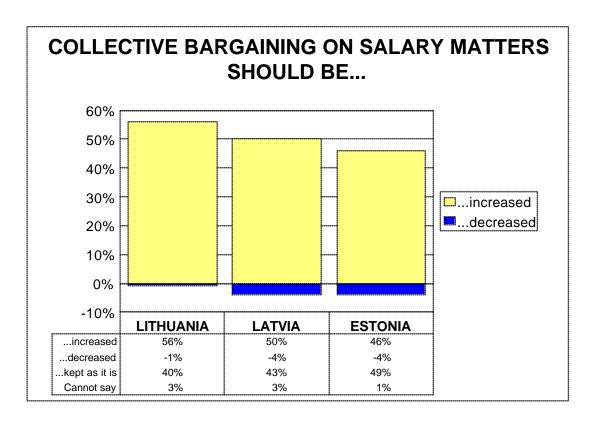
Just as in the above questions regarding salaries, vacations and the duration and permanence of employment contracts, individual agreements are significantly more typical in the private sector than in the public sector in matters concerning work safety.

In Estonia and Latvia the age of the respondent had some effect on the agreement practice. Intuitively it might be assumed that young people who do not belong to any trade union, and who have been used to bargaining individually throughout their work history, would act in the same way also in matters concerning work safety. However, it is surprising that the situation is just the opposite. The youngest respondents (under 30 years) stated more frequently than older ones that work safety questions had been agreed collectively. Of the Estonian young people, 60 % had agreed their work safety matters collectively and 39 % individually. Of the Latvian young people, 54 % had agreed collectively and 38 % individually. The confusion increased even more when as much as half (51 %) of the older generation (over 50 years) said that work safety questions were solved by negotiating individually.

In Lithuania a comparable difference regarding age does not exist. A clear majority in all age groups agree work safety matters collectively. On the other hand, gender does affect the agreement practice to some extent in Lithuania. Men agree on work safety questions individually more often than women. However, it should be noted that the majority of men also agree collectively. In Estonia and Latvia gender does not affect agreements on work safety matters significantly.

THE NEED FOR COLLECTIVE BARGAINING

Generally speaking, collective bargaining in the Baltic States has been overpowered by individual agreements. The only clear exception to this are questions related to work safety. However, it would be important to know whether workers are satisfied with this trend that stresses individualism, or do the people hope for increased collective bargaining.

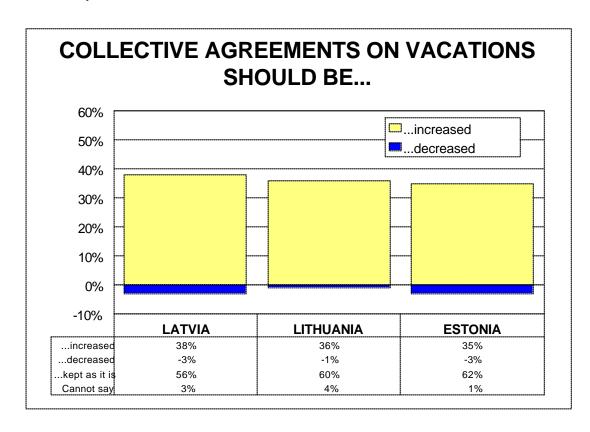


The need for increasing collective bargaining on salary matters from the pres??ent level is evident. Overall, approximately half of the workers hoped that there would be more collective bargaining on salaries than at present. Only in Estonia there were more of those who were satisfied with the present situation, but even there nearly half (46 %) hoped for a more collective practice.

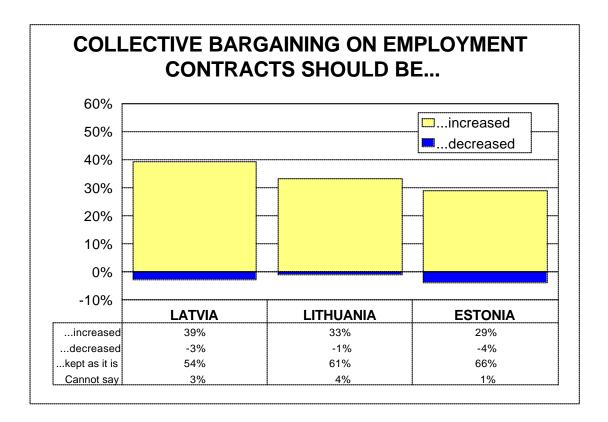
In the comparison between the countries, Lithuania differs from the others in questions regarding salaries. It is evident from the above that in Lithuania salaries are agreed collectively much more often than in the other countries. When examining the need for more collective bargaining than at present, Lithuania is in the lead again. In other words; in Lithuania salaries are agreed collectively more often than in other Baltic countries; but in spite of this, or because of this, there

is a greater desire in Lithuania to increase collective bargaining on salaries than elsewhere. It is slightly odd that in Lithuania the majority of people who already agree on their salaries collectively hope for more collective bargaining on salary agreements. Could it be that this is rather a desire to deepen collective salary bargaining and strengthen its position at the workplace? Another possibility is that the respondents in question regard the matter more generally as a labour market policy practice, in which case increasing collective bargaining is not so much a question of the respondents own situation, but a hoped for trend at the community level.

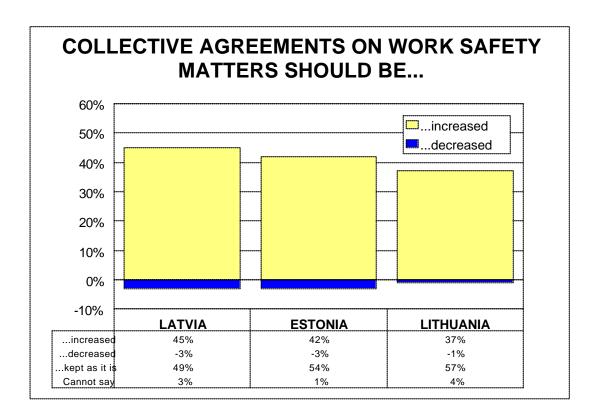
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With regard to vacations, there is moderate satisfaction with the present agreement practice. In all the countries over half of the respondents stated that they were satisfied with the present manner of negotiating vacations. However, it should be noted that extensive support was also found for increasing collective agreements. In all the countries, over one third hoped that there would be more collective bargaining on vacations than at present. Only a very few hoped for the opposite.



It is also desired in most cases that negotiations concerning the duration and permanence of employment contracts be dealt with in accordance with the present practice. In all the countries the majority were satisfied with the prevailing situation. The need for more collective bargaining in these matters is nearly the same as for employment contract negotiations and vacations. Approximately one third desire more collective agreements than at present.



It is evident from above that matters regarding work safety and health are regotiated collectively more frequently than individually in all the countries. Approximately half of the respondents are satisfied with the prevailing practice, but nearly half of Latvians and Estonians wished for an increase in the present level of agreements on work safety matters. In Lithuania the collective bargaining practice even in work safety matters is more common than in the other countries under comparison, so the need for increasing collective bargaining is not quite as great as in the others.

It appears that there is no desire to extend individual bargaining to questions related to health. Apparently these matters are seen to be more important than salaries and job security, or then confidence in individual agreement wavers for some other reason. Just in occupational safety matters the need for the trade union movement is apparent and it is offered a clear place for improving its profile.

SUMMARY

Unionisation is quite rare in the Baltic States. In the comparison between the countries, Latvia differs clearly from the others, since one quarter of the workers are members of the trade union. Membership in the other countries is noticeably more uncommon. In all the Baltic countries membership is more common among older people than among the young. Furthermore, women are more often unionised than men, and workers in the public sector are more commonly unionised than workers in the private sector. In all the countries the most typical member of the trade union is a woman aged 40-50 working in the public sector.

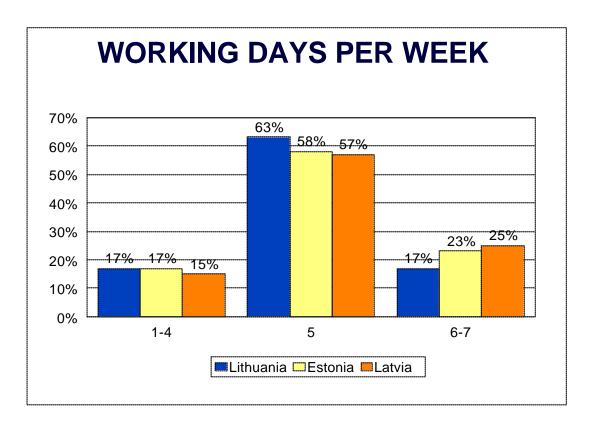
Lithuania has the most collective agreements. Even though unionisation is quite rare, questions related to work safety are negotiated more often collectively than individually in all the countries. Furthermore, approximately 40 % of the respondents wished for even more collective agreements in matters related to work safety than at present.

Other matters (salaries, vacations and the duration of the employment contract/the permanence of the job) are generally agreed individually in Estonia and Latvia. In all the countries approximately half of the respondents wished for more collective salary negotiations than at present. Only in Estonia those satisfied with the present situation numbered slightly more than those wishing for collective salary bargaining. With regard to vacations and employment contract matters approximately one third wished for more collective negotiations.

In questions concerning occupational safety as well as in questions concerning salaries, vacations and employment contracts, there are significant differences in agreement cultures in the public and private sectors. In the private sector individual agreements are significantly more frequent than in the public sector. This in itself is understandable, since it is not possible to deviate from the customary regulations prevailing in the public administration and in enterprises owned by the public administration as easily as in the private sector.

WORKING TIME

NUMBER OF WORKING DAYS PER WEEK

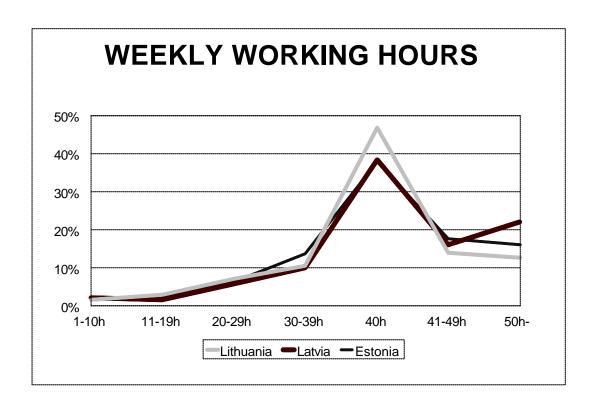


A working week of five working days is the prevalent practice in all countries. Over half of those attending work are working five days a week by tradition. Yet, a considerable part are working more than this, especially in Estonia and Latvia. Actually every fourth Latvian worked six or seven days during the week preceding the inquiry.

WEEKLY WORKING HOURS

The figure below shows, how the countries are very close to each other as to the weekly working hours distribution. As seen from the Finnish⁸ angle, all the Baltic Countries have fairly long working weeks.

⁸ The average length of a working week among wage earners in Finland is 37,3 h. Approximately 7 % of the working Finns work over 50 h./week (Työvoimatutkimusaineisto 1998, Tilastokeskus). Part-time work is not very common in any of the countries studied. 10 % of Estonians, Latvians and also Finns work under 30 h./week. In Lithuania the corresponding portion is 12 %.



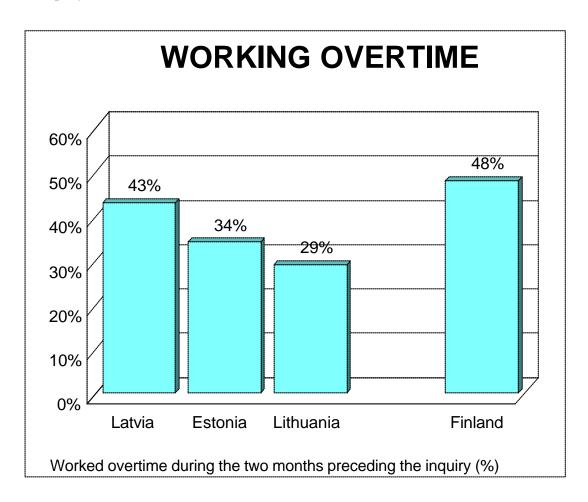
Part-time work is relatively rare. About 10 % of the respondents worked less than 30 hours a week. In all the countries, a clearly larger proportion of people had very long (over 50 hours) working weeks, rather than short (less than 30 hours) weeks. Of the Latvians, more than every fifth had worked at least 50 hours during the week preceding the inquiry.

In all countries, those doing long working weeks are often men. In Latvia and Estonia, almost half of the men (45 % in both countries) worked over 40 hours per week. In all the countries, the traditional normal working time is "still going strong". Almost half of the Lithuanians, and not quite 40 % of the Estonians and Latvians, worked 40 hours a week. A differentiation of the weekly working time takes place through prolongation of the working time, but still the typical way of working is 40 hours per week, which became familiar during the socialistic era.

WORKING OVERTIME

Overtime work is quite typical in the Baltic Countries. This was already seen implicitly from the length of the weekly working time. In Latvia, very long working weeks as well as overtime work are more common than in the comparable countries. Slightly less than half of Latvians who attended work (43 %) had done overtime work during the two months preceding the inquiry. About one

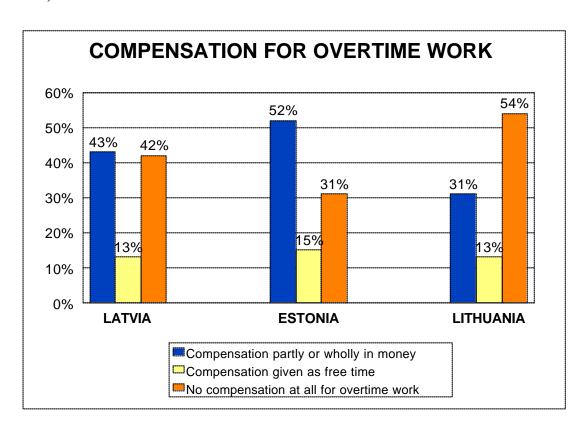
third (34 %) of the Estonians and the Lithuanians (29 %) had worked overtime during the same period. For comparison, it may be mentioned that overtime work is done in Finland even more than in the Baltic Countries. On the basis of the material of the Finnish working life barometer (1998) almost every second (48 %) work-attending Finn had done overtime during the two months preceding the inquiry.

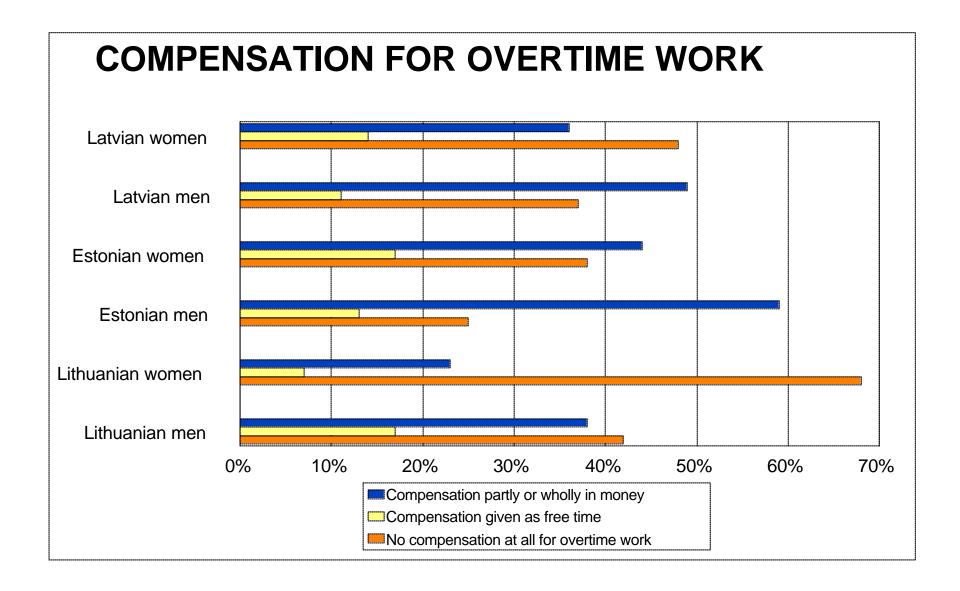


COMPENSATION FOR OVERTIME WORK

Working overtime is linked to the gender. In all countries, men work overtime considerably more generally than women. Also as for the ways of compensating overtime work, men and women differ from each other. In all the Baltic Countries, as in Finland, men receive compensation for overtime work more often in money than do women. With the exception of Lithuania, women more often than men are compensated for overtime work by being given free time.

Overtime work is done very often without any sort of separate compensation. In all the Baltic Countries, women clearly more often than men work overtime without any separate compensation. Unpaid overtime work is done most often in Lithuania. In this respect Finland deviates from the Baltic Countries, because in Finland there is no connection between uncompensated overtime work and gender. In Finland, men and women work overtime without any separate compensation on an equally frequent basis (Working Life Barometer material, 1998).



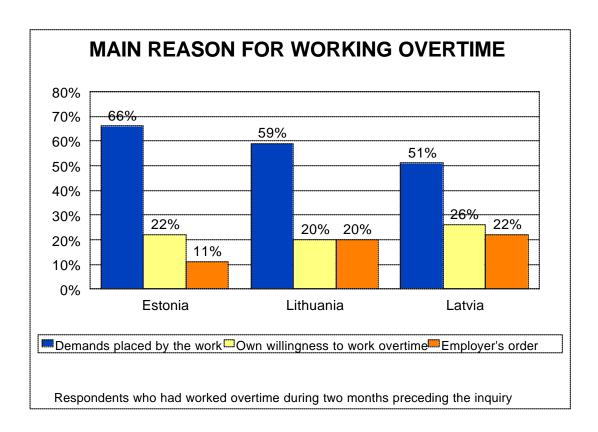


Those working overtime do so most often regularly and continuously. In other words: the overtime work is heaped on the same persons. In Lithuania, two thirds (65 %) of those working overtime said that they did so on a regular basis. This is very significant, because more than half of them do not get any compensation for their overtime work. In Latvia and Estonia as well, a clear majority of those working overtime said that they did so regularly. These countries differ from Lithuania in the sense that overtime work is often compensated in some way.

Simplified, it seems as though the average overtime work per day in Lithuania is one hour, and no separate compensation is given for it. In Latvia, the role of overtime work is considerably greater. A considerable amount of overtime work is done, being also compensated in some way.

REASONS FOR WORKING OVERTIME

In all countries, the main reason for overtime work lies in the work itself and in the demands it places. Two thirds of the Estonians who worked overtime stated that the main reason for overtime work was the nature of the tasks. Of the Lithuanians who worked overtime, 59 % gave the same reply, whereas the figure for the Latvians was 51 %.



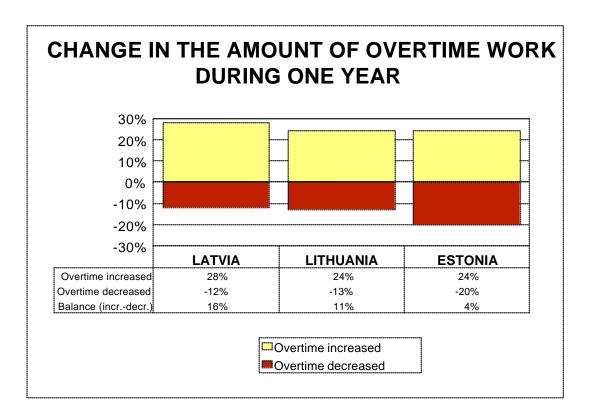
The Latvians work and also want to work overtime slightly more frequently than the comparable countries. About a quarter of the Latvians who had worked overtime said that they do so voluntarily, of their own will. For about one fifth of the Estonian and Lithuanian respondents, the main reason for working overtime was their own willingness to do so.

AMOUNT OF AND CHANGE IN OVERTIME WORK

As to the amount of hours in overtime work, the countries differ from each other. As seen above, very long working weeks are being done in Latvia more frequently than in Estonia and Lithuania. Latvians work an average (median) of 10 hours overtime per week, which is twice as much as in Lithuania. The average overtime work in Estonia is six hours per week.

We also asked persons who had worked overtime about changes in the amount of overtime work during the year preceding the inquiry. In all the Baltic Countries overtime work had increased, i.e. the majority of those having worked overtime said that the amount of overtime work had increased rather than decreased. The balance in the figure below means the difference between respondents who had

experienced increased and reduced overtime. The difference is positive for all the countries.



Latvia had the greatest number of persons whose overtime work had increased, and the minimum number of those whose overtime work had decreased during the preceding year. As a net effect it can be said that Latvia had the biggest increase in the amount of overtime work. In Lithuania and Estonia, less than a quarter (24 %) of those having worked overtime said that the amount of overtime work had increased. Estonia had the majority of persons whose overtime work had decreased. As a net effect overtime work in Estonia had increased only slightly.

EMPLOYMENT CONTRACTS

	ESTONIA	LITHUANIA	LATVIA
A written permanent employment contract	64 %	63 %	60 %
A written fixed-term employment contract	22 %	23 %	28 %
A written contract for doing a specific work	3 %	1 %	3 %
No written labour agreement	11 %	13 %	8 %
No answer	0 %	0 %	1 %
Total	100 %	100 %	100 %

Wage-earners only

In all the countries, two thirds of the wage-earners had a written, permanent employment contract. More than one fifth of the Estonians and Lithuanians and over one fourth of the Latvian wage-earners had signed a fixed-term employment contract. Additionally, a minor proportion of the respondents had a written contract for doing a specific work. The proportions of those with a fixed-term contract in the Baltic countries are extremely high in an international comparison. For example, in Finland the percentage received through the same measurement method is 18⁹. Even Finland's percentage is the second highest in the EU. In all the Baltic countries, the proportion of employees with a fixed-term employment contract is relatively greater than in Finland.

There is practically no difference between men and women as far as the fixed-term employment contracts are concerned. This is true in all the Baltic countries. Finland differs from them clearly in this respect because the Finnish women are more often than Finnish men employed with a fixed-term contract. In the Baltic countries in general, the practices of contracting are not linked to gender with the exception of Latvia where the men have only oral, actually illegal, employment contracts much more often than the women.

Employees with fixed-term contracts can be found in both public and private sectors. In Latvia and Lithuania, older workers have permanent contracts more often than younger, whereas in Estonia, age does not play any role in this respect.

⁹ Quality of Work Life Survey, 1997, Statistics Finland

It shall be noted that approximately every tenth wage-earner in the Baltic countries have not made his/her employment contract in writing, which is illegal. It is prescribed by the law in all the Baltic countries that the employment contract must be made in writing. As many as every fifth of the persons working in the newer Estonian enterprises had not signed a written contract; the corresponding proportion in Latvia was 15 %. These proportions are high but, nonetheless, not surprising. What is surprising, is the 14 per cent proportion of similar cases in the older Lithuanian state-owned establishments. If breaches against the law in state-owned establishments are this common, there arises a question of what purpose the law actually serves.

	% of respondents who have signed some extra agreement
ESTONIA	10 %
LATVIA	6 %
LITHUANIA	4 %

Since it is laid down by the law that the employment agreements be made in writing, it is possible that the employee was made to sign an extra contract by the employer, the idea of which is to make the employee to surrender some of his/her rights or benefits for the employer's benefit; in other words, to water down the security offered by the agreement. An example of such an extra document could be e.g. a notice of dismissal signed by the employee, left with the employer with the date field open. This document could then be used by the employer. We surveyed the existence of such activity with a separate question¹⁰. The answers showed that such activity is relatively infrequent in Latvia and Lithuania but in Estonia, every tenth of the wage-earners admitted to have signed some kind of additional, their benefits impairing agreement in addition to the employment contract.

¹⁰ Question 3. Besides the employment contract, have you, through the initiative of the employer, signed any other extra agreement (such as a shorter paid leave, large volume of work to be covered, an agreement on your enrollment and dismissal with no specification of the date etc)?

SUMMARY

From the Finnish point of view, all the Baltic Countries have long working weeks. The most typical is to work 40 hours during five days a week. Yet, a considerably great number in the Baltic Countries work more than that. The decidedly greatest amount of work is done in Latvia, where as much as 42 % of those attending work have working weeks of more than 40 hours. In all the countries, it is often men who have long working weeks.

It is very common to work overtime in the Baltic Countries. In Finland, it is indeed even more common. As with long working weeks, overtime work is clearly more typical of men than of women. Men often receive overtime compensation in money, whereas women often work overtime without any compensation or get free time as compensation.

Overtime work follows the pattern of long working weeks even according to the order of the countries. The greatest amount of overtime work is done in Latvia and the smallest amount in Lithuania. In Lithuania, overtime work is clearly most frequently done without any separate compensation.

The proportion of the employees working on fixed-term contracts is high in all the Baltic countries. Furthermore, quite often the working agreement is made only orally which is actually illegal.

SALARY AND LIVELIHOOD

SALARY ARRANGEMENTS

SALARY PAYMENT BASIS	LATVIA	LITHUANIA	ESTONIA
Fixed monthly salary	60 %	55 %	46 %
Only performance pay	21 %	22 %	22 %
(contract fee, sales commission, etc.)			
Fixed monthly salary + results fee	14 %	17 %	25 %
Other practice	2 %	2 %	4 %
No answer	3 %	4 %	3 %
TOTAL	100 %	100 %	100 %

A fixed monthly salary is the most typical salary system in all the countries. However, only a little over half of Latvians and Lithuanians and less than half of Estonians were in the scope of this traditional salary arrangement. Alternative and supplementary salary arrangements have been taken into use quite generally in all the Baltic countries.

The salaries of over one fifth of the respondents is determined purely on the basis of performance. Their salary is based on sales commission, contracts and other similar factors, and it does not contain any fixed basic amount. The proportion of those who are in the scope of this salary system is considerably large, since in Latvia an Lithuania there are distinctly less of those who receive as their security a fixed basic salary which is supplemented by a performance/results payment portion.

It may be considered that a fixed monthly salary combined with various kinds of supplementary income based on success indicates trendy and suitable salary flexibility appropriate to the "spirit of the age" (see e.g. Atkinson, 1984, NUTEK, 1999), where the individual or group may directly influence the amount of the salary with their own efforts. However, a basic salary would bring a necessary basic security and create a secure framework within which to function. In Estonia one in four of the respondents were in the scope of a salary arrangement of this type, whereas in Latvia and Lithuania the corresponding proportion was considerably smaller.

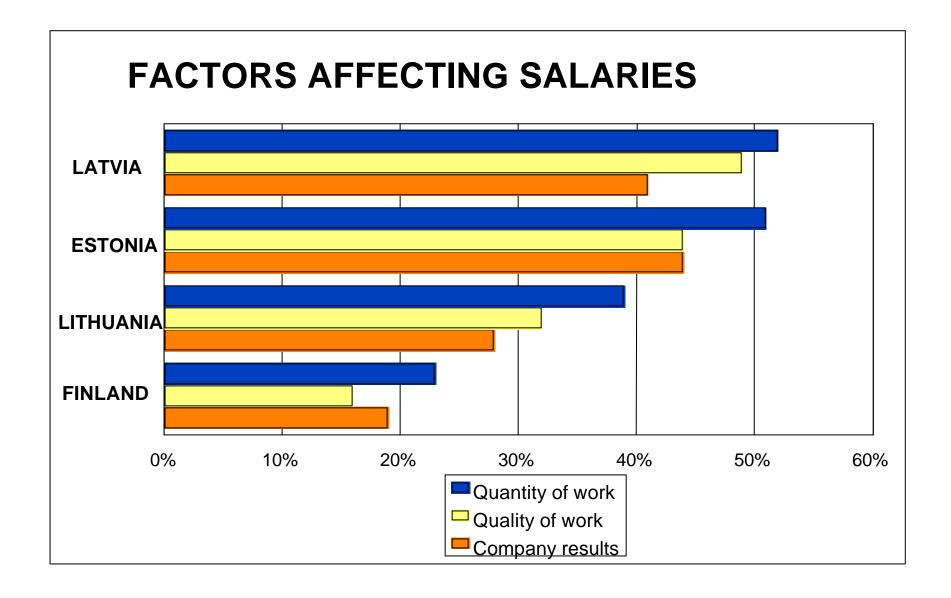
The payment basis differs substantially between men and women. In all the Baltic countries women are on fixed monthly salaries significantly more frequently than men. This difference between the sexes is the same in both the private and the public sectors. In other words, salary flexibility is more typical among men than among women.

The differences between the sectors are also significant. In the public sector, work is done more often on a fixed monthly salary than in the private sector. However, also in the public sector, men's salaries are determined fairly often at least in part on the basis of results or some other corresponding factor. Over one third of men working in the public sector in Estonia and Lithuania stated that they received some form of result payment.

FACTORS AFFECTING SALARIES

We also examined the factors which affect the amount of the salaries. In all the Baltic countries, just as in Finland, of the measured individual factors, the most significant was the *amount of work*. As much as half of Latvian and Estonian respondents stated that the amount of work affected salaries significantly. Correspondingly, in Finland only one quarter of workers said that the amount of work affected the salary level significantly (material of the Working Life Barometer, 1998). Generally speaking, in Finland individuality and locality have significantly less importance on the formation of the salary than in Baltic countries.

The quality of work was the second most significant of the three surveyed factors affecting salaries in the Baltic countries. The results produced by the enterprise or place of business/department had the least significance, it was stated. However, even this factor was not without some significance. As many as 44 % of Estonians (41 % of Latvians and 28 % of Lithuanians) said that the success of the enterprise affected the salary level significantly. In Finland, the same was felt by 19 % of workers.



The comparison between the countries indicates how salaries in Latvia and Estonia are very often determined by the above mentioned factors. In Lithuania, collective tradition and practice still have a stronger influence and therefore the above mentioned "variable factors" have a more limited effect on the formation of the salary level. However, all the Baltic countries are places where salary levels are formed more in accordance with advanced individual processes when compared with Finland. This is fully understandable, since in Finland the general binding nature of collective bargaining sets the framework for agreements. In countries with a low level of organisation and weak trade union movements, agreements on salaries and other matters occurs inevitably from the initiative and requirements of enterprises and other employers, which in itself increases individuality and local differences in the contents of agreements.

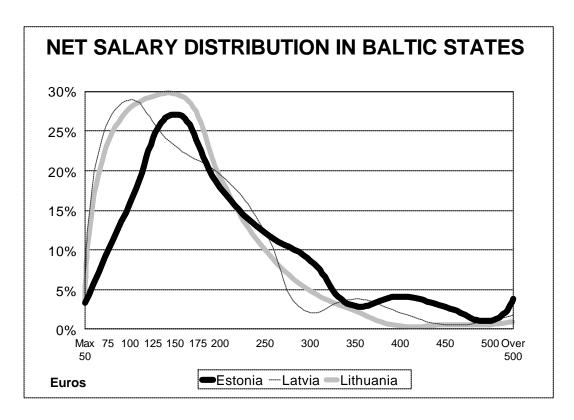
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It is evident implicitly from the above that many feel that the effect of individual factors on the determination of salaries has already gone too far in the Baltic states. This is indicated by the fact that there is a great need for increasing collective salary agreements. The objective evaluation of the amount of work and its quality in forming the salary level may be problematic. Without generally approved criteria, the evaluation of work may be arbitrary. If the effect on salaries is considerable, the transparency of criteria is an important condition for recognising fairness. The third factor affecting salaries, the results of the enterprise or work group, may mean that the risks inherent in business are transferred to the workers through salary arrangements. Presumably many workers desire rules of the game which are clearer than those at present, and which are openly discussed and approved for use as a basis for determining the level of salaries. Collective agreements could possibly satisfy this need.

SALARY LEVELS

We also studied the salary levels of workers. We asked how much the net salary is, i.e. earnings after taxes. This remaining balance in hand gives an indication of the standard of living, but naturally the countries cannot be directly compared or placed in order of superiority. Purchasing power is tied to the price level, which varies both within the countries by regions and particularly between the countries. The country-specific essays at the beginning of the report present in a simplified manner the taxation procedure, legislation on the minimum salary and the rates of inflation of the countries. In this connection, we analysed the

salary variation, and the relation of salaries to the worker's gender, age and workplace history (new vs. old enterprises).



	ESTONIA	LATVIA	LITHUANIA		
Median	168	125	128		
Average	199	158	152		
Maximum salary	1260	1170	1380		

The above net salary distribution illustrates roughly the differences in net salaries and salary distribution in the countries. Of course, the results are not altogether accurate, since it is not possible to measure salaries accurately with the interview material. Furthermore, rates of exchange 11 may slightly affect the amount of the salary.

¹¹ The rates of exchange used are the average rates of the Bank of Finland/OKO on 24.3.1999. 1 Euro is 15.65 Estonian crowns, 0.64 Latvian Lats and 4.35 Lithuanian Litas.

Estonia differs clearly from the others in the amounts of the salaries. Both the arithmetic average and the median are clearly greater than in Latvia and Lithuania. The average Estonian earns a net monthly salary which is about 40 Euros more than corresponding persons in Latvia and Lithuania. However, it is not a self-evident fact that the Estonians' purchasing power is better by the same margin. Earnings have not been proportioned according to purchasing power.

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Due to variations in price levels, income distribution is an object of research that is of more interest than the amount of the salary itself. It appears that Lithuania is clearly a country with a more even distribution of income than Estonia and Latvia. The fairly even income distribution in Lithuania is interesting in so far as there, as well as in the other Baltic countries, salary taxation is proportional, which does not equalise income distribution like the progressive taxation system does in all the EU countries. Perhaps collective salary agreements have partly influenced the income differences which have remained reasonably low.

In Lithuania the minimum salary¹² is at a level which is substantially higher than in the countries being compared, and therefore a greater proportion of those working earn just this amount or something close to it each month. In Lithuania the minimum salary appears to have a fairly normative role in forming salaries. In Latvia and Estonia the level of the minimum salary is so low in relation to the cost of living, that clearly a larger proportion of workers earn considerably more.

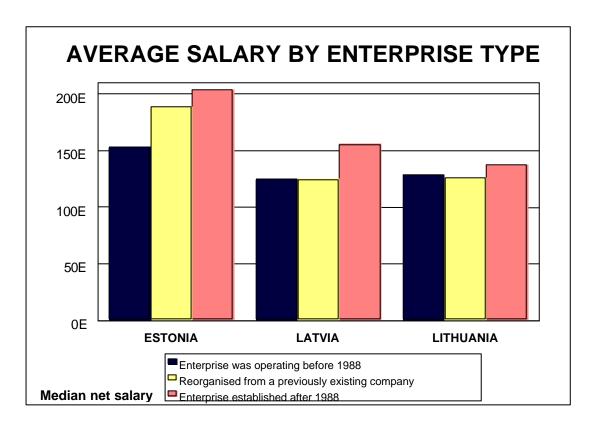
Due to a more uneven distribution of income, there are noticeably more well-paid persons in Latvia and particularly in Estonia than in Lithuania. Well-paid in this context means good earnings in relation to the country's average, not in absolute terms. For example, persons earning a net salary of over 350 Euros per month amounted to 12 % in Estonia and 6 % in Latvia, and only 3 % in Lithuania.

¹² In Lithuania the statutory minimum wage for full-time work is about 99 Euros per month, of which about 84 Euros is left after taxation. Correspondingly, in Latvia the minimum wage before taxation is about 78 Euros of which the net amount is about 61 Euros. Tax deductions may be obtained on wages if there are children to be supported, so the amount varies according to the life situation. The above mentioned amounts are calculated without deductions. The minimum wage in Estonia is about 80 Euros, and the net amount after taxation is about 67 Euros. There are no child or other deductions in Estonia.

However, in all the countries there is a very small group of very well-paid persons who have exceptionally large earnings compared with the general level in the country. Four per cent of Estonians, two per cent of Latvians and one per cent of Lithuanians earn a net salary of over 500 Euros per month.

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NEW AND OLD ENTERPRISES



In all the countries, better salaries are paid in the private sector than in the public sector. There is an even clearer difference in salaries between the so-called 'new' and 'old' enterprises. In new enterprises established after 1988, the majority of which are privately owned, considerably higher salaries are paid than in workplaces which operated before that; a part of these are owned by the public sector and some have been privatised.

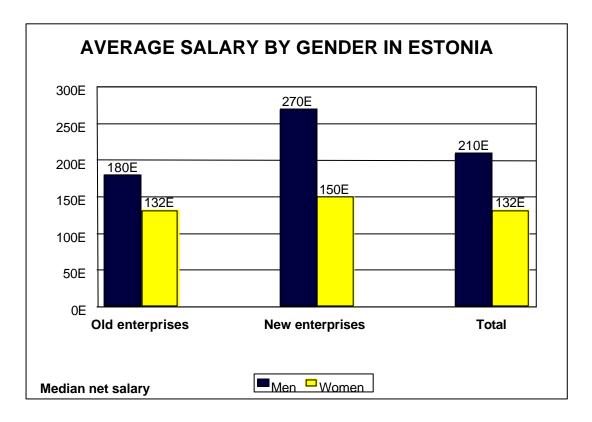
Some of the enterprises/institutions operating before 1988 have reorganised thoroughly. Often they have also been privatised. The salary levels in these enterprises in Latvia and Lithuania do not differ from the old enterprises/institutions which have not been reorganised after 1988. Of the latter, the majority are, of course, state workplaces. Only in Estonia the salary level is

considerably higher in old but reorganised enterprises compared with old but not reorganised enterprises.

The income distribution in Lithuania, which is clearly more even than in the other countries, is evident also from the above figure. In Lithuania new enterprises pay only slightly better salaries than old enterprises (either reorganised or not reorganised).

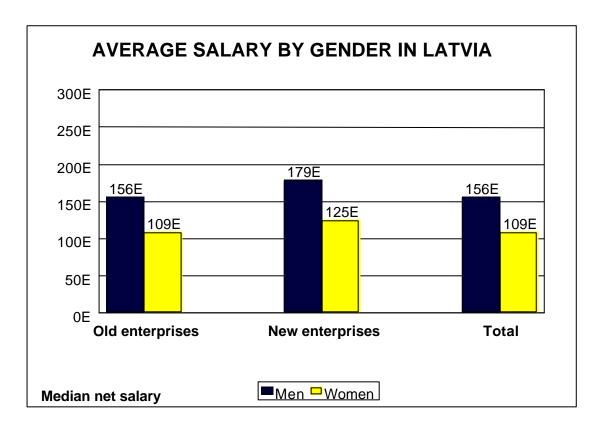
SALARY DIFFERENCES BETWEEN THE GENDERS

Salary differences between men and women are quite large in all the Baltic countries. The following is a study of salary differences between the genders country by country in general, and also according to new enterprises (established after 1988) and old enterprises (established before 1988). The above mentioned old, but reorganised enterprises are grouped in this study with other old enterprises.

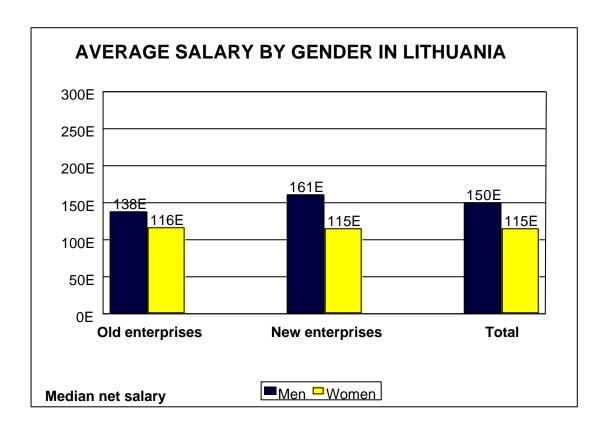


In Estonia the net salaries of men are 37 % higher on average than those of women. Men earn average net salaries of 210 Euros per month and women earn 132 Euros. Women's salaries in new enterprises are only a little better than in

the old. On the other hand, the average salary of men in the new enterprises is much higher than in the old enterprises. Due to this reason, the salary differences in the new enterprises are enormous. On average, men earn a monthly net salary which is 44 % more than women in the new enterprises.



In Latvia the net income of men is about 30 % higher than that of women. The difference between men and women is therefore slightly less than in Estonia. In Latvia men have net earnings of 156 Euros on average and women 109 Euros per month. Unlike in Estonia, in Latvia the difference in the net salary between men and women is not dependent on the history of the enterprise. In both new and old enterprises the net salary of men is on average 30 % higher than that of women. This means that in new enterprises both genders receive, in the same proportion, a higher salary than in old enterprises. In spite of significant salary differences, the pay policies in Latvia's new enterprises are on a more equal basis than in Estonia. The pay level in new enterprises, which is higher than in the old, is divided between the genders more equally than in Estonia. In Latvia's new enterprises, also the women benefit financially from the success of the enterprise.

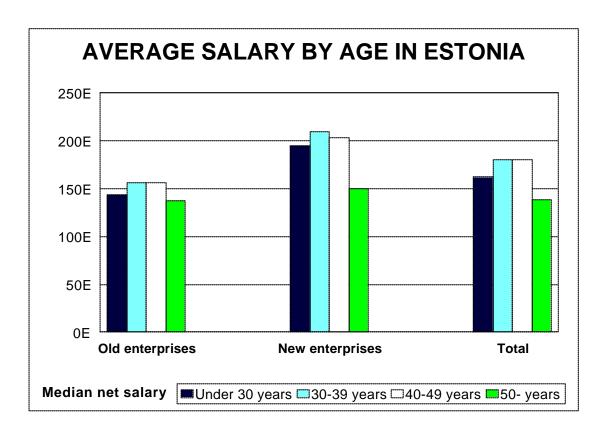


As may have been implicitly evident from the above, the pay differences between the genders in Lithuania are the lowest in the Baltic countries. Men's net pay is on average slightly under one quarter (23 %) higher than women's. The monthly net pay of men is an average of 150 Euros and that of women is 115 Euros.

Women's pay does not differ depending on whether a new or an old enterprise is involved. In this respect Lithuania differs clearly from the countries being compared. On the other hand, men earn considerably more in new enterprises than in the old. For this reason the pay differences between men and women in the new enterprises are significantly higher than in the old.

AGE AND SALARY DIFFERENCES

The salary level is dependent, not only on the history of the enterprise and the gender of the worker, but also on the age of the worker. Next we analyse the average net salary level of different age groups country by country and then separately according to old and new enterprises. We shall also outline the typical successful person and the typical loser in today's working life as measured by income level.



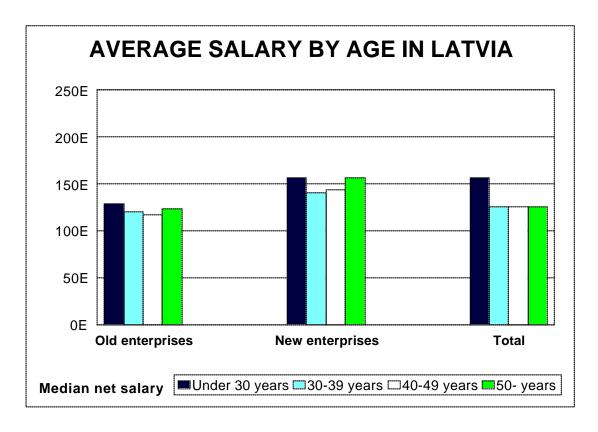
In Estonia new enterprises (established after 1988) pay better salaries than old enterprises. This is true in all age groups. Just the type of enterprise (new and private vs. old and public) determines the pay level significantly.

It may be concluded that new enterprises preferably depend on young workers than on the old. This is evident both from the pay levels and from the recruitment policies. The highest salary level in Estonia is among men aged 30-39. The average monthly net salary in this group is 300 Euros, which is nearly double when compared with the situation in the whole country. Since women earn considerably less, the average net earnings for this age group (30-39 years) in new enterprises is 210 Euros. Correspondingly those aged 50 and over working in new enterprises earn an average of 150 Euros, which is clearly the least in the age groups.

The preference given to young people in the personnel policies of new enterprises is distinctly discernible when studying the proportion of different age groups in the staff of new enterprises. The younger the person in question is, the more probable it is that he/she works in a new enterprise. Of those aged under 30 years nearly half (45 %) worked in a new enterprise, whereas 40 % of those

aged 30-39, 32 % of those aged 40-49 and only 29 % of those aged 50 and over worked in a new enterprise.

If it can be said that the new enterprises are the "success wagons" of the age, it appears that it is difficult for older persons to get onto the wagon of the successful. It is typical that the older workers are in public sector jobs where the salary level may be very low. Particularly women over the age of 50 are the losers in the labour market. The average net monthly earnings of elderly women working in the public sector is 113 Euros.

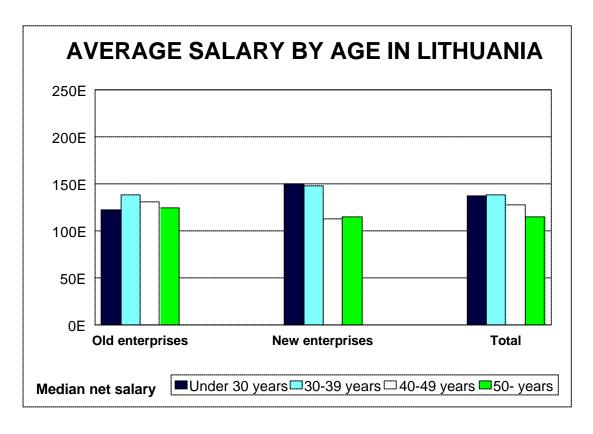


Also in Latvia new enterprises pay higher salaries on average than old enterprises. In Latvia the extreme ends of the age groups (those under 30 and those over 50 years of age) came out on top in the salary comparison. This is true both in new as well as in old enterprises. This conclusion is interesting, because in Estonia both of these age groups earned less than the age groups falling between them. It appears that both the elderly and the very young are appreciated in Latvia.

The differences between the age groups are, however, so small that when studying the country as a whole, the differences between the various age groups

fade away, except for the young who earn noticeably more than older people. With regard to Latvia, one can speak of a certain degree of idealisation of youth. The typical successful Latvian is also a man under the age of 30 working in a new enterprise. His net salary is 183 Euros on average, which is about one third more than the average in Latvia. It is surprising that the group earning the least consists of women aged 40-49 working in new enterprises, whose average net earnings are 94 Euros.

As in Estonia, so also in Latvia, new enterprises prefer to recruit young people. The younger the person in question is, the more probable it is that he/she works in a new (private) enterprise. Of those aged under 30 years, over half (54 %) worked in a new enterprise, whereas 39 % of those aged 30-39, one third (33 %) of those aged 40-49 and one fifth (20 %) of those aged 50 and over worked in a new enterprise.



It was noted above that also in Lithuania new enterprises pay better salaries than old enterprises. The difference between new and old enterprises is, however, noticeably smaller than in the other Baltic countries. Those working in new enterprises had average net earnings of only 11 Euros per month more than the

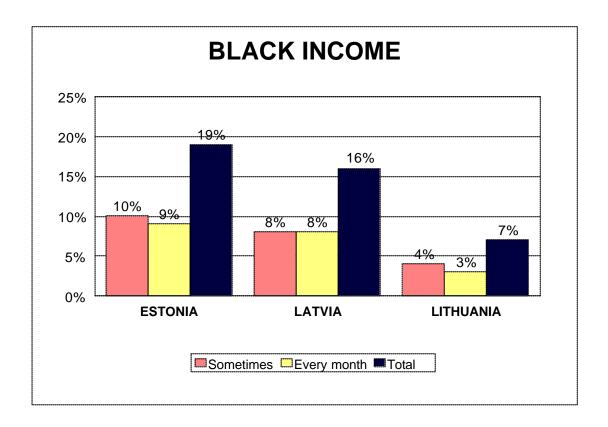
workers of old enterprises. In Estonia the average salary of workers in new enterprises is 42 Euros higher than the salary of workers in old enterprises, in Latvia the corresponding difference is 31 Euros.

The above figure indicates how the pay level in Lithuania's new enterprises is strongly dependent on the age of the worker. Those aged under 40 years earn considerably more than older persons. The salary level of workers in old enterprises does not follow any clear pattern with regard to age, and in general, salary differences in old enterprises between the different age groups are small. Therefore, both the highest and the lowest salaries are found in the new enterprises. The most successful group in Lithuania is the same as in Latvia, i.e. men under 30 years of age working in new enterprises. In practice, their average earnings are the same as in Latvia (184 Euros). The poorest earnings are among elderly women (those aged 50 and over) working in new enterprises. Their average net earnings are 97 Euros per month.

In Lithuania, as in the other Baltic countries, new enterprises prefer to recruit young people. The same linear connection (the younger the worker, the more probable it is that he/she works in a new enterprise) prevails in all the Baltic countries. In Lithuania, of those under 30 years of age, less than half (44 %) worked in new enterprises, whereas 36 % of those aged 30-39, under one quarter (23 %) of those aged 40-49 and only 17 % of those aged 50 and over worked in new enterprises.

BLACK INCOME

We also asked the respondents whether they had earned black income. The question is, by nature, very sensitive, so the interviewer had to emphasise the confidentiality of the answer. It is apparent that even this did not convince the respondents, since the number of affirmative answers remained very small.



On the basis of the collected data, doing black work is much more common in Estonia and Latvia than in Lithuania. However, even in Estonia only under one fifth of the workers receive black income. The data indicates that in all the countries there are considerably more recipients of black income in the private sector than in the public sector. This is of course natural regarding the primary source of income. It is not possible to pay black salaries in the public sector.

Doing black work is slightly more common in the big cities than in small cities or in rural areas. The higher price levels in big cities create pressures for doing this, and on the other hand, there are more opportunities for work in the big cities, and social control is not as effective as in rural areas and small towns. It is of course possible that the respondents in the big cities told of their illegal activities more honestly than the respondents in the smaller localities. The fear of being stigmatised in big cities is not as great as in areas where social relationships are close.

It may be assumed that doing black work is in reality much more common than what the data material indicates (see e.g. Lithuanian Human Development Report, 1997). Black work is apparently a phenomenon that permeates the whole

society, which indicates that the unofficial economy is a kind of 'custom of the land'. Marja Nissinen has written in her study concerning Latvia as follows:

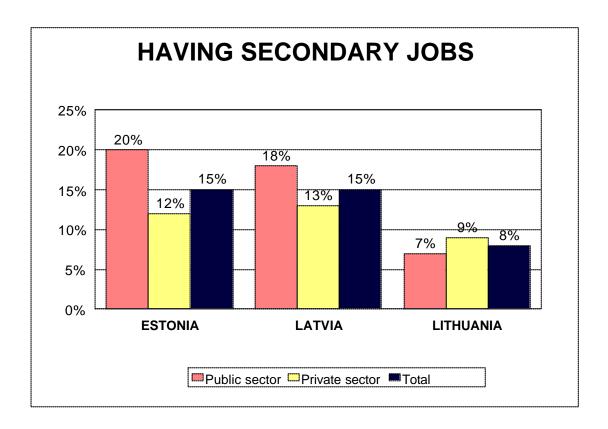
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"Economic criminality is not the monopoly of short-haired, broad-shouldered, leather-jacketed Russian-speaking men. In contrast, its spread and permanence hint at a wide network of beneficiaries at all layers of society. The phenomenon cannot be polarised by dividing people into 'sheep' and 'wolves', since the whole structure, including the so-called respectable elements, is penetrated by corruption. Because so many people live off it, its eradication is extremely difficult. The low salaries of civil servants expose them to bribery. The protection by customs authorities and border guards is a necessary precondition for the prevalence of contraband. This is realised by the man in the street, too". (Nissinen, 1999, 205).

WORKING AT SEVERAL JOBS

The generality of working at secondary jobs is, in the comparison between the countries, along the same lines as doing black work. The data material indicates that both of these modes of work occur twice more frequently in Estonia and Latvia than in Lithuania. Presumably doing both secondary jobs and black work is considerably more common in the Baltic countries than what the data material indicates. Those working in the black economy prefer not to disclose their activities in interviews.

At least in Estonia, working at secondary jobs has increased during the last few years. In a corresponding survey conducted during the autumn of 1996 approximately 11 % of Estonians stated that they work at secondary jobs, two years later the proportion was 15 %. In all the countries, the majority of those working in secondary occupations have only one secondary job. Only 3 % of Latvian and Estonian and 1.5 % of Lithuanians stated that they work at two or more secondary jobs. In the light of the data material, a multi-work culture is not prevalent in any of the Baltic countries.



Estonia and Latvia are almost identical when it comes to doing secondary jobs. In both of these countries, workers in the public sector work at secondary jobs much more frequently than those working in the private sector. About one in five of Estonians and Latvians working in the public sector work at secondary jobs.

The majority of those working at secondary jobs deny that they receive black income from their work. Those working in the private sector and also doing secondary jobs stated that they receive black income much more frequently than persons working in the public sector and also doing secondary jobs. If this is true, then public sector workers try quite generally to improve their livelihood by legal means: by working at a secondary occupation and paying taxes on it.

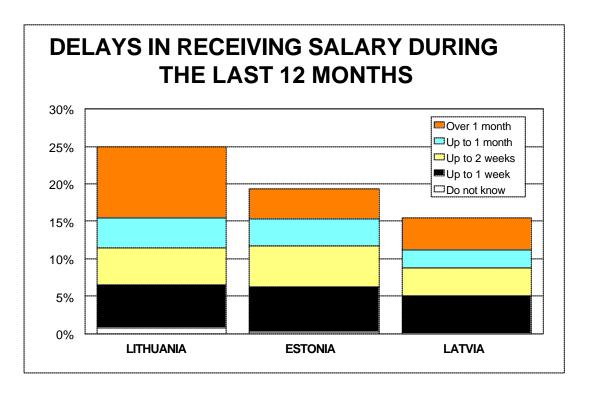
Presumably the secondary jobs done by workers in the public sectors of Estonia and Latvia are connected to the low salary level in the public sector. In Lithuania the salary difference between the private and public sectors is much smaller than in Estonia and Latvia, and this is reflected in the generality of both black work and secondary occupations. In Lithuania public sector workers are in a better position than in Estonia and Latvia, and therefore both black work and secondary occupations are clearly more rare than in the other countries being compared.

DIFFICULTIES IN SALARY PAYMENTS

Delayed salary payment is a serious problem in countries with transitional economies, and this has contributed to the existence of a black economy. It is clear that in such economic circumstances, delayed salary payments force people to find secondary incomes from somewhere else. This occurs particularly when the phenomenon is repetitive and the delays in paying salaries are long. In addition to individual problems, large-scale delays in salary payments, just like black income, affects revenue accumulation negatively, and through this, the preconditions for the operation of the public sector.

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The data material indicates that Lithuania has the most problems in salary payments. This is interesting, since it is just in Lithuania that the proportion of those doing black work and those in secondary jobs is the lowest in the Baltic countries. Intuitively it would be more natural to think that the situation would be just the opposite.



One in four of working Lithuanians had experienced delays in salary payments during the year preceding the interview. The proportion is distinctly larger than in the other countries being compared. It is also striking that nearly one tenth of

the respondents stated that salary payments had been delayed by over one month. In Estonia and Latvia delays of this length in salary payments are quite rare.

It is generally thought that difficulties in salary payments are a particular problem of the public sector. This presumption is not true in any of the Baltic countries. Delays in salary payments are equally general in both the private and public sectors. This is because old, reorganised and privatised enterprises have had the most delays in salary payments in all the Baltic countries.

A big difference is discernible in Lithuania in delays in salary payments between new and old enterprises. 17 % of workers in new enterprises stated that they had experienced delays in salary payments, whereas up to 28 % of workers in old enterprises had experienced the same. Workers in new enterprises in Latvia had experienced delays in salary payments nearly as frequently as workers in old enterprises. 17 % of workers in old enterprises and 14% of workers in new enterprises told of delays in salary payments. In Estonia the situation is just the opposite, since delays in salary payments were slightly more common in new enterprises than in old ones. In Estonia 21 % of workers in new enterprises and 19 % of workers in old enterprises told of delays in salaries. It therefore appears that delays in salary payments are quite common in the Baltic countries. The greatest problems in salary payments are in Lithuania's old enterprises.

SUMMARY

Of the Baltic countries, Lithuania has the most even distribution of income. The minimum wage in Lithuania is significantly higher than in Latvia and Estonia, and the minimum wage also has a normative role in setting the level of wages. A large portion of Lithuania's workers have a salary that is fairly close to the minimum wage. Furthermore, the average salaries in the private and public sectors in Lithuania differ from each other only slightly. The private sector in Estonia and Latvia, particularly the new enterprises, pay noticeably better salaries on average than the public sector.

¹³ Established after 1988.

¹⁴ The enterprise operated already before 1988. Some of these enterprises have later been reorganised and privatised and some not.

The differences in net salaries between men and women are fairly large in all the countries. However, there are considerable differences between the countries. In Lithuania men have average net earnings of 23 % more than women, in Latvia the difference is 30 % in favour of men and in Estonia it is as much as 37 %. When viewed geographically, it appears that the more south one goes, the smaller the differences are, and vice versa.

The typical successful person in working life in the Baltic countries is a youngish man working in the private sector. Youth is a trump card in all the countries. Elderly women are at the other end of the salary scale.

On the basis of the data material, earning black income is quite rare. Presumably this phenomenon remained mostly in the dark due to the sensitivity of the issue. It appears that there are more recipients of black income in Estonia and Latvia than in Lithuania. However, one has to approach the results with caution.

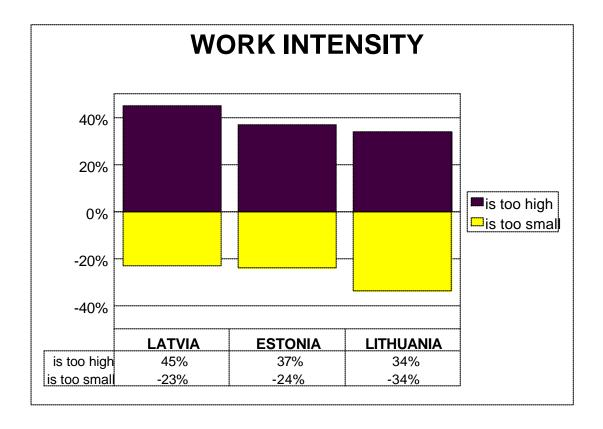
Having a secondary occupation is also more common in Estonia and Latvia than in Lithuania. In Estonia and Latvia approximately one in five public of sector workers stated that they have a secondary job. This is perhaps caused by the low salary level in the public sector in the countries in question. Generally speaking, those who work at secondary jobs have only one secondary job.

Delayed salary payments are fairly common in the Baltic countries. Especially in Lithuania salary payments are delayed and often the delays are quite long. The salaries of one in four Lithuanians was late during the year preceding the interview, and the salary of one in ten was late by over one month. In the light of this information it appears rather peculiar that less secondary jobs and black work is done in Lithuania than in Estonia and Latvia.

INTERNAL CONDITION OF WORKING LIFE

STRESS FACTORS

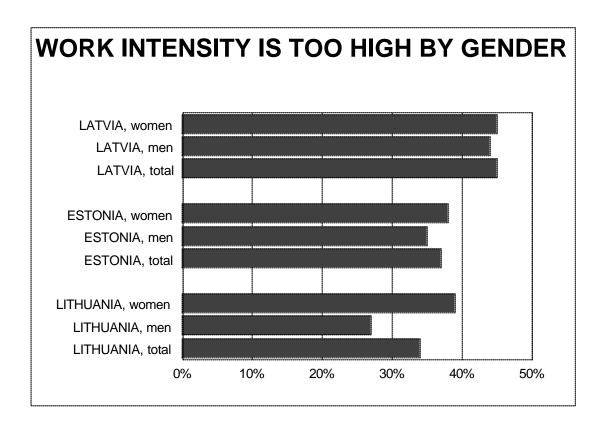
WORK INTENSITY



The study of work intensity level between the countries gives a rough description of the working life in the Baltic Countries. Also in the Baltic Countries the general trend is supposedly to intensify work. The old work culture from the socialist era, where work was a social obligation and did not base on individual motivation or the market position of the person or the company, is losing its normative heritage.

The countries differ from each other when the extent of work intensity is compared. In Latvia, almost every second worker feels that work intensity is somewhat too high at the moment. In Estonia and Lithuania more than a third of the workers feel the same. In Estonia and Latvia less than a fourth do not think that work intensity or the general requirements are too high, on the contrary, they are too small. Lithuania is clearly different from the other two countries. In Lithuania a third of the working people feel that the work intensity is too high (less than in Latvia and Estonia), a third feel that it is on a right level and a further third feel that it is too low (more than in Latvia and Estonia). One can

conclude that in Lithuania the traditional 'spending time' at work is more general than in the other two countries.



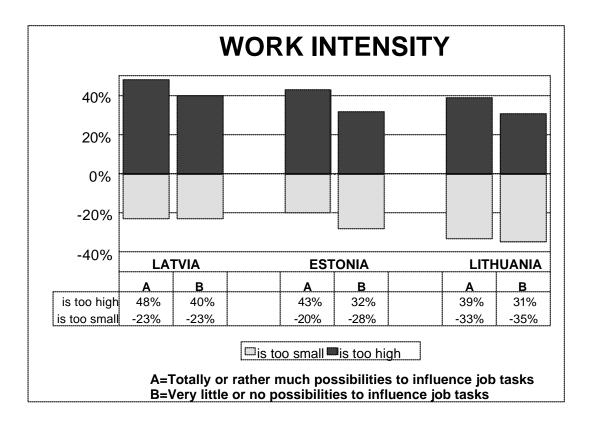
Work intensity is not connected to gender in Latvia or Estonia. Practically as many women as men in these countries feel that the work intensity is too high or too low. Again, Lithuania is clearly different from the other two countries. The Lithuanian women, however, feel the same about work intensity as the Estonian women. But the Lithuanian men are not very stressed by work. Only a good fourth of the men in Lithuania (27 %) felt that work intensity is too high and even 40 % felt that it is somewhat too low. These percentages are totally different from the men's opinions in the other countries and from the women's opinions in all three countries.

		LATVIA ESTONIA		LITHUANIA						
Enterprise type	Level of work	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both	Men	Women	Both
	intensity									
old, not reorganised	too small	19 %	22 %	20 %	28 %	23 %	25 %	44 %	31 %	36 %
	suitable	36 %	34 %	35 %	40 %	34 %	36 %	34 %	34 %	34 %
	too high	45 %	44 %	45 %	32 %	43 %	39 %	22 %	35 %	30 %
	total	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %
old but reorganised	too small	38 %	35 %	37 %	23 %	29 %	25 %	34 %	26 %	30 %
	suitable	22 %	26 %	24 %	45 %	46 %	46 %	29 %	25 %	27 %
	too high	40 %	39 %	39 %	32 %	25 %	29 %	37 %	49 %	43 %
	total	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %
new, established after -88	too small	25 %	19 %	22 %	24 %	17 %	20 %	36 %	30 %	33 %
	suitable	30 %	32 %	31 %	36 %	44 %	40 %	34 %	33 %	34 %
	too high	45 %	49 %	47 %	40 %	39 %	40 %	30 %	37 %	33 %
	total	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %	100 %

The diagram above shows the levels of work intensity by sex and the type of the company. In Estonia and Latvia the highest pressure of work is expectedly within the newer companies in the private sector, but it is almost as tough in older, not reorganised companies in the public sector. Lithuania is different from the other two countries, because there the pressure of work is at its highest in older but reorganised companies.

This material shows that Latvian women who work in newer, mostly private companies, have the highest pressure of work in the Baltic Countries. Every second of them feels that work intensity is somewhat too high and only every fifth of them feels that it is somewhat too low. In the other end are the Lithuanian men who work in older, not reorganised companies in the public sector. A good fifth of them (22 %) felt that the work intensity is somewhat too high and almost a half of them thought that it is somewhat too low.

The new, flexible ways to organise work (see e.g. Antila & Ylöstalo, 1999; NUTEK, 1999; Womack & Jones & Roos, 1990) with lower hierarchy and decentralised power of decision are also coming to the Baltic Countries. This means that compared to the former socialist working culture, the commitment and attitude towards work will change totally. The new, flexible methods to organise work can even mean 'individual entrepreneurship within the company'. In this case the worker has a lot of power and freedom but also responsibility. Since this kind of reorganising has been successful and also more and more necessary at least in the Nordic Countries (see NUTEK, 1999; Antila & Ylöstalo, 1999), it is important to find out the effects of autonomy at work.



In all the countries, it is clearly more typical that work intensity is felt to be too high by those who have possibilities to influence their job tasks, than by those who have very little or no power of decision considering their work. One can draw a conclusion that decentralising the power of decision often means faster working pace, more effective work and often too high pressure of work.

When the combination of authority and work pressure is compared to the other group, where there is practically no power of decision and often no pressure of work either, it can be seen that the countries differ from each other. The occurrence is the same everywhere¹⁵, but the biggest difference between these two

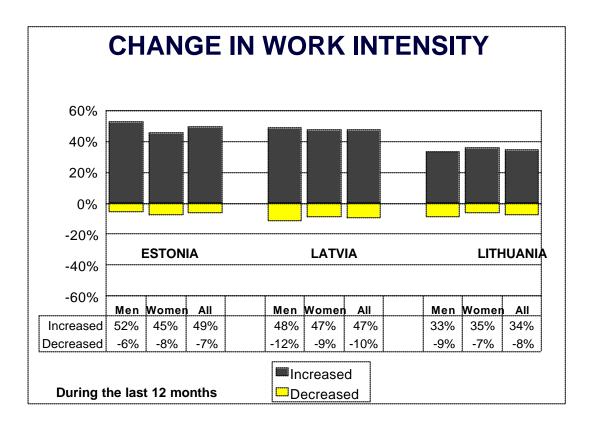
¹⁵ A more accurate analysis shows that the Estonian workers who have authority at work feel everywhere that work intensity is too high more often than those workers who have practically no possibilities to influence their job tasks. This connection of authority and too high a work intensity cannot be explained with the gender or age of the person, or with the company history. When these variables are controlled the connection remains the same. Too high a work intensity is more typical at the higher levels of the company hierarchy than at the 'floor level'. However, also persons working at the lower levels of the hierarchy and who have possibilities to influence their job tasks, feel that the work intensity is higher than the persons who have no authority at work.

groups is in Estonia. There 43% of the persons who have authority at work feel that work intensity is too high and a fifth (20%) of them think that it is too low. The difference (too high intensity minus too low intensity) is 23%. In the other group where there is no possibility to influence the job tasks, about a third (32%) feel that work intensity is too high, but almost as big amount (28%) feels that it is too low. The difference is only 4%.

In Latvia, this occurrence is fairly general, but in some cases the possibilities to influence job tasks mean also more often too low an intensity compared to those workers who have no authority at work. Plenty of authority and too low an intensity is typical for well-positioned men working for old but reorganised companies. These companies have the lowest pressure of work in Latvia. In general however, at all levels of the company hierarchy those persons who have authority feel that work intensity is higher than those who have no authority.

Also in Lithuania both men and women who have authority at work feel that work intensity is too high more often than the others. This is true for persons over 30 in newer and reorganised companies. In the older not reorganised companies the connection of authority and too high a work intensity is very weak and cannot be considered significant. For persons under 30, there is no connection between authority at work and the feeling of pressure. In this age group almost as many feel that the intensity is too high, suitable, or too low, regardless of the amount of authority at work. When the different sectors are compared, the possibilities to influence job tasks mean high pressure of work especially for persons in the service industry. Also in Lithuania the management feels that the pressure of work is too high more often than the other groups within the company hierarchy.

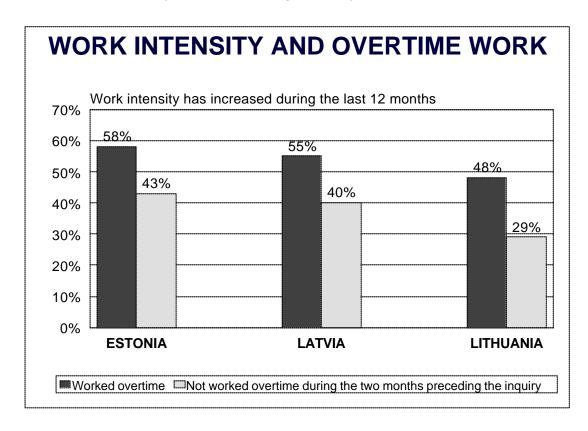
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Although it is a clear trend that work intensity is increasing in all the Baltic Countries, there are differences between the countries. Lithuania differs from the other two countries, which are very close to each other considering both work intensity and the its change. Already nearly a half of the working people in Latvia and Estonia said that work intensity had increased during the 12 months before the survey. Two years ago 46 % of the Estonians felt that work intensity had increased (Työelämän muutos Suomessa ja lähialueilla aineisto, 1997). Thus the proportion has grown slightly. In Lithuania a clearly smaller proportion, about a third of the persons, had felt that work intensity has increased.

The changes in work intensity have been similar for both genders. In Lithuania the changes have not had any connection to the gender at all. In Estonia, men had typically felt the increase in the work intensity has been a bit more often than women. According to the diagram above there were no differences between the genders in Latvia, but when the power of the change is observed separately it can be seen that women had felt more often than men that work intensity has increased very much. Over a fifth (22 %) of all Latvian women answered that work intensity had increased a lot during the 12 months prior to the inquiry. This is a considerably bigger percentage than that of women in the other two

countries and of men in all the countries. For example, 16 % of the Latvian men felt that work intensity had increased significantly.

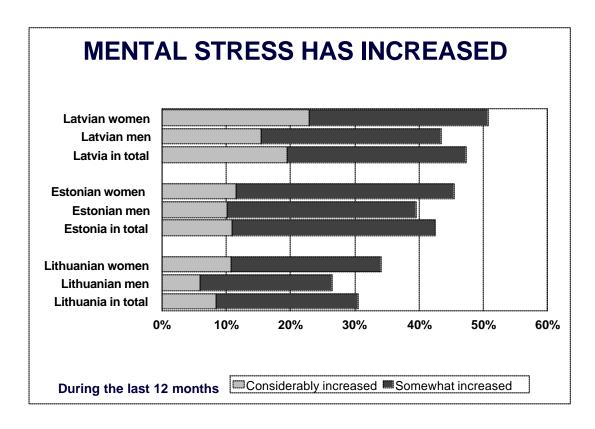


The diagram above shows how the feeling of increased intensity has a clear connection with working overtime. This is natural, since in all the countries the main reason for working overtime are the requirements of work, not the employer's orders or the worker's own wish to work overtime. When work becomes more demanding, or when the pace increases, many have problems in completing job tasks during regular working hours and then working overtime (paid or without pay) becomes necessary.

Instead of the increase in the work intensity, the increase in mental stress could also be included in the picture above. The connection with overtime work would be as strong. In all the countries people who have worked overtime feel that both work intensity and mental stress have increased. The respondents who have not worked overtime during the two months preceding the survey, do not feel this as generally. In Estonia and Latvia over a half and in Lithuania almost a half of the people who had worked overtime, said that the work intensity had increased during the 12 months prior to the survey. The same connection between working

overtime and increased work intensity exists in Finland. (Ylöstalo, 1999a, 126-127).

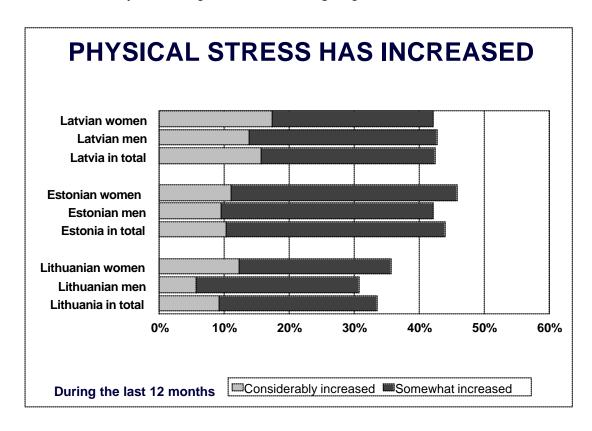
THE CHANGES IN MENTAL AND PHYSICAL STRESS AT WORK



Mental stress at work has increased clearly more in Latvia than in the other Baltic Countries. Almost half of the Latvians (47 %) said that mental stress had increased during the 12 months preceding the survey. The same variable has yearly been measured in Finland with a Working Life Barometer, according to which the percentage of people who have felt an increasing mental stress is the same (46 %) in Finland as in Latvia.

The percentage of Estonian workers, who felt that mental stress had increased, was only a little smaller (43 %) than in Latvia and Finland. The same matter was studied also in Estonia two years ago (Työelämän muutos Suomessa ja lähialueilla aineisto, 1997). Then the percentage was 45 %, practically the same as now. In Lithuania a clearly smaller percentage of the persons who answered the survey felt that mental stress had increased.

In all the Baltic Countries, as well as in Finland, women feel more generally than men that mental stress at work has increased. A good half of the Latvian women felt that mental stress had increased to some extent during the 12 months prior to the survey. Furthermore, almost a quarter of all Latvian women felt that mental stress had increased a lot during the same period of time. Both figures are clearly higher than in the other Baltic Countries. The Lithuanian men felt the least increase in mental stress. They also felt that the level of the work intensity was considerably low compared to the other groups.



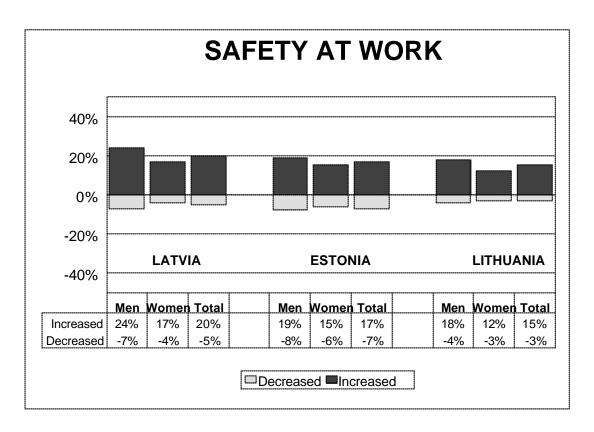
In Latvia the increase in physical stress at work has been a little more unusual than in mental stress. But in Estonia and Lithuania the increase in physical stress has been a bit more general than in mental stress. From the Finnish point of view this must be considered surprising. In Finland the increase in mental stress at work was more than twice as general as in physical stress. (Ylöstalo, 1999a, 122)

The feelings of increased physical stress at work were the most general among Estonian women. Almost half of them (46 %) feel that work has become physically more demanding. The same thing was studied two years ago (Työelämän muutos Suomessa ja lähialueilla aineisto, 1997) and then 40 % of

Estonian women and 39 % of men said that physical stress had increased at work. Thus the increase in physical stress at work has grown a little in Estonia.

When the change in physical and mental stress at work is studied as a whole, it becomes obvious that the feelings of stress have increased clearly more generally in Latvia and Estonia than in Lithuania. It is also evident that women consider the changes more stressful. Also the new, flexible ways to organise work have increased the feelings of stress. In all the countries persons who have authority at work feel more generally than the others, that the work intensity is too high.

CHANGES IN SAFETY AT WORK



In all the Baltic Countries the majority of working people have not noticed any changes in the level of safety at work. The changes that have occurred have been positive, since in all the countries there were clearly more those who felt that safety at work had increased than those who thought that it had decreased.

Men experienced changes, both positive and negative, more often than women. The diagram shows that the most positive changes had occurred in Latvia, where one fifth of the respondents said that the safety had increased, and only 5 % had experienced the opposite. The least changes, both positive and negative, had occurred in Lithuania. Only 15 % of Lithuanian women had experienced changes in safety at work during 12 months prior to the survey.

SUMMARY

Work intensity has increased significantly in all the Baltic Countries. In Estonia and Latvia almost half of the working people said that the work intensity had increased during the last year. The trend was the same in Lithuania, but the pressure to intensify the work was not so high. One third of the Lithuanians said that work had somewhat intensified. Many respondents felt that the work had intensified too much, for almost half of the Latvians and a good third of the Estonians and Lithuanians said that the present work intensity is too high. A clearly smaller percentage, less than a fourth of the Latvians and Estonians, said the opposite: work intensity is too low. In Lithuania the percentages were equally big: one third of the working people feel that work intensity is too high, one third feels that it is suitable and one third thinks that it is too low. In other words: work has intensified clearly more in Latvia and Estonia than in Lithuania.

In Estonia and Latvia persons who work for newer private companies (established after 1988) feel the highest pressure of work. The most stressed group are the Latvian women, who work for the newer companies. The least stressed are the Lithuanian men who work in the public sector. Only one fifth of them (22 %) felt that work intensity is somewhat too high and even 44 % thought that it is somewhat too low. This material shows that 'the last of the mohicans' (of the socialist working culture, spending time at work) are the Lithuanian men who work in the public sector.

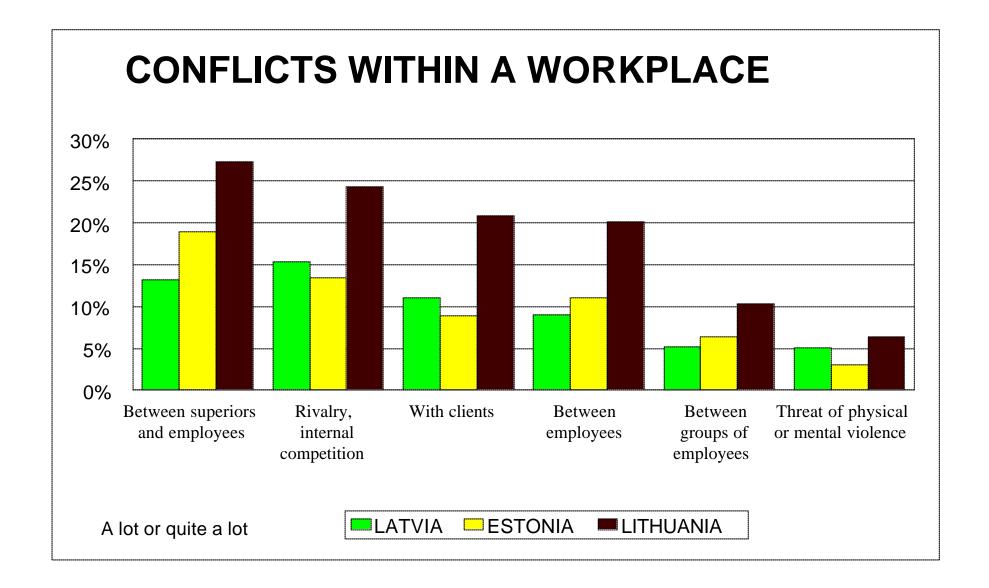
People who work overtime feel quite generally that the work intensity has increased. This is natural also basing on intuition, since overtime work is caused by the increasing requirements of the job. In Estonia and Latvia over half of the respondents who had worked overtime during the two months prior to the survey said that the work intensity had increased during the last year.

CONFLICTS

When the conflicts within a workplace are compared, Lithuania differs clearly from the other Baltic Countries again. All forms of conflicts dealt with in this survey occur more in Lithuania than in Estonia and Latvia.

The most general forms of conflicts are the ones between the employees and the employer in both Lithuania and Estonia. Over one fourth (27 %) of the Lithuanians and almost every fifth of the Estonians (19 %) said that they have noticed significant conflicts at work between superiors and employees. The same question was asked in Estonia two years ago (see Rahikainen & Ylöstalo, 1997, 53) and the materials show that conflicts between superiors and employees have clearly decreased in Estonia. The same question has been asked also in Finland. Only 11 % of Finnish working people said that there are significant conflicts between the superiors and employees at work (Quality of Work Life Survey, 1997). The percentage is nearly the same in Latvia (13 %).

Rivalry between the employees is also rather usual in all the Baltic Countries, and it is not rare in Finland either. 'Rivalry' itself does not mean quite the same as 'conflict', but when taken too far it can cause conflicts and stress. Almost one fourth of the Lithuanians experienced a lot or quite a lot of rivalry between the employees at work. In Latvia this percentage was 15 % and in Estonia 13 %. In Finland the percentage was 14 %. A significant fact is that in all the Baltic Countries half of the respondents said that there is no internal competition at all within their workplace. Finland differs here clearly from the Baltic Countries. Only a good third of the Finns did not notice any rivalry at all at their workplaces.



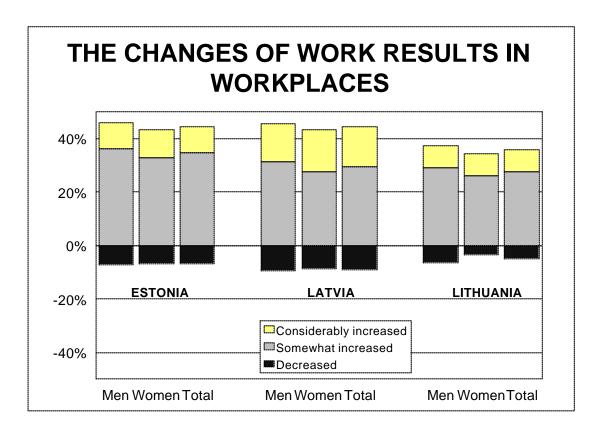
When the conflicts are compared, the situation in Lithuania is the most polarised. The country has the biggest proportionate number of workers who experience conflicts at work and the biggest proportion of workers who do not experience any conflicts at all. Estonia has the smallest number of workers who do not experience any conflicts at work. In other words, the Estonians experience conflicts at work somewhat more generally than the Latvians or the Lithuanians. In all the Baltic Countries the majority of working people experience or notice relatively little conflicts at their workplaces.

	HAS NOT NOTICED CONFLICTS AT THE		
	WORKPLACE (% OF ALL WORKING PEOPLE)		
LITHUANIA	23 %		
LATVIA	22 %		
ESTONIA	13 %		

Men and women do not differ from each other in this matter. The result is the same in all the Baltic Countries. The age has some effect on experiencing conflicts. In all the Baltic Countries younger working people experience more conflicts at work than older people. Also the company's history affects the generality of conflicts. In all the countries the least conflicts were experienced by people working for newer (established after 1988) companies. In other words, young people working for older public or privatised companies experience more conflicts than the others.

WORK RESULTS AND TRAINING

THE CHANGES OF WORK RESULTS

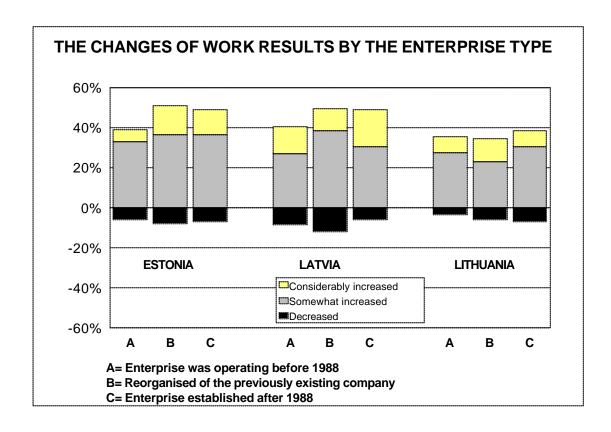


In questions regarding the changes of work results, Estonia and Latvia are again very close to each other and Lithuania differs clearly from them. Work results have, however, increased significantly in all the countries, and the trend is the same everywhere. In Estonia and Latvia well over 40 % of the working people said that the work results had improved during the last year. A good third of the Lithuanians said the same. Only a relatively small number of working people said that the results had decreased.

The changes of work results have been researched yearly also with Finnish Working Life Barometer. In Finland 38 % of the working people said that the work results had improved and only 3 % felt the opposite (Ylöstalo, 1999a, 112). Although the trend in Finland is the same as in the Baltic Countries, the percentage of the respondents who have experienced the change is smaller than in Estonia and Latvia.

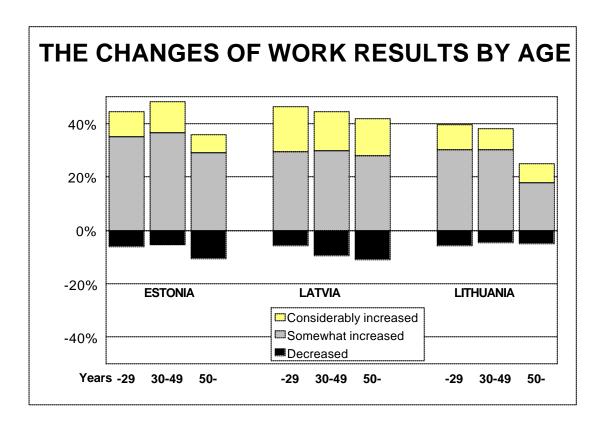
In Estonia the same question was asked also two years ago (Työelämän muutos Suomessa ja lähialueilla aineisto, 1997) and the percentages have not significantly changed. About the same number of Estonians feel today that the work results have increased or decreased.

Latvia has the biggest number of those who think that the work results have considerably increased. 15 % of Latvian men and 16 % of women said that work results had increased considerably during the 12 months prior to the inquiry. The men's and women's experiences do not differ from each other very much in any of the countries. However, the diagram above shows that in all the Baltic Countries it is a little more common for men than for women to experience the change in the work results. This is true also in Finland. One reason for this could be that men have better positions in the information flow. This means that men get more information about the matters at the workplace. Men are usually more often in managing positions, with the task to be informed of the work results. The question was about the change of the work results at workplaces and managers are often better prepared to evaluate results. In all the Baltic Countries, the managers more often than other groups in the company hierarchy said that work results had changed one way or the other. The hypothesis about the information flow as an 'antenna' of changes remains, however, a poor explanation. Men experience the change in work results more often than women, even if the managers are not regarded.



In Estonia and Latvia the work results have increased clearly more in the newer and reorganised companies than in older, public enterprises. The biggest improvement can be seen in the newer Latvian companies: almost every fifth person (19 %) said that the work results had improved considerably during the 12 months prior to the survey and about half of the respondents said that the results had somewhat increased. 6 % of the respondents said the opposite. On the basis of the topics handled here earlier, it is obvious that in the newer Latvian enterprises, people work at the limit of their resources, but get good results.

Lithuania differs from the other countries again: the differences between the enterprises are clearly smaller. However, also in Lithuania, the work results have increased more in newer enterprises than in older ones, even though the results have also decreased more in newer companies. In Lithuania old and reorganised companies have the most problems: a lot of conflicts, delays in payments of wages, stress and the slowest development of the Baltic Countries regarding the work results.

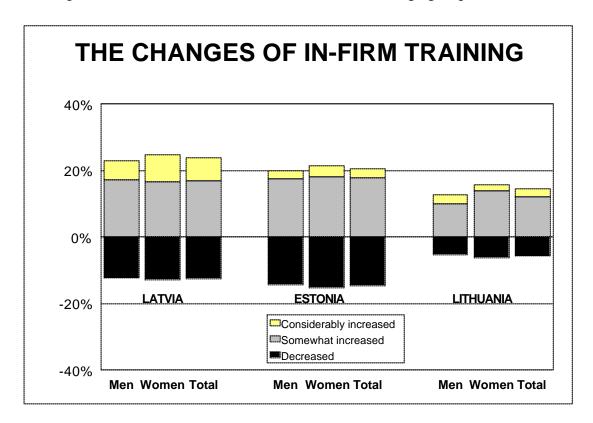


In all the Baltic Countries persons under 50 years said significantly more often than respondents who were 50 years or older that work results had increased. In Latvia the work results are linear regarding the age: people under 30 years of age said that the results had increased more often than 30-49 years old respondents, who again told about the increase more often than the oldest persons. In Estonia and Lithuania only the age of 50 years is a landmark, there are no significant differences between the younger age groups.

The development of work results was already clear on the basis of the data above. The respondents in the oldest age group (50 years and older) work usually for old enterprises in the public sector, where the work results have increased slower than elsewhere. However, it must be noted that the enterprise type is not the only explanation for the difference between the persons over 50 and the younger persons regarding the change of work results. According to the oldest age group the work results have increased clearly less than according to the respondents under 50 years of age. This had happened in all enterprise types (old enterprises, reorganised enterprises and new enterprises).

It is possible and even probable that the respondents mostly told about the change of their own work results, although the question was about the workplace.

If this is true, the work results of people over 50 years of age increase clearly less than the results of younger people in the Baltic Countries. Only the new Latvian companies and the old, reorganised Lithuanian enterprises with their multiple problems are an exception to this rule. In the new Latvian companies there is no connection between the older age and a relatively slow increase in work results. Supposedly, older people who cannot keep up with the pace leave these enterprises. In the old and reorganised Lithuanian enterprises the development of work results has been rather slow in all age groups.



We also asked about the changes of in-firm training, in other words, if the possibilities to train oneself at work have increased or decreased. The comparisons between the countries showed that Latvia and Estonia are again close to each other and Lithuania differs from them clearly.

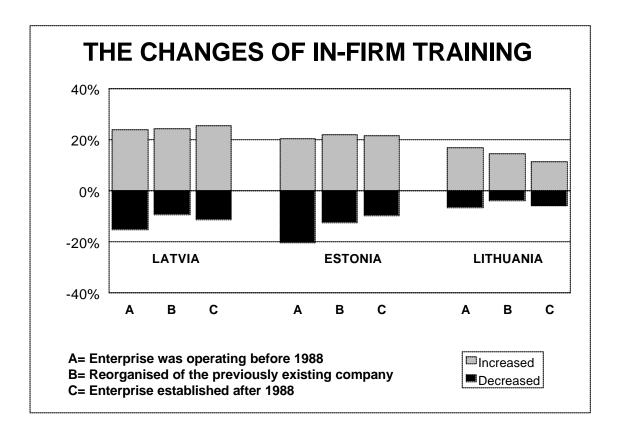
In Latvia and Estonia over one fifth of the working people said that the training possibilities had increased at their workplace. It must, however, be noted that a significant percentage (13 % of the Latvians and 15 % of the Estonians) said that the training possibilities had somewhat decreased during the last year. The 'net effect' of the training possibilities, in other words the difference of negative and positive answers is not very flattering, although it is positive in both countries.

On the whole, the possibilities of in-firm training have somewhat increased in Latvia and Estonia during the 12 months prior to the inquiry.

In Lithuania the percentage of persons who had experienced changes is clearly smaller. However, the net effect is about the same as in Latvia and Estonia. In Finland the net effect of training possibilities (16 %) is much bigger than in the Baltic Countries.

The changes of in-firm training do not have a statistically significant connection with gender. However, the diagram shows that women have experienced changes more often than men in all the Baltic Countries.

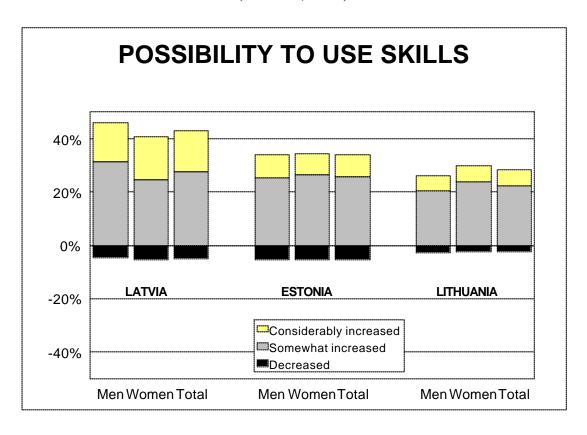
Surprisingly many respondents could not answer the question of the changes of in-firm training during the 12 months prior to the survey. Even one fourth of the Lithuanians and almost one fifth of the Latvians and Estonians did not know about the subject. This was as general among men as women. This cannot be considered very positive, since it is clear that a significant percentage of working people do not know about essential matters concerning their workplaces. In Estonia and Latvia this was typical of new, private enterprises and in Lithuania of the public sector. In all the countries these people were usually at the bottom of the company hierarchy, as expected. About half of the people who did not know about the in-firm training had a permanent job. The other half consisted of temporary employees that companies usually use when they need them according to the numerical flexibility strategy of labour (see Atkinson, 1987; Antila & Ylöstalo, 1999). It is understandable that temporary employees cannot necessarily assess the changes of in-firm training, since they are usually left without training resources. But if the regular personnel is unaware of the infirm training, it can mean that information does not reach everybody within the organisation and there has not been much investing in training.



When the in-firm training possibilities are studied by the history of the enterprises, it can be seen that Latvia and Estonia are again almost identical and Lithuania differs from them clearly. In Latvia and Estonia the training possibilities have increased quite equally in all three types of enterprises. In all types of enterprises a good fifth of the personnel said that in-firm training possibilities had increased during the last year. In the both countries the decreasing training possibilities were typical of old enterprises in the public sector. In Estonia one fifth of the persons working for this kind of companies said that the training possibilities had increased and as big a percentage said that they had decreased.

In Lithuania the development has had an opposite direction. The training possibilities have improved more in old, public sector establishments than in the private sector. It is, however, characteristic of Lithuania that the overall change is minor. There are many people who are unaware of the training possibilities, and in all types of companies more than half of the respondents said that there had been no change in in-firm training.

Although the question was about the change of in-firm training at the workplace, the respondents reported probably mostly of changes in their own work. This can be seen when the answers are analysed according to the company hierarchy. The higher the position is in the hierarchy, the better are the training possibilities and vice versa. The same thing was studied in the Nordic Countries and the result was the same. The management is trained more than the middle management, which is trained more than the workers (NUTEK, 1999).

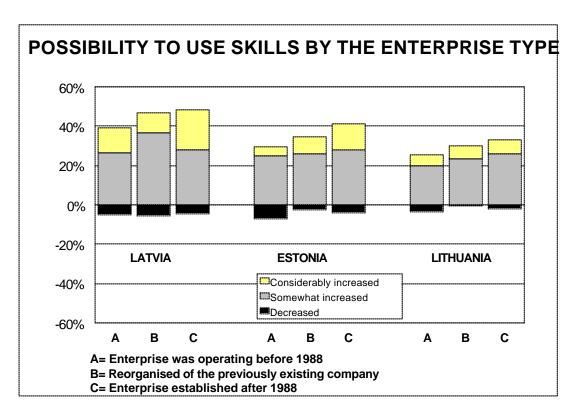


One indicator that can be used to measure the change of work results are the possibilities of the workers to use their professional skills in the work. The received training does not, alone, guarantee the utilisation of the improved skills in the organisation. Whether the organisation puts the employee's skills to good use or whether it throws them away has become one of the topics of the recent labour political discussion in Finland (see e.g. Kevätsalo,1999;Ylöstalo,1999b).

In all the Baltic countries, the trend is towards a better utilisation of the workers' skills and expertise. The greatest improvement in the worker's possibilities to use his/her professional skills can be seen in Latvia. Almost the half of the Latvian respondents (43 %) accounted for improved possibilities to put their abilities to use, 15 per cent had even experienced a considerable improvement. These percentages are clearly higher than in Estonia or Lithuania. The least improvement in the possibilities to use the professional skills took place in

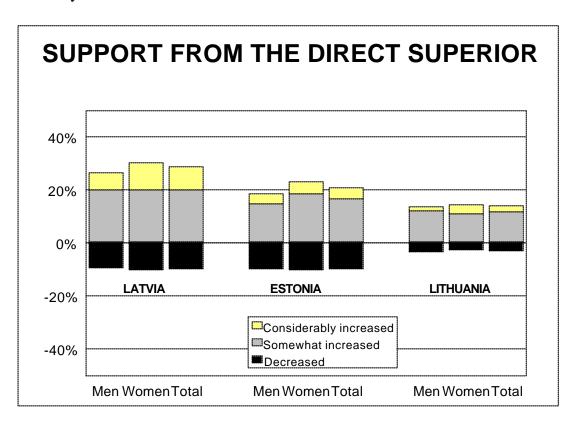
Lithuania where a good fourth of the interviewed had noticed some improvement in their possibilities. In this respect, Estonia takes the place between Latvia and Lithuania. One third of the Estonians experienced that their possibilities to use the professional skills at work had increased. This result equals the one received two years ago (Työelämän muutos Suomessa ja lähialueilla aineisto, 1997).

The experienced change of possibilities to use professional skills is independent of gender in all the ¹⁶countries studied. Similarly, the age of the persons interviewed has no influence whatsoever on the results as far as Latvia and Lithuania are concerned. The positive development has taken place very equally. Nevertheless, in Estonia, the persons over the age of 50 had experienced that their possibilities had improved less and more seldom than those of the young. This result persists in all three enterprise types (old, reorganised and new enterprises). To conclude, the elderly workers of Estonia are in the most difficult position in the Baltic countries in this respect.



¹⁶ Pearson's x2 values between the change of possibilities and gender: Latvia .37; Lithuania .675; Estonia .749

The workers seem to have considerably more possibilities than before to use their abilities in new, mostly private enterprises than in old public sector establishments. This development is visible in all the Baltic countries. The biggest change has taken place in the new Latvian enterprises in which every other respondent said that his/her possibilities to use his/her abilities had increased at least to some extent. Every fifth of the employees in those enterprises had experienced a great improvement in his/her possibilities during the year prior to the survey.



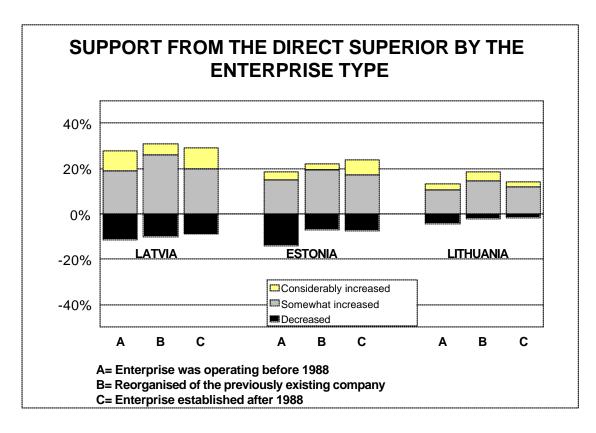
In all the Baltic countries, the research showed that the support from superior had increased which means that the general trend is positive. In this point, too, the results received from Latvia and Estonia are very similar whereas Lithuania makes a clear exception. More than one fourth of the Latvians and one fifth of the Estonians reported of increased support at the working place. A negative development in this respect, i.e. a decreased support from the superior, was complained about by every tenth person in these countries.

Although the number of the Estonian working people, who thought that the relations between the superiors and their subordinates had developed positively, is significant, problems of leadership culture can be seen. In fact, the

development has been slightly negative during the last two years, already. The latest survey before this one showed that 23 per cent of the Estonian working people reported of increased support from the superior and 8 per cent of its decrease (Työelämän muutos Suomessa ja lähialueilla; aineisto, 1997). However, the differences between the latter and the former survey are so slight that they cannot be considered significant. Still, one can draw a conclusion that the positive development in the Estonian leadership culture has ceased.

Characteristic of the situation in Lithuania is that it has remained unchanged. As many as two thirds of the Lithuanians said that no change had taken place. Additionally, 17 per cent could not answer the question at all. This is probably because their situation had not changed, either. Only less than one fifth of the Lithuanians accounted for some change in the support from the superior in one way or another during the year prior to the survey.

The gender or age of the respondent did not have any statistical connection whatsoever with the support given by the superior in any of the countries. The diagram above shows, however, that in Latvia and Estonia, the women have experienced more changes in support than men.



In Estonia and Latvia, the leadership practices have taken a poorer course of development in the older public sector establishments than in other working places. The superiors do not seem to support their subordinates in the older establishments of the public sector to the same extent as elsewhere. Particularly Estonia suffers from this kind of leadership-related problems.

As for Lithuania, the most support from the superior is, surprisingly enough, given in older, reorganised enterprises. In these organisations the leadership culture is taking a positive course although they seem to have the most problems in the whole Baltic area. Of course, the low starting level may be one reason for a more positive development than in elsewhere in Lithuania. The goal of this research was, however, to study only the change, not the starting level. Therefore this hypothesis remained unverified. It is also possible that the support from the superiors is required so that the enterprises could even somehow manage with their problems. Because of the enterprise's insufficient liquidity, delayed payments of wages and various other kinds of conflicts, the employees' motivation, commitment and, consequently, productivity is understandably low. In such a knotty situation, supporting the workers may be the only means for the leadership to try to improve the company's result. Giving support costs nothing.

SUMMARY

The answers of the survey showed that productivity of work has increased in all the Baltic countries. The most improvement has taken place in the new enterprises of Latvia, in which half of the workers accounted for an improved work productivity; many of them had even experienced a considerable improvement. It can, therefore, be concluded that people work hard and effectively in the new Latvian enterprises. The least increase in work productivity can be found in the old Lithuanian enterprises that have been reorganised and often also privatised. These enterprises suffer also from other problems (e.g. conflicts, delayed payments of wages and stiff organisation structures).

Opportunities for further training offered by the employer are slowly developing into a positive direction. In Latvia and Estonia, approximately one fifth of the respondents did, in fact, report of improved possibilities for further training but, on the other hand, alarmingly big group of people had experienced the opposite at the same time. As a whole, the trend is only slightly positive. As for Lithuania,

the most characteristic thing is the unchanging state of training opportunities or the slow pace of change.

TASK AUTONOMY AND SATISFACTION WITH WORK

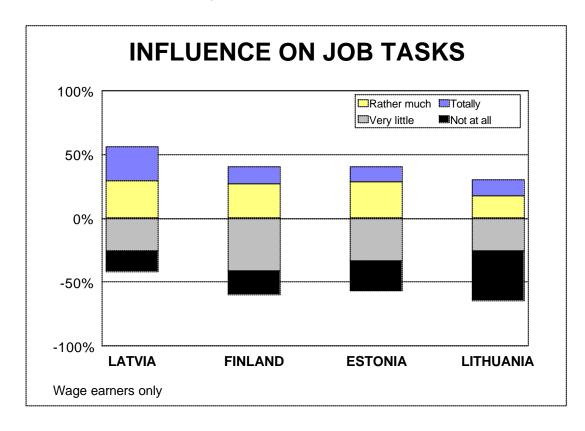
The most recent empirical studies of the Nordic countries emphasise the significance of task autonomy, assumed responsibility and commitment as factors of increased productivity and, even wider, success of the company (Antila & Ylöstalo, 1999; NUTEK, 1999). The idea of transferring responsibility, at least partly, to the workers¹⁷ is by no means new. It is related to the discussion of work humanisation that has been a discussed topic in work sociology for decades now.

The great transition period the Baltic countries underwent in the 90's presumably required also a change of task organisation at the same time as the entire concept of work had to be re-evaluated. In the free market economy, the enterprises cannot ignore the quality of work, times of delivery etc. which was still possible in the time of the Soviet Union. To be successful, even to survive, requires investments in either quality or price – more and more often in both. According to several western studies, the outdated and hierarchical, the so-called Taylorist organisation of manufacturing, can only seldom respond to the stepping-up competition and the hectically changing operation environment that the enterprises have. The enterprise is more often dependent on the involvement and commitment of its personnel and on the extensive utilisation of the personnel's competence. We shall not study here the chances of survival of the companies from that point of view directly, but the answers given by individual employees convey us indirect information about how general it is among the Baltic companies, in the spirit of the times, to be functionally flexible.

The workers' possibilities to influence will be separately charted in the following respects: tasks, pace of work and opportunities to participate in training. Moreover, the workers' autonomy in the following aspects shall be measured: daily and weekly planning of work and follow-up of work quality. These three

¹⁷ There are several books available on worker participation and its effects. See e.g. Guest & Knight, 1979; Julkunen, 1987; Womack & Jones & Roos, 1990; EPOC, 1995 and 1999; NUTEK, 1996; Gallie & White & Cheng & Tomlinson, 1998; Kevätsalo, 1999; OECD, 1999.

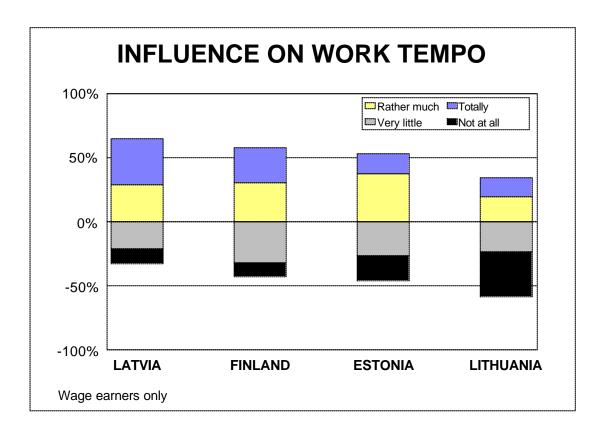
indicators are combined in a so-called responsibility index used to compare the Baltic countries with not only each other but also with Finland.



It seems that the Latvians have the best possibilities to influence their own job tasks. In fact, Latvia was the only country where more than 50 per cent of the workers feel that they have fairly many possibilities to influence their job tasks. In the other countries studied over the half of the employees feel that their possibilities to influence are either few or non-existing. Finland¹⁸ and Estonia are practically at the same level in this respect whereas in Lithuania, the workers have clearly less possibilities of influence than in the other countries.

In Finland, men seem to have more, and also more often, possibilities to influence their job tasks than women. On the other hand, the possibilities to influence one's job tasks are not related to gender in any of the Baltic countries. No difference can be seen, either, between the public and private sector elsewhere than in Estonia where the workers in the private sector seem to have slightly more possibilities to influence their job tasks than in the public sector.

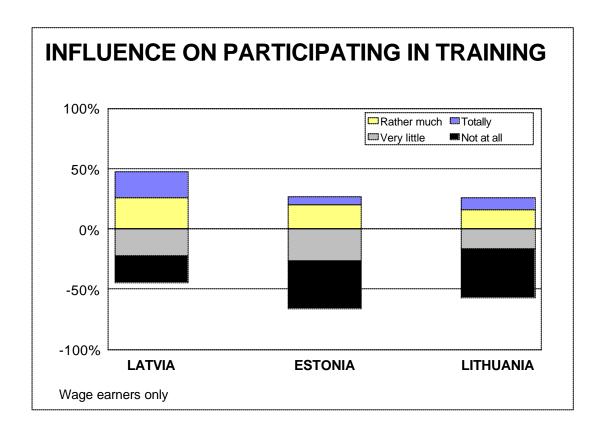
¹⁸ Finnish figures taken from the Quality of Work Life Survey, 1997, by Statistics Finland



The wage-earners in Latvia are able to influence also their working pace to a greater extent than the wage-earners in the other countries. Besides Latvia, also in Finland¹⁹ and Estonia, the number of those with the possibility to influence their working pace is greater than the number of those with no or only few such possibilities. The least possibilities of influence also in this matter have the Lithuanian wage-earners.

The 'order' between the countries is the same, as far as the possibilities to influence the job tasks and working pace are concerned. Similarly, the impact or non-impact of gender on the results received is the same in both questions. Only in Finland, men seem to have more possibilities of influence than women whereas in the Baltic countries, the gender has no bearing on either of the questions. In Finland and Latvia, the private sector employee's possibilities to influence his/her working pace are a little better than the public sector employee's. In Estonia and Lithuania, such difference between the public and private sectors does not exist.

¹⁹ Finnish figures taken from the Quality of Work Life Survey, 1997, by Statistics Finland



The employees' possibilities to receive training when they consider it necessary themselves are clearly worse than in questions studied above. As we have shown before, the changes in training opportunities were only slightly positive. Training arranged by the employer is a very problematic question in the Baltic countries.

Again, Latvia is a head taller than the other Baltic countries. Only in Latvia the proportion of those who have opportunities to receive training is greater (47 %) than of those (45 %) who practically do not have such opportunities. In Estonia and Lithuania the majority of the employees do not have possibilities to receive training when desired by themselves. Furthermore, 17 per cent of Lithuanian respondents could not even answer the whole question. This can be regarded as rather a negative fact because such a result shows that the Lithuanians are at least not aware of their possibilities i.e. they have not faced a situation in which they would have started to seek further training. On the other hand, this tells us about the inflexibility of the Lithuanian labour market and working life. Another interpretation of this considerably big proportion of the uncertain is that a substantial proportion of the wage-earners do not even need further training because their tasks are traditional, monotonous and, very often, hierarchically directed.

When we studied this matter according to gender and working sector (private/public) it turned out, surprisingly, that the Lithuanian women²⁰ have more possibilities to influence their participation in training than the men. It shall be noticed, however, that quite a great proportion of men (21%) could not or did not want to answer the question at all. The working sector is also significant in this respect. In Lithuania, the public sector workers have more possibilities of influence than the private sector workers. The same applies to Estonia²¹, which can be considered surprising. Nevertheless, the gender does not have any effect whatsoever on this matter in Estonia. The most uniform results of the Baltic countries were received in Latvia. Neither the working sector nor the gender has no bearing on the possibilities to receive training.

A separate index was used to measure the (de)centralisation of power of decision. The reason for this aspect of survey was the thought that both the productivity, competence and workers' job satisfaction increase if the individuals are allowed to participate in the decision-making concerning themselves. They understand and feel the responsibility related to these decisions and commit themselves more to the activities. Then the 'waste' or underutilisation of human resources decreases and the enterprise grows more competitive (see Kevätsalo, 1999). In the private sector, delegation of responsibility to the executive level is important also because it gives the enterprise more speed and flexibility on the market to turn to whatever direction needed (NUTEK, 1996). Our studies showed, too, that it is vital, especially in the private sector, to share responsibility and to give independence to the workers in order to make the company able to meet the ever-changing challenges. In fact, even such a simple indicator as the responsibility index gives a fairly good forecast of the company's success in the long run. This applies at least to Finland (see Antila & Ylöstalo, 1999).

Country	Responsibility index, mean	
LATVIA	-0,71	

²⁰ Pearson's X2 value between the gender and the possibilities to influence training in Lithuania was .011. The value between the working sector and the possibilities to influence training was .015, i.e. in both cases significant values were received.

²¹ Pearson's X2 value between the working sector and the possibilities to influence training in Estonia was .001.

ESTONIA	-1,03
LITHUANIA	-2,74

The responsibility index²² averages show significant deviations from each other. Also according to this indicator, the working life in Latvia seems to be the most modern and functionally the most flexible in the Baltic countries. It must be noticed, nonetheless, that in all the countries the average is negative. The index shows that the majority of the wage-earners in all of the countries are unable to influence the planning of their own work. There is still a lot to improve in this respect. Flexible production models are used the least in Lithuania where as many as one third of the wage-earners got the lowest possible index value, -6. In other words, every third work-going Lithuanian is unable to influence the order of his/her tasks and bears no responsibility for the work quality. This proportion is noticeably greater than in Latvia (13 %) or in Estonia (15 %).

The level of the wage-earners' satisfaction with the organisation of the work turned out to be as expected. The proportion of satisfied workers was greatest in Latvia, almost two thirds (62 %). Thirteen per cent of the Latvian workers were dissatisfied. Half of the workers (51 %) in Estonia were satisfied while the percentage of those not satisfied was approximately the same as in Latvia, 14. The proportion of satisfied workers was smallest in Lithuania, 47 %. On the other hand, only 12 % were dissatisfied with the organisation of their work. Despite the stiff organisation of work, it would be unreasonable to talk about a wide dissatisfaction with the ways of work organisation, rather about a wide acceptance.

RESPONSIBILITY INDEX, MEAN

²² In this study, the responsibility index is formed rather simply through three questions: Who normally executes the following work tasks at your workplace? 1) daily planning of own work, 2) weekly planning of own work, 3) quality control. Answering options and their rating: employee him/herself (2 points), employees together (1 point), foreman (-1 point) and management or someone else (-2 points). If the person interviewed could not answer he/she was recorded as 'data missing'. The points were added up, which gave the maximum index of 6 and minimum index of –6. The figure in the table is the arithmetic mean of the index.

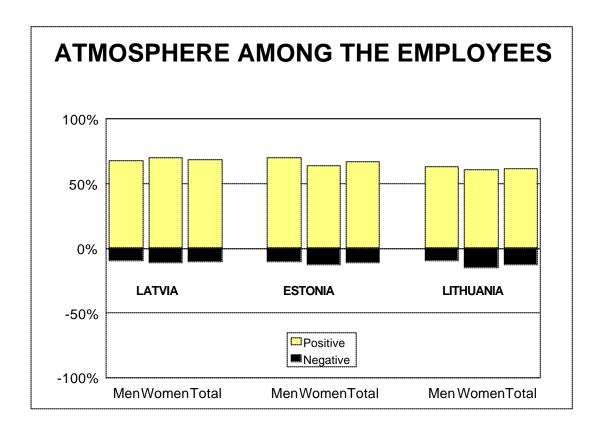
Country	Older public sector establish- ments	Older reorgan- ised enterprises	New enterprises (established after 1988)
LATVIA	-0,71	-1,17	0,02
ESTONIA	-0,89	-1,03	-0,18
LITHUANIA	-2,02	-2,74	-1,44
FINLAND ²³			0,89

The order between the establishments was the same in all the Baltic countries. The new and mostly private establishments share responsibility and give independence to their workers more than the older state-owned establishments. The least responsibility and independence is given to the workers in older, fundamentally reorganised and often also privatised companies. The leadership culture in these companies seems very often to be not modernised. They also have various other kinds of difficulties, as we have learned before. It is possible, therefore, and on the basis of this material even likely, that many of them will not survive in the future.

SATISFACTION WITH WORK

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²³ The Finnish data is taken from the material of the project *Flexible Enterprise*. The project material was received through employer questionnaires which makes it different from the data of this study which was received through employees' answers. Furthermore, the material of the project *Flexible Enterprise* included private sector establishments (both old and new) with 10 or more employees, only.



In all Baltic countries, the majority of the wage-earners feel that the work atmosphere²⁴ is positive and that the colleagues show solidarity towards each

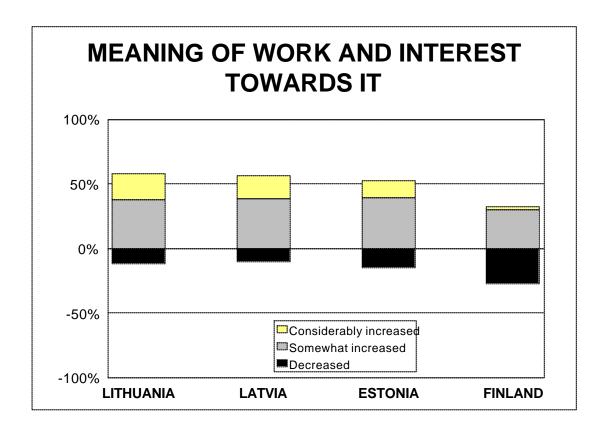
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The method used in analysing the working atmosphere was a sum variable consisting of three statements ('I can trust my co-workers', 'There is a pleasant atmosphere and a spirit of solidarity', 'My co-workers think only about themselves, their job, not considering the others'). The respondents were given a 5-step answering scale (1 Totally agree – 5 Totally disagree). Additionally, one of the possible answers was 'I don't know'. If the person chose the answer 'I don't know' for one of the statements, he/she was recorded as 'data missing'. Because of this procedure, the proportion of missing data was rather big (Lithuania 12%, Estonia 11% and Latvia 9%). The missing data have been included in the analysis which means that the proportions are 'real' proportions. 'Valid percentages' were not used in the analysis.

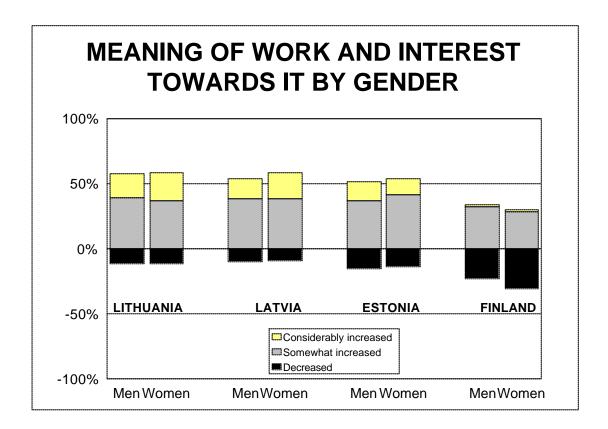
The last statement was first coded reversely and then the scale was reduced to three steps (1+2= agree, new value 1; neutral value 3, new value 0; 4+5= disagree, new value -1). This gives the sum variable a variation range of +3 (very positive atmosphere and high degree of solidarity) to -3 (very negative atmosphere and low degree of solidarity). The shares of the positive values (1-3) of the variation range were added up and the received share was classified as the share of positive atmosphere. Correspondingly, the shares of the negative values were added up and the received share was classified as the share of negative atmosphere. The remaining share is treated as attitude-neutral and is not presented in the diagram. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of the sum variable reliability analysis was 0.72 in Estonia, 0.69 in Lithuania and 0.59 in Latvia.

other at the working place. In Estonia and Latvia, up to two thirds, and in Lithuania over 60% of the respondents considered the working atmosphere generally good. The gender, age or enterprise history (old state establishment, older but reorganised and often privatised establishment, newer establishment) have only little significance for the working atmosphere. The majority of women and men in all ages and in all establishments mentioned above experience that the working atmosphere is good. The working atmosphere was considered poor and the mutual trust among the colleagues inadequate by every tenth of the respondents in all the countries. Such negative experiences can also be evenly found everywhere.

A good atmosphere at the working place is without question an important factor contributing to the meaning of work and mental well-being. Job satisfaction is at a high level in all the Baltic countries and there is a general feeling that the work has become more meaningful. If the change of the meaning of work in the Baltic countries is compared to that in Finland, the difference is huge. In Finland, the workers do not have a general feeling of their work having become more meaningful. The Finns consider, however, working really important (Lehto & Sutela, 1999, 6-7, cf. Kortteinen, 1992). It is probable that in Finland, the meaning of work has stabilised at some level and changes are minor. The great transition period in this decade has had a revolutionary impact on all fields of life, including the working life, in the Baltic countries. Free space was left for a positive change of the meaning of work.

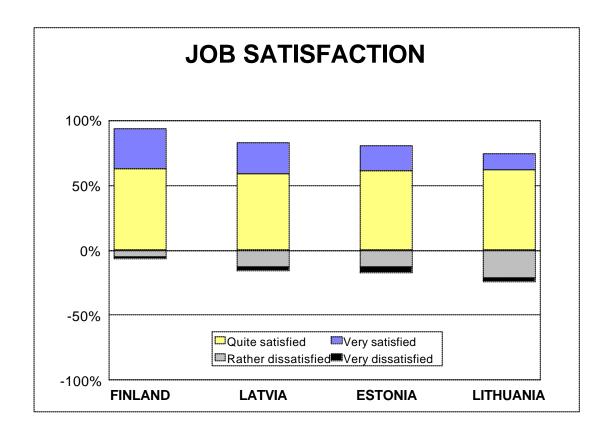


More people than before experience their work as meaningful in the Baltic countries. Differences between Lithuania, Latvia and Estonia are trivial. The situation is clearly different in the Baltic countries from what it is in Finland, as far as the change of meaning of work is concerned. In all the Baltic countries, more than the half of the workers reported of an increased meaning of work and only 10-15 % felt that the meaning of work had decreased while in Finland, only less than one third of the workers had experienced a positive change and almost as many (27 %) had a feeling of a decreased meaning of work. Only extremely few Finns reported of a considerable improvement in meaning of work (Työolobarometrin aineisto, 1998).



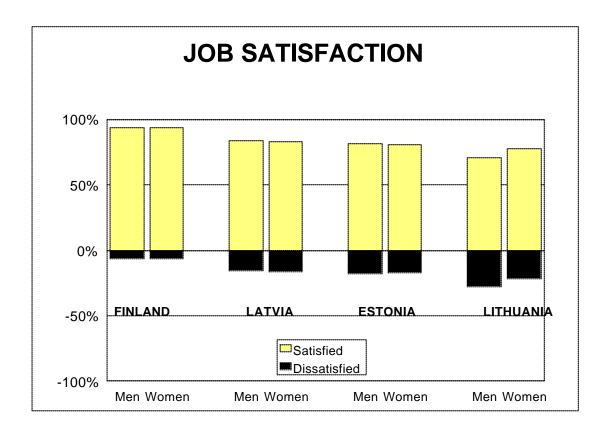
The meaning of work and the interests towards it have changed similarly for men and women in the Baltic countries. There are only few differences of experience between the sexes and they cannot be regarded as significant. On the other hand, the Finnish women experience the change as more negative than men. Age does not seem to have a stronger impact on the changes in the meaning of work in any of the countries presented in the diagram. It is evident, nevertheless, that younger employees experience the change as a little more positive than employees over 50 years of age.

In Estonia and Latvia, the meaning of work has typically decreased in older state establishments whereas in Lithuania the decrease has taken place in establishments with the most problems also otherwise, that is, in older reorganised enterprises. Nevertheless, even at these above mentioned working places approximately 50 % of the personnel considered the direction of change positive. To conclude, this direction of change promotes the work motivation in all the Baltic countries.



The survey of job satisfaction shows clearly that the number of workers satisfied with their jobs is remarkably greater in Finland²⁵ than in the Baltic countries. However, the vast majority of the wage-earners in all the countries are at least fairly satisfied with their recent jobs. The comparison of the individual countries reveals, again, the similarity of Latvia and Estonia. The proportions of all four answer groups (very satisfied, quite satisfied, rather dissatisfied and very dissatisfied) are almost identical in these countries. The smallest relative number of satisfied workers and the greatest relative number of dissatisfied workers can be found in Lithuania.

²⁵ Finnish figures taken from the Quality of Work Life Survey, 1997, by Statistics Finland.



Job satisfaction or dissatisfaction is connected with the gender only in Lithuania, where men are somewhat more dissatisfied than women. In the other countries, the results received of men and women are even amazingly similar. It would seem that the job dissatisfaction in Lithuania is distinctly connected with delays of pay that are much more usual there than in the other Baltic countries and of which the men have suffered more often than women. This fact partly explains the difference between the sexes. Almost every second (43 %) of the dissatisfied men accounted for the payments of wages having been delayed during the year prior to the survey while this was mentioned by only 23 % of the satisfied men.

In Latvia and Estonia, no significant differences can be found in the answers of persons of different ages whereas in Lithuania, a little surprisingly, perhaps, the younger respondents uttered dissatisfaction more often than the older ones. Almost one third of the Lithuanians under the age of 40 were dissatisfied with their jobs. A strikingly big proportion of them (47 %) were manual workers. Thirty-nine per cent of all Lithuanian respondents belonged to this category. Moreover, only half (49 %) of the dissatisfied younger workers had a permanent written employment contract while the percentage of all Lithuanians in such work relationships was 63 %. They don't, however, differ much from the average

Lithuanian in any other respect. Results received concerning the level of payment, delayed payments of wages, history and organisation²⁶ of the working place, stressfulness of work etc. were approximately the same or as usual no matter if the respondents belonged to the group of the young dissatisfied workers or not. These factors listed above do not explain the relatively usual job dissatisfaction of young people in Lithuania.

SUMMARY

There has been a lively discussion in work sociology during the last decade of how work should be organised in order to make it as productive and meaningful as possible and to keep its quality at the highest possible level. Different production models have been discussed by some (e.g. lean production, Womack & Jones & Roos, 1990; anthropocentric production, Cooley, 1989;); others talk about a certain type of enterprise or attitude of the enterprise (e.g. flexible enterprise, Atkinson 1987; front-runners, NUTEK, 1999; enterprise-like working community, Kevätsalo, 1999; proactive enterprise culture, Antila & Ylöstalo, 1999). What all these ideas developed in different contexts have in common is the objective to do away with unnecessary hierarchical structures in the company and the relatively wide participation and autonomy of the core workers connected with accountability in one way or the other.

One of the purposes of this study was to find out to what extent the above mentioned 'modern' or 'fashionable' enterprise culture has been adopted in the Baltic countries. The comparison between the countries showed that the Latvian working life is by far the most modern and that of Lithuania is as clearly bringing up the rear. On the basis of the received material, the workers in Latvia are able to influence their tasks, planning of the tasks and working pace more than their counterparts in Estonia and Lithuania. Furthermore, the Latvians follow up the quality of their work more often than the others and are entitled to work-related training when needed. Generally, it seems that the Latvian working life has developed into a modern and competitive direction.

²⁶ The establishments were divided into three categories: 1) Enterprises founded after 1988, 2) older, but later reorganised and mostly privatised enterprise and 3) old state-owned establishment.

The most modern working practices are applied in the newer private enterprises, regardless of the country. On the other hand, the most severe difficulties, also in this respect, are faced with in the older, fundamentally reorganised and mostly also privatised enterprises. It seems that the re-organisation was not the key in solving the big problems that the enterprises had. These enterprises have structures so outdated that it is difficult to predict a rosy future for them.

Another subject of this study was job satisfaction. In all the Baltic countries, the majority of the wage-earners are relatively satisfied both with their jobs and the work atmosphere. Moreover, more than half of the respondents accounted for an improved meaning of work during the year prior to the survey, which is a respect that Finland differs greatly from the Baltic countries. In Finland, a decreased meaning of work is experienced by almost as many as is the opposite. Dissatisfaction with work in the Baltic countries is often related to very understandable factors, such as delayed payments of wages.

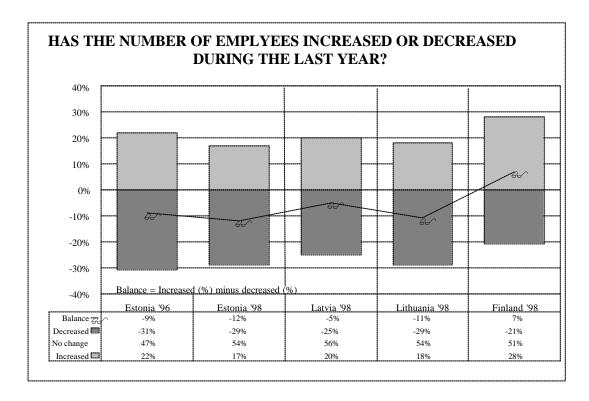
WORKING LIFE IN TRANSITION

This section deals with the expectations of changes in working life. The studied issue is the expectations for the near future. The time period has been kept rather short on purpose and the estimates are generally about the next 12 months. It is a question of transitions already started or just beginning. In conditions that change rapidly it is very questionable to estimate a long time period and many are unwilling to do this. The development of the last 12 months provides a background for the expectations of changes.

POSITION AND PERSONAL THREATS IN LABOUR MARKET

CHANGES IN PERSONNEL DURING THE LAST YEAR

The development of the employees' position in the labour market has a clear connection to the estimates of changes. If a person's own employment is insecure, it is reflected also to the expectations for the future.



The development of the employment varies a little between the Baltic Countries. However, the main tendency is that the number of employees has been decreasing. The development of the employment has thus been declining.

In Estonia, the balance between the increase and decrease of personnel is weaker in 1998 than in 1996. On the other hand, the number of changes is clearly smaller in 1998 than in 1996. In Latvia, the development of the amount of employees has been a little more positive than in Estonia and Lithuania. Also there the balance is still slightly negative and the number of employees has more often decreased than increased. In Lithuania, decrease is clearly more frequent than increase and the balance is very close to Estonia. The development of Finland's employment can be regarded as a kind of point of comparison. In Finland the trend has been positive during the last few years and it shows also in the growing number of employees. The balance in Finland is clearly positive.

The changes in the number of employees give rough picture of the context, in which the employees estimate their position and the changes in the future. The general picture is quite clear. In 1998 the development has been the most positive in Latvia. In Estonia the changes had the same direction and they were maybe a little faster two years ago. However, the direction has changed now and Estonia and Lithuania are very close to each other regarding the tendencies. It must be emphasised however that Estonia's working life developed much faster than Lithuania's in the early 90's and therefore the starting point is different.

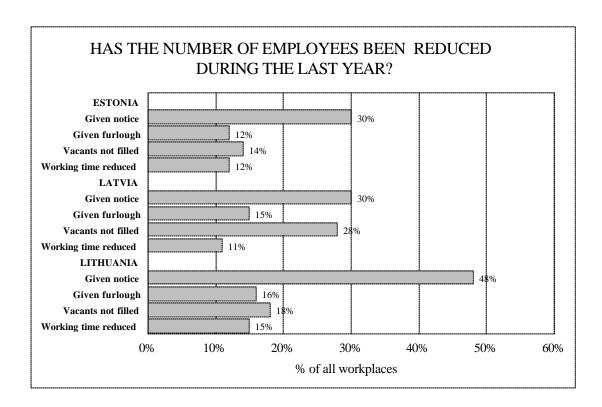
In all the Baltic Countries the number of employees has increased the least in old workplaces established before 1988 and the biggest increase has been in new workplaces established after 1988. Correspondingly, the number of personnel reductions is clearly the biggest in old and reorganised workplaces than in new workplaces.

The increase and decrease of the number of employees in the Baltic Countries in new, reorganised and old workplaces in 1998

	Increased (%)	No changes (%)	Decreased (%)
ESTONIA			
Old	9	55	37
Reorganised	13	51	36
New	30	55	16
LATVIA			
Old	13	56	31

Reorganised	23	48	30
New	28	57	15
LITHUANIA			
Old	12	55	33
Reorganised	23	48	28
New	25	54	21

The changes in the number of employees indicate clearly the change in the structure of working life. Old workplaces established before 1988 are obviously losing their share concerning the whole working life. In reorganised workplaces the number of employees has increased in Latvia and especially in Lithuania, but reductions have also been general as well. Thus the development has had two directions; some have been successful, but very many have cut down their operations. Estonia differs from Latvia and Lithuania, there the reorganised workplaces have developed to a positive direction clearly less than the new enterprises. The Estonian new enterprises have the strongest position in these three countries.



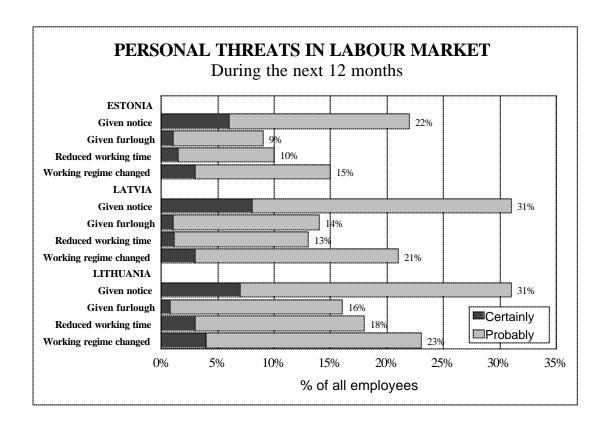
There are also some differences between the Baltic Countries regarding the methods of reducing the number of employees. In Lithuania, notices are clearly

more general than in the other two countries. Almost a half of Lithuanian workplaces has given notice to one or more employees during the last year. In Estonia and Latvia, the number is 30 %. Also there the most general method of reducing personnel is to give notice.

It is more characteristic to Latvia than for the other two countries that the vacant jobs are not filled again. This 'natural wastage' is the most common method of reducing personnel also in Finland and in many other EU-countries.

PERSONAL THREATS IN LABOUR MARKET

The situation described above can be considered as a rough context for the estimates on personal position in labour market. There are however other individual differences, due to education and qualifications for example, that have an effect on this situation.

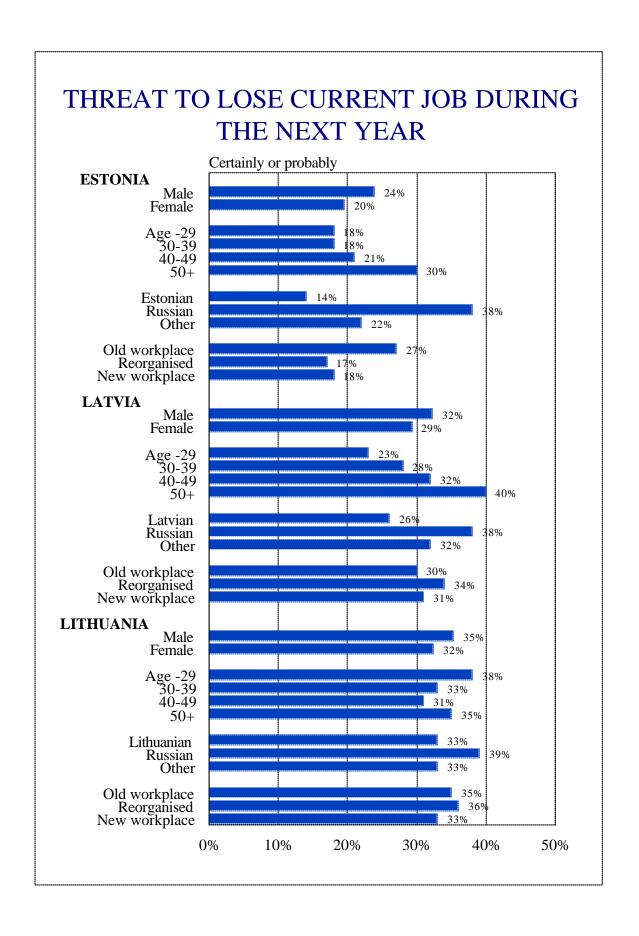


There are a lot of personal or work-related threats in the Baltic Countries. Compared to Finland for example, it is two or three times more general to experience this kind of uncertainty in the Baltic Countries (compare Ylöstalo 1999, pages 43-49).

As a whole, the least threats are experienced in Estonia and the most threats in Lithuania. In all three countries the threat of losing job is the most common threat on individual level. As pointed out earlier, the Lithuanian workplaces have clearly more notices given than in Latvia or Estonia. However, on individual level the Latvians and the Lithuanians consider the threat of losing job during the next year as probable. The Estonians are clearly less afraid of losing their jobs than the Latvians and the Lithuanians. The Latvians' fears are not easy to comprehend due to the development of their workplaces and it is obvious that there are also other reasons for these expectations.

The threats at work are different between different groups of employees. The next diagram has information on experiencing the threat of losing job in different groups of employees. The percentages show the number of persons who have estimated that they will certainly or probably lose their job during the next year. The information on each country has been grouped according to gender, age, nationality and the type of workplace.

In all the Baltic Countries, men experience the threat of losing job a little more often than women. Also in each of the countries, persons of Russian nationality expect clearly more often than others that they will be given notice during the next year. The difference between Russians and the others is proportionately speaking the biggest in Estonia and the smallest in Lithuania. The Russians' threat of losing their jobs does not seem to depend on their percentage of the population which varies a lot between the countries.



When the threat of losing job is compared between the age groups, Lithuania differs clearly from Estonia and Latvia. In Latvia and especially in Estonia, the threat of losing job increases clearly with the age. In Lithuania however, persons under the age of 30 have experienced more threat than the other age groups and the differences between the age groups are relatively small. The threat decreases after the age of 30 and it increases only after the age of 50. Unlike in Estonia and Latvia, young age does not seem to be a strength in abour market in Lithuania.

Estonia is different from the other two countries, because there are clearly less personal threats of losing job than in Latvia or Lithuania. The threat is common especially in old workplaces established before 1988. Compared to these, there are about 10 per cent less persons experiencing the threat in both reorganised and new workplaces. Again, both in Latvia and Lithuania notices are feared the most in reorganised workplaces. In these countries, the differences between the workplaces are relatively small.

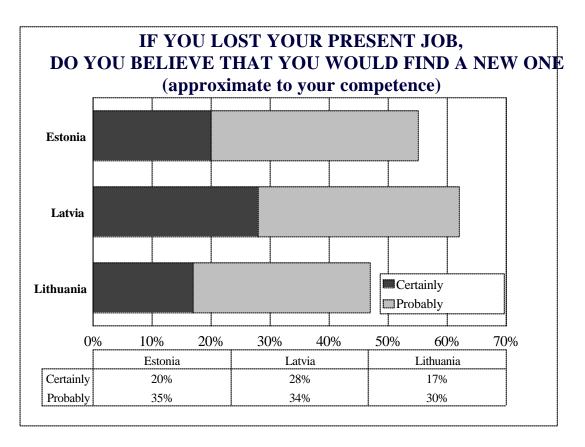
It can be seen that with the exception of persons of Russian nationality, the threat of losing job is experienced less in Estonia than in the other two countries. In Estonia, people working for new enterprises and especially for enterprises established after Estonia's independence have a clearly stronger position than the average.

Also in Latvia, young age seems to reduce threats of losing job. On the other hand, persons over 50 years of age have an exceptionally big risk of losing their job. The difference is also clear compared to the other Baltic Countries. In Latvian reorganised workplaces, a little more threats than the average are experienced.

It is characteristic for Lithuania that the fear of losing job is general among persons under 30 years of age. The difference from the other Baltic Countries is very clear. In Lithuania, the threats of losing job are common also in old and reorganised workplaces.

CONFIDENCE IN GETTING A NEW JOB WHEN GIVEN NOTICE

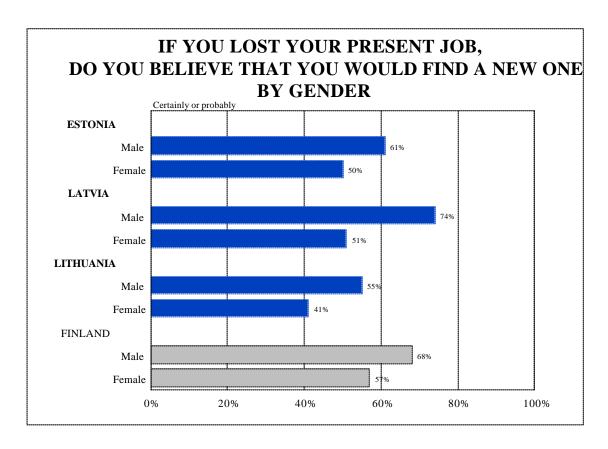
The mere threat of losing job does not tell everything about a person's position in labour market. Losing job is always a serious and significant event in the life of a wage earner. However in the long run, finding a new job is also important. If the possibilities to find a new job are good, the consequences of losing job are rather small compared to a situation where finding a new job is difficult.



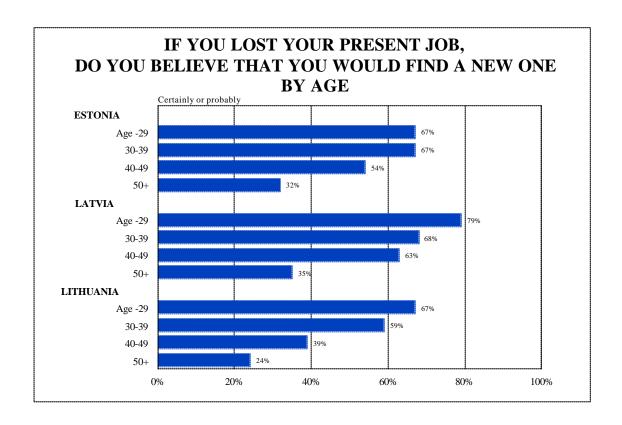
The working people of the Baltic Countries were asked this question: "If you lost your present job, do you believe that you would find a new one (approximate to your competence)?"

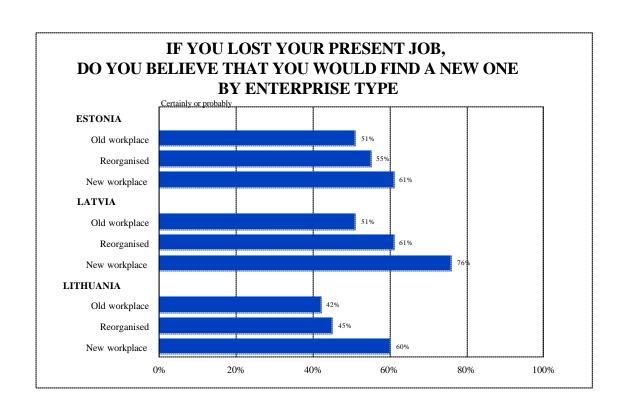
The Latvians believe most often that they can find a new job approximate to their competence if they lost their present job. The percentage of persons being certain that they would find a new job is clearly the biggest in Latvia and the smallest in Lithuania.

In Estonia the percentage of people believing in finding a new job has decreased clearly especially in new workplaces established after the re-independence. In 1996 eight out of ten employees in new workplaces believed in finding a new job. After two years the percentage was only 61 %.



The confidence to find a new job approximate to competence after getting notice has a strong connection to age and gender. In all the Baltic Countries, men are clearly more confident in finding a new job. Clearly the most positive estimates come from Latvian men; two thirds of them believe in finding a new job. The Lithuanian women have been the most sceptical; only 41 per cent of them estimate that a new job can be found certainly or probably. When Finland is compared to the Baltic Countries it can be seen that the differences are very small.





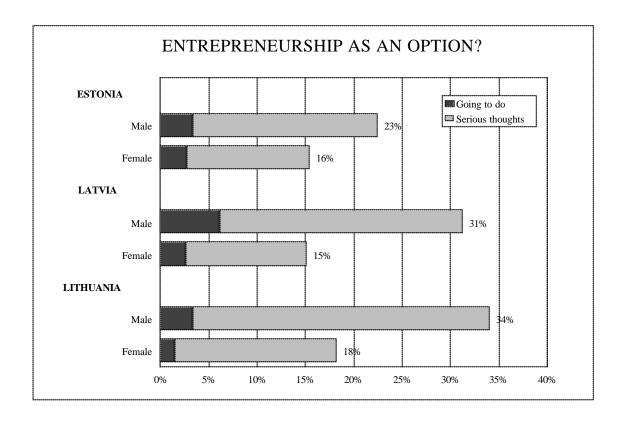
The younger the person is the better position he/she thinks he/she has in labour market. This rule is true in all three countries. However in Estonia, the percentages of people under 30 years and between 30 and 39 years of age are the same. The youngest age group in Latvia has the most positive attitude towards the position in labour market. In all the Baltic Countries, people over 50 years of age have the least confidence in finding a new job approximate to competence.

People working for new enterprises have more positive estimates on their position in labour market than the others. The difference is very clear in Latvia and Lithuania. Clearly the weakest positions can be found in old or reorganised Lithuanian workplaces.

ENTREPRENEURSHIP AS AN OPTION

Work remunerated by the employer is not the only way to involve oneself in the labour market. Another possibility is to establish a company of one's own and become an entrepreneur. This possibility may be worth considering for those who have lost their jobs for one reason or another. The popularity of the alternative of becoming an entrepreneur was measured with the question "Have you thought about becoming an entrepreneur, to set up a business of your own?" Surprisingly many had given this alternative a serious thought and some were already realising these ideas.

Men were clearly more interested in setting up an own enterprise. Differences between women from different countries were relatively small: roughly 15 per cent of the women had seriously thought about or were already setting up an enterprise of their own.



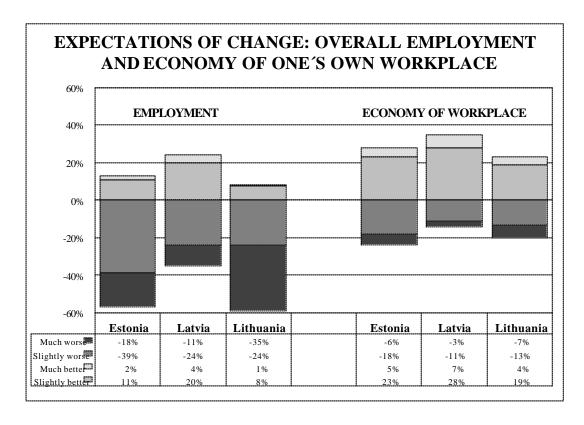
The greatest interest in entrepreneurship among men could be found in Lithuania and the least in Estonia. The greatest number of people who had realised the idea of establishing an enterprise was in Latvia. A general conclusion could be drawn that the more developed the market of remunerated labour is the less interest in entrepreneurship there is.

As a whole there are rather big differences of individual position in the labour market as regards people working in the Baltic states. In spite of the deteriorated situation in Estonia during the past two years, the position of the Estonian workers is the firmest, as a whole, since the number of threats of notice is the smallest there. However, the position of the Latvian workers has considerably improved. Despite the great number of threats of notice, the Latvian respondents believed more often than those of the other Baltic countries to find a new corresponding employment if they should be dismissed. Furthermore, the number of workers who have started an own company is big in Latvia. In Lithuania, especially the young are afraid of losing their jobs. Still, they are also confident to find new employments. The position of the Lithuanian workers in the labour market is worsened by a great number of dismissals.

FUTURE EXPECTATIONS AND DIRECTION OF CHANGE

EXPECTATIONS OF CHANGE REGARDING EMPLOYMENT AND ECONOMY

In all the Baltic countries, the rate of unemployment has grown during the last few years and the open unemployment is, at the moment, close to the EU average. It shall be noticed that the level of unemployment allowance is pretty low in all the countries and, therefore, the registered rate of unemployment is lower than the real one. On the other hand, employment training typical of many EU countries is not usual in the Baltic states which distorts the comparison to the opposite direction.

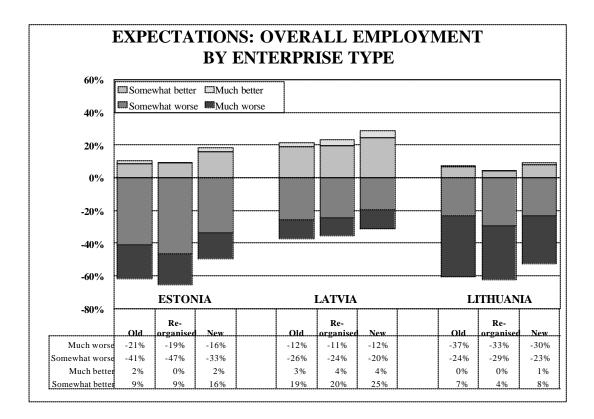


The working people in the Baltic countries are rather pessimistic about the development of the near future. Almost 60 per cent of the Estonians and Lithuanians questioned estimated that the unemployment will still grow during the next year. The Latvians' expectations are clearly more positive as only 35 per cent believe in a deteriorating employment situation.

In Lithuania, more than every third expects the employment situation to become far more worse than what it is now, and only one per cent expect it to improve considerably. The Lithuanians are distinctly more pessimistic about changes in the employment situation than the citizens in the other Baltic countries.

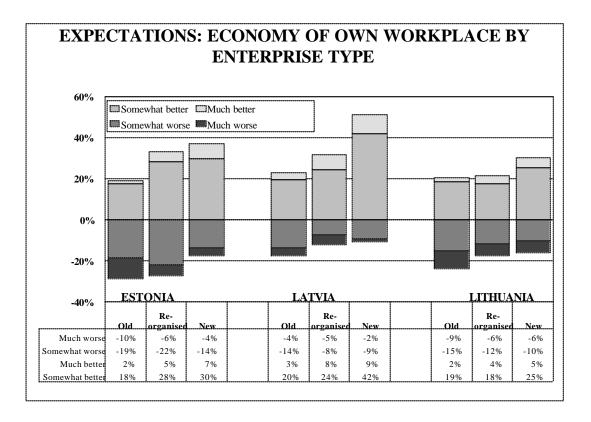
The estimations of the development of the economy of one's own workplace are clearly more positive than those concerning the changes in the employment situation. The differences between the three countries are similar in both the questions. The number of those who believe in a positive development is the smallest in Lithuania whereas the proportion of positive expectations is by far the greatest in Latvia. In Estonia, there is more variation in the expectations of people than in Latvia. The number of both those awaiting a positive change and of those who believe in a negative change was greater in Estonia than in Lithuania. Altogether, the expectations concerning both the employment situation and the economy are clearly the most positive in Latvia.

The estimations vary to some extent according to the workplace. The next graph compares the future prospects in older workplaces established before 1988, in older reorganised workplaces and in newer workplaces established after 1988.



In all three countries, those who were employed at the newer workplaces gave the most positive estimations about the future development of the employment situation. The workers in the Estonian and Lithuanian reorganised enterprises were the most negative as regards the future development of the employment situation during the next year. The most negative prospects in Latvia, a country with the most positive prospects generally, were encountered in the older enterprises.

The estimations concerning the development of economy of the own workplace parallel greatly with the changes of economy during the last year presented above. The expectations of an improved economy are noticeably more usual at the newer workplaces than at the others. In Latvia, the differences between the different types of workplaces are extremely big whereas in Lithuania, the differences are the smallest. Also the Lithuanian economy on the whole has experienced the least changes. The expectations in Estonia are both negative and positive in large numbers which indicates a differentiated development of workplaces: some have high hopes and, at the same time, others suffer from a widely spread pessimism.

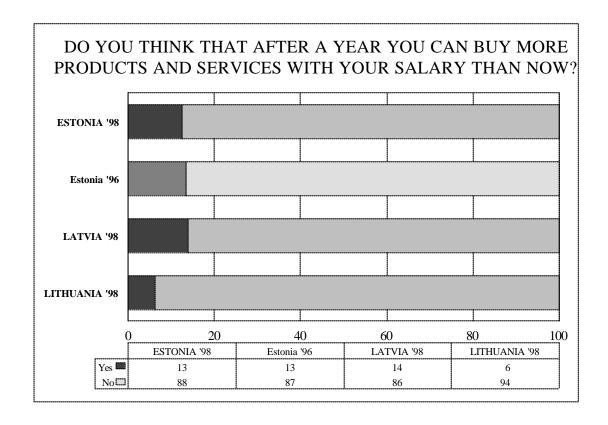


On the whole, the expectations concerning the employment situation and economy show that the future prospects in Latvia are more positive than in the other Baltic countries. Still in 1996, the expectations in Estonia were very optimistic but during the last two years they have undergone a negative turn. (Rahikainen - Ylöstalo 1997.) Even so, the future prospects not only at the newer but also at the reorganised workplaces are fairly positive. Quite a many Lithuanian workers believe that the situation will remain unchanged. At the older Lithuanian workplaces the expectations are more often negative than positive whereas the proportion of workers with positive future prospects has slightly grown at the newer and the reorganised workplaces when compared to the previous study.

EXPECTATIONS CONCERNING THE PURCHASING POWER OF SALARY

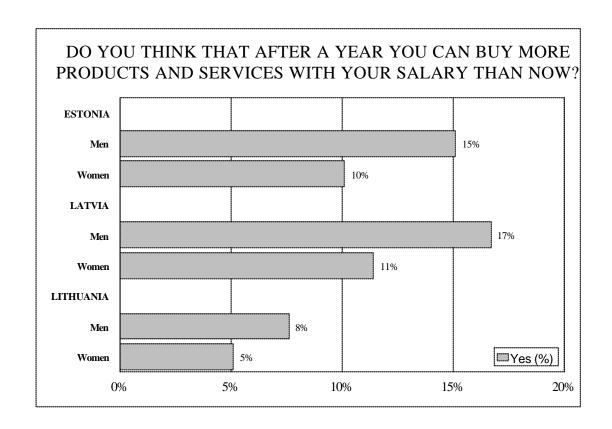
The prices have risen considerably in the Baltic states while the salaries have remained at a rather modest level. Nevertheless, the absolute amount of salary does not necessarily give a good picture of the development of livelihood. Therefore, we also wanted to find out about the expectations as concerns the personal purchasing power in the Baltic countries in the near future, i.e. whether

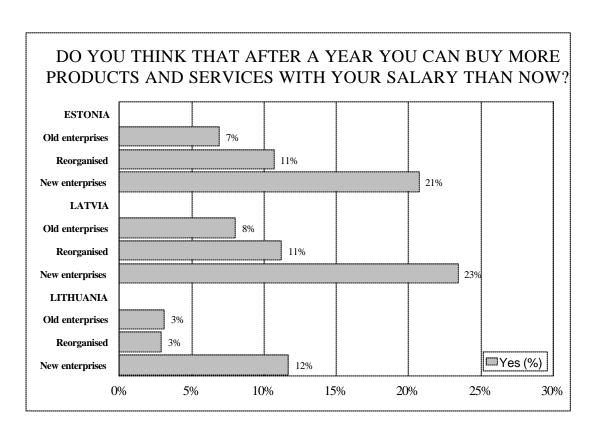
the working people will be able to buy more or less products and services a year from now.



In all the Baltic states, the belief in an improved purchasing power is rather low (6...14 per cent). In Estonia, slightly less people than in the previous study are confident that the purchasing power will increase. The number of people with this kind of confidence is the greatest in Latvia and clearly smallest in Lithuania where only 6 per cent of the working people have faith in an improved situation during the next year.

In all the three countries, the women are far more sceptical in their expectations than the men. The Estonian and Latvian men have the greatest faith in increased real wages. Every tenth Latvian and Estonian woman and only every twentieth Lithuanian woman believes that her real wages will rise during the following year.



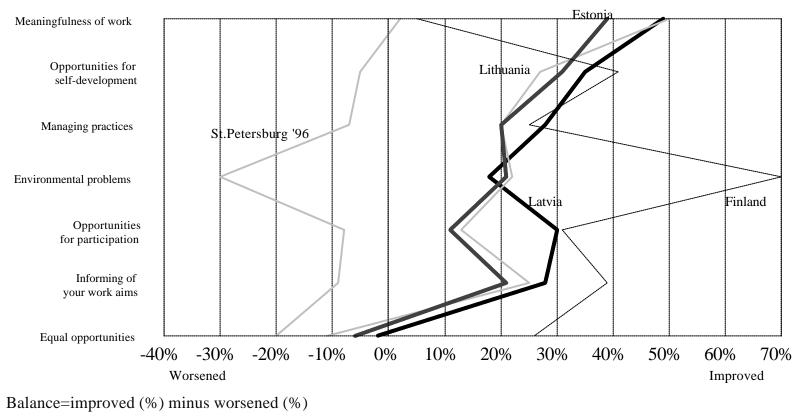


Expectations concerning salary are much more positive in newer enterprises established after 1988 than in the older ones. This applies to all three countries. In Estonia, the expectations of increased purchasing power of salary have slackened in all types of workplaces during the last couple of years. Even so, Estonia and Latvia are almost similar as regards this factor.

DIRECTION OF CHANGE

Nowadays, especially the media often discuss the rapid and constant change of working life. The changes are considered to sometimes happen so fast that it is hard to control them. The working people in the Baltic countries were asked to estimate the directions of such changes in relation to several other factors. Are we going toward the better or the worse? This kind of indicator has proven to be very delicate anticipating also changes in the near future.





The graph presents the balances between the estimations of change. The balances were received by subtracting the percentage of those anticipating a change for the worse from the percentage of those with positive anticipations. The balance tells, in other words, which group is larger – the one expecting the situation to grow worse or the one with positive expectations – and how big the difference between these is.

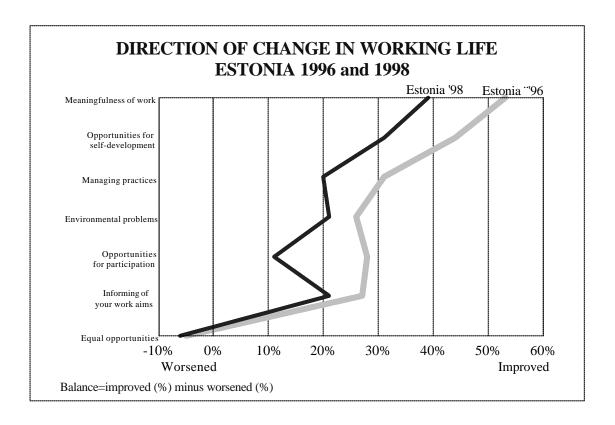
The estimations made by the working people in the Baltic countries about the direction of change are very much alike. On the other hand, the profile differs greatly from that made for the Finnish wage-earners. The difference is even bigger between the Baltic countries and the city of St.Petersburg. According to the material collected in 1996, the working people in St.Petersburg gave negative estimations about all other directions of change except the meaningfulness of work (Rahikainen – Ylöstalo, 1997). The comparisons show very clearly how the directions of change are estimated in most various ways in different countries and different circumstances.

On closer examination of the profiles, it becomes evident that the Latvians regard the changes of working life as slightly more positive than their counterparts in the other Baltic states. The Estonian and Lithuanian profiles are almost alike. Except for the issues of equality, the estimations of all factors are far more often positive than negative in all three countries.

In Latvia, only the direction of change in how the environmental matters are taken care of is considered negative more often than in the other Baltic countries. The development of possibilities for participation and of availability of information at the workplace is estimated to change positively clearly more often than in the other two countries. Positive expectations about the meaning-fulness of work are also expressed.

The meaningfulness of work in Lithuania is generally expected to develop positively. On the other hand, the change of direction concerning the opportunities for self-fulfilment or equality will, according to the estimations, be slightly more negative than in the other Baltic countries.

The Estonian estimations about the directions of change in working life resemble those made by the Lithuanians. The meaningfulness of work, the opportunities for influence and the availability of information are questions that have taken a slower positive development in Estonia than in the other Baltic states.



The Estonians have estimated the directions of change in 1998 more negatively than in 1996. With the exception of the changes in questions of equality, the positive development of all the other estimated factors, especially that of opportunities for participation at the workplace, has slowed down.

To conclude, the study into the directions of change in working life additionally buttresses the received impression of the positive development in Latvia whereas in Estonia, the positive expectations of change have distinctly decreased in proportion and are now in 1998 rather close to the estimations made by Lithuanians. The changes have been estimated, however, far more positively in all the Baltic countries than in the city of St.Petersburg. In comparison to Finland, the changes in how the environmental matters will be taken care of are estimated to be negative. On the other hand, in the three Baltic states, less people doubt the meaningfulness of working than in Finland.

DISCUSSION: SIMILAR BUT DIFFERENT

From far, Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania seem to be so alike: three rather small countries as far as both the area, population and GNP per capita are concerned. All of them are former Soviet states. They have eagerly striven to cut the bonds with Russia and tried to develop their own policy. This process has, however, proven not to be very easy. The Latvian and Lithuanian economies are still rather dependent on Russia and there is a large Russian minority in Latvia and Estonia, who uphold the Russian culture and at least the mental ties to Russia.

The economies of all Baltic states have grown during the last couple of years, the inflation has stayed at a durable level, but at the same time, the rate of real unemployment has already reached the EU average, even exceeded it in Latvia and Lithuania (Baltic Economies, 1999). Furthermore, both relative and absolute poverty is usual. There is a small minority of prosperous people in all the countries but the proportion of wealthy people is, at least up to now, rather small. None of these countries has, yet, become a middle-class society although the class structure has indeed changed since the time of socialism (Blom and Melin, 1999, 17).

All these countries apply a proportional taxation system that does not contribute to a more even distribution of income as does the progressive income taxation system widely used in the EU countries. This fact results in considerable differences of income and wealth between the citizens of the Baltic countries.

After the disintegration from the Soviet Union, the Baltic states have striven towards a free capitalistic market society and the role of the state has deliberately been kept rather trivial, not only because of economic but also ideological reasons (Nissinen, 1999, 273). Estonia has taken the lead in this process of liberalisation and privatisation (see Commission Opinion on Estonia's/Latvia's/Lithuania's Application for Membership of the European Union, 1997; Baltic Economies, 1999).

None of these countries has become a welfare state after the transition from a socialist into a market economy. In other words, the social security provided by them is not, in our opinion, extensive enough required of even a rudimentary welfare state (for definitions see e.g. Mishra, 1990; Leibfried, 1991). The lack of this social safety net naturally affects both the supply and demand of work.

Since the unemployment security is insufficient or not available at all, spontaneous measures must be taken by the individual to provide for a livelihood even if unemployed. The almost inevitable consequence of this are various kinds of social and individual problems. White-collar crimes like bribing and tax evasion are, most undoubtedly, connected with the fact that people feel architects of their own fortune; they feel that the society does not help them which makes the justification of taxes vague. Also violations²⁷ against the employees' rights and the employment legislation or other kinds of unethical activities between the employer and the employee are more usual to occur when the employees cannot trust the safety nets of the society. When the supply of work exceeds the demand for it, various kinds of social defects may come up at least for a part of the employed since the "exit possibility" is more limited. Such phenomena were, however, reasonably rare, as far as this study could find out.

At first glance, the three countries seem very much alike but a closer analysis reveals also significant differences between them. This study concentrated on the quality of working life, its present state and change. Undeniable differences between the countries could be found. These differences could be compared to a sports competition, say, a marathon. Estonia, Latvia and Lithuania have set out for the "capitalistic marathon" with different tactics leading to different consequences. Estonia started the race with a fast pace right from the beginning. Owing to the fast start, Estonia was long seen by the Nordic countries to lead the race. Lately, Estonia has had to pay for the fast start, it has a "stitch" in the stomach. The country has run into serious problems. The change has not been, at least to some extent, sufficiently controlled and during the last couple of years, the working people of Estonia have faced all kinds of problems. Excessive optimism has changed into every-day realism.

Latvia, on the other hand, started the race a little more calmly and has been able to keep the pace fairly even. Therefore, we have the impression that Latvia is now in the lead of the "Baltic Marathon". The Latvian working life could be characterised as the most modern of the Baltic states in both good and bad.

²⁷ Examples: Overtime work without remuneration, additional contracts with clauses that are harmful or disadvantageous for the employee who is forced to sign them (e.g. notice of dismissal that the employer can resort to if he so desires).

The Lithuanian working life is best characterised by inflexibility and avoidance of change. In fact, Lithuania has not even started running yet but is still walking on the start stretch. The difference between Lithuania and the other two Baltic states is, at the moment, remarkably big. It is unlikely that Lithuania can avoid such great changes in the future that Estonia and Latvia have already experienced, partly handled. It is probable that Lithuania's "pains of growth" lie still mainly ahead.

The difference of Lithuania can be explained with a variety of reasons. Its position in the Soviet Union was different from that of Latvia and Estonia. The Russian immigration to Lithuania was distinctly sparser than to the other two Baltic countries. The political elite maintained its independence better than its counterparts in Estonia and Latvia. After the independence, a progressive mtionality legislation was easier to create than in the other two countries. Also the political field developed in a way different from Latvia and Estonia. The former communists did not encounter as many difficulties as they did elsewhere in the Baltic states (Blom and Melin, 1999, 19). A fundamental change was probably not considered necessary, because in the Soviet Union, Lithuania was one of the most developed soviet states within USSR. Instead of making extensive changes, the country decided to go on as before, only in an altered economic and political context. Religion can also be an explanatory factor. Of all three Baltic countries, Lithuania is the only catholic country and that creates a different cultural environment compared to the other two Baltic countries. Such economic reforms that remind one of shock therapy in magnitude, or the "spirit of capitalism" are not so easy to be legitimated in a catholic culture. Because of all what has been said, the transition into the free capitalistic market economy has been more painful to Lithuania than to Latvia and Estonia.

The demonstrated analogy between the working lives, or yet wider, between the social changes occurred in the countries, and marathon is, of course, extremely simplified and subject to criticism. For example, it is value-bound. It is disputable what kind of working life or society should be striven for or even desired after a major change. The above was based on the assumption that all Baltic countries want to become members of the EU which, again, requires certain actions. Furthermore, enterprises in the EU, as well as in any other global economy, are forced to be profitable. This fact places various long and short-term explicit and implicit requirements on organisations. Effectiveness,

flexibility, proactivity, quality and commitment, among other things, are facts that are must be taken into account in the present and especially in the future economic context.

The advantage of low prices which the Baltic countries now enjoy and which is mainly due to low salaries, is likely to grow smaller year by year. When this happens both the enterprises and the employees, like in any other developed industrial country, will have to give more and more priority to quality, reliability of delivery etc. in order to keep the production in the country. At the nation-state level, one of the great challenges is to create a functioning social infrastructure and stability.

The objective of this study was not to make the countries compete with one another. Through comparison we found, however, three different strategies of working life change. Although from far, the three countries look very much alike, distinct differences exist as concerns the internal changes of the working lives. Each way of change has its own historical background and can be understood in its own context. The social situations and the economic decisions made in the respective countries have, even surprisingly clearly, differentiated and profiled the Baltic countries.

This study examined the changes from within the working life and from the viewpoint of an ordinary employee. Comparison of three different countries and three different strategies of change made this study interesting. It is obvious that different choices of progress can accordingly be seen in clear differences of working life quality and direction of its change. The table below presents the most essential characteristics studied of each country.

SOME CHARACTERISTICS OF WORKING LIFE QUALITY IN THE BALTIC COUNTRIES

	ESTONIA	LATVIA	LITHUANIA
Significance of trade union move- ment/ collective bargaining practice	-	The highest rate of organised workers in the Baltic countries	The highest number of collective agreements in the Baltic countries
Working hours	40-hour working week the most usual	40-hour working week the most usual but almost half of the men work more. The longest working weeks in the Baltic countries	40-hour working week the most usual
Pay		Preference for young age a decisive factor. The smallest number of delayed payments	The most even distri- bution of income but the greatest number of delayed payments
Stress factors	Intensification of work is usual	Work intensity is the highest in the Baltic countries. Almost 50 per cent experience the intensity too high	The lowest work intensity in the Baltic countries.
Conflicts at workplaces	Fairly few	Fairly few	Intensive polarisation: conflicts concentrated at some workplaces
Work productivity and job satisfaction	Increased productivity; the most people are satisfied with their work	The most improved work productivity; especially at newer private enterprises; the most people are satisfied with their work	Slow improvement; the most people are satisfied with their work
	Continues		
	ESTONIA	LATVIA	LITHUANIA

Employment situa-	Deteriorating em-	Slightly deteriorating	•
tion	ployment situation especially at the older workplaces. Rather high number of dismissals	employment situa- tion. Vacancies have not been filled and the number of dis- missals rather high; the development is, however, more posi- tive than in the other Baltic countries	employment situa- tion; a large number of dismissals, almost at half of the work- places
Individual's posi-	The least threats of	A lot of threats of	A lot of threats of
tion in the labour	dismissals; fairly	dismissals, but confi-	dismissals; this
market	high confidence to	dence to find new	number is excep-
	find new employment in case of dismissal	employment high	tionally high for young employees; confidence to find new employment lower than in the other countries
Expectations con-	Improvement of em-	Expectations con-	Negative expecta-
cerning the em-	ployment situation	cerning both the em-	tions concerning
ployment situation	not usually expected;	ployment situation	employment situa-
and economy	expectations con- cerning the eco- nomic situation of the workplace are positive at newer and reorganised work- places; expectations concerning the pur- chasing power of pay grown weaker	and the economy of the workplace are the most positive of all the Baltic countries; Expectations con- cerning the pur- chasing power of pay the least sceptical.	tion. The least changes in the economy of the work-place. The least number of those expecting the purchasing power of pay to rise.
			Continues
	ESTONIA	LATVIA	Continues LITHUANIA

of changes	fore expect the di-	change generally	work increasing; oth-
of changes	•		_
	rection of change to	more positive than in	erwise the estimated
	be positive. Slower	the other Baltic	directions of change
	change into positive	countries, excluding	resemble those of
	direction than in the	the environmental	Estonia; development
	other Baltic coun-	questions; positive	of possibilities for
	tries as concerns the	development in	self-development and
	possibilities of influ-	progress especially	of equality little
	ence, availability of	in possibilities of	slower than in the
	information and	influence and	other countries.
	meaningfulness of	availability of	
	work.	information.	
GENERAL IM-	Development	Clearly intensified	Activities based on
PRESSION	strongly market-di-	competitiveness.	the former strong
	rected and polarised.	Collaboration, a lot	position. Many con-
	The difference be-	of positive expecta-	flicts and other la-
	tween the labour	tions. A fairly even	bour market-related
	market positions of	development into a	problems also at the
	Estonians and Rus-	competitive direc-	newer workplaces
		tion. The young are in	-
	the Baltic countries.	a clearly stronger	The most severe
	Regressive labour	positions in the la-	problems at the reor-
	market development	bour market than the	ganised but often
	during the last couple	aged.	also at the privatised
	of years is creating		enterprises.
	problems		•

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APPENDIX

ESTONIA: REGIONAL PROFILES

	Region					
	Tallinn	Tartu,	Narva,	Other	Other towns	Country
	(n=303)	Pärnu,	Kohtla-	county	(n=60)	sites,
PERCENTAGES BY REGIONS		Viljandi	Järve,	centres		villages
		(n=112)	Jõhvi	(n=66)		(n=268)
			(n=102)			
Proportion of written employment contracts						
-permanent	64	55	62	67	55	70
-fixed term	22	40	28	20	39	21
No written employment contract	14	6	10	13	6	10
Has signed an additional agreement	10	11	17	5	8	11
Proportion of "new" workplaces						
(founded after 1988)	42	37	26	41	30	33
Proportion of increasing workplaces	19	14	15	14	18	12
Rivalry and internal competition exists	47	52	44	32	53	38
Is able to influence work tempo	63	54	59	46	54	53
Intensity of work increased	55	57	51	38	54	48
Safety at work decreased	7	6	10	6	14	7
Physical stress increased	49	50	39	42	48	44
Mental stress increased	45	52	40	42	56	43

	Tallinn	Tartu, Pärnu, Viljandi	Narva, Kohtla- Järve, Jõhvi	Other county centres	Other towns	Country sites, villages
Support from the direct superior increased	27	25	11	15	28	26
Possibilities to use professional skills increased	38	41	34	23	40	37
Trade union exists (proportion of workplaces)	22	22	50	14	8	15
Employees' representatives/stewards exist	6	12	7	18	7	5
Collective agreements exist	11	5	42	11	5	5
The level of trade union membership	10	12	41	6	5	8
Received "black" wages or salaries	23	19	16	12	25	19
Have been delays in receiving his/her salary	18	19	21	9	18	24
Somebody has been fired during the 12 months	31	30	35	32	32	25
Vacancies not filled	13	9	16	17	18	16
Worked overtime during the last 2 months	38	28	30	36	22	36
Believes that will lose current job	24	26	58	11	23	18
Believes to find a new job, if the current job lost	74	62	43	54	62	61
Thinks that employment will get better	14	19	9	23	20	10
Thinks that can buy more with his salary next year	13	20	14	123	15	9
Financial result of workplace will get better	38	35	33	49	44	39
Meaningfulness of work is getting better	55	70	38	51	52	55
					Continu	es

Equal opportunities for men and women are changing	18	30	8	25	16	20
into a good direction						
Environmental problems are changing into a good	33	52	14	39	48	35
direction						
Work intensity is too high	40	33	48	42	27	31
Can trust his/her co-workers	70	83	60	72	77	67
Co-worker think only about themselves	18	12	24	20	11	17
Median net salary (EEK)	3000	2650	2500	2300	2110	2300

LATVIA: REGIONAL PROFILES

	Region					
PERCENTAGES BY REGION	Riga	Vidzeme	Kurzeme	Zemgale	Latgale	
	(n=371)	(n=187)	(n=120)	(n=125)	(n=118)	
Proportion of written employment contracts						
-permanent	60	54	58	65	66	
-fixed term	29	40	35	27	30	
No written employment contract	11	6	7	8	5	
Has signed an additional agreement	5	11	6	8	5	
Proportion of "new" workplaces						
(founded after 1988)	46	35	24	29	30	
Proportion of increasing workplaces	16	22	16	26	14	
Rivalry and internal competition exists	36	48	71	32	38	
Is able to influence work tempo	68	65	63	80	77	
Intensity of work increased	50	44	36	53	62	
Safety at work decreased	6	6	6	4	4	
Physical stress increased	43	39	35	47	64	
Mental stress increased	45	48	46	52	66	
Support from the direct superior increased	31	31	21	28	48	
Possibilities to use professional skills increased	48	44	35	49	54	
Trade union exists (proportion of workplaces)	27	33	44	32	41	
	Riga	Vidzeme	Kurzeme	Zemgale	Latgale	

Collective agreements exist	13	24	23	18	19
The level of trade union membership	19	27	32	28	31
Received "black" wages or salaries	20	14	18	15	8
Have been delays in receiving wages and salaries	15	17	14	25	6
Somebody has been fired during the 12 months	31	30	28	26	34
Vacancies not filled	21	35	40	37	21
Worked overtime during the last 2 months	43	42	40	43	45
Believes that will lose current job	45	21	29	24	40
Believes to find a new job, if the current job lost	74	65	55	68	61
Thinks that employment will get better	27	31	25	30	15
Thinks that can buy more with his salary next year	12	15	13	20	12
Financial result of workplace will get better	42	43	25	54	35
Meaning of work is getting better	66	58	48	55	56
Equal opportunities for men and women are changing into a					
good direction	24	27	10	14	7
Environmental problems are changing into a good direction	27	29	26	21	
					23
Work intensity is too high	46	40	40	38	61
Can trust his/her co-workers	75	73	72	77	80
Co-worker think only about themselves	32	23	15	27	35
Median net salary (LAT)	100	89	79	65	70

LITHUANIA: REGIONAL PROFILES

Region (counties)								
	Vilnius	Kaunas	Klaipeda	Siauliai	Panevezys	Alytus/Ma-	Taurage/	Utena
PERCENTAGES BY REGION	(n=226)	(n=185)	(n=100)	(n=95)	(n=78)	rijampole	Telsiai	(n=52)
						(n =92)	(n=73)	
Proportion of written employment contracts								
-permanent	65	63	54	65	59	75	64	60
-fixed term	23	23	34	27	24	11	20	24
No written employment contract	13	14	12	8	17	14	16	16
Has signed an additional agreement	5	5	4	4	6	5	2	6
Proportion of "new" workplaces								
(founded after 1988)	31	29	23	33	30	26	40	23
Proportion of increasing workplaces	19	15	17	14	9	13	16	17
Rivalry and internal competition exists	42	43	41	45	22	30	51	44
Is able to influence work tempo	47	41	34	32	32	44	40	51
Intensity of work increased	46	31	30	29	37	30	39	42
Safety at work decreased	5	3	3	2	0	1	7	4
Physical stress increased	40	32	39	35	28	32	36	46
Mental stress increased	45	35	24	22	30	23	29	48
Support from the direct superior increased	22	19	17	8	16	8	5	27
Possibilities to use professional skills increased	37	27	38	27	30	21	23	52
	Vilnius	Kaunas	Klaipeda	Siauliai	Panevezys	Alytus/Ma-	Taurage/	Utena

						rijampole	Telsiai	
Trade union exists	22	24	32	34	30	30	34	21
Trustees exist	6	2	11	2	3	3	6	4
Received "black" wages or salaries	8	6	7	11	6	3	11	2
At least somebody fired during the 12 months	47	43	57	52	47	49	34	62
Vacancies not filled	17	17	23	21	12	26	23	17
Worked overtime during the last 2 months	30	33	36	24	10	32	34	31
Believes that will lose current job	40	50	45	65	40	52	31	46
Believes to find a new job, if the current job lost	71	55	63	46	53	49	57	29
Thinks that employment will get better	12	8	7	9	9	4	5	11
Thinks that can buy more with his salary next year	7	4	5	7	8	4	7	10
Financial result of workplace will get better	38	32	31	31	20	31	49	26
Meaning of work is getting better	65	67	67	54	63	60	49	69
Equal opportunities for men and women are changing								
into a good direction	14	11	13	6	12	6	25	18
Environmental problems are changing into a good								
direction	31	21	29	17	24	23	32	58
Work intensity is too high	38	29	37	22	37	33	31	43
Can trust his/her co-workers	52	64	66	66	65	74	66	69
Co-worker think only about themselves	23	26	24	19	21	30	18	26
Median net salary (Litas)	600	574	645	500	500	535	600	500

SAMPLE DESIGN AND DATA COLLECTION

	ESTONIA	LATVIA	LITHUANIA
	Saar Poll Ltd	Latvian Facts	SIC
Company	Veetorni 4 EE00001 Tallinn	Brividas iela 106-2 Riga	Raugyklos 15, 2001 Vilnius
Date (1998)	October 29 - November 6	November 23 - December 7	November 30 - December 13
Sampling method	Proportional probability sample + random route method	Multistage random route method	Multistage random route method
Sampling population	Working people age 16 - 64	Working people age 16 - 64	Working people age 16 - 64
Reached sample size	911	921	901
Estimated nonresponse rate	24.4 %	20.8 %	18,6 %
Method	Face-to-face interview at respondent's home	Face-to-face interview at respondent's home	Face-to-face interview at respondent's home
Language	Questionnaires, show-cards and interviews in Estonian and Russian	Questionnaires, show-cards and interviews in Latvian and Russian	Questionnaires, show-cards and interviews in Lithuanian and Russian
Sample match	Representative nation wide (Estonian Labour Force Survey '98, controlled by gender, age, nationality and region)	Representative nation wide (controlled by gender and age) Quality control of 140 addresses carried out by supervisors 2-4 days after interviewing.	Representative nation wide (controlled by gender, age, region and nationality).

ESTONIA TECHNICAL REPORT

Social & Market Research Company **Saar Poll Ltd** Veetorni 4 EE00001 Tallinn Estonia.

Fieldwork from October 29 to November 6, 1998.

Research method: Designing the sample we used two different methods. In the

first stage -

proportional probability sample, in the last stage - random-

route method.

Interviews method: Face-to-face interviews in respondents households.

Sample size: 911 respondents of adult population 16-64.

Sampling points: 151

Demographic and social structure of sample (per cent)*

	Reached
	sample
Urban	70,5
Rural	29,5
Male	48,7
Female	51,3
AGE	
16-24	10,1
25-34	24,2
35-44	29,6
45-54	22,9
55-64	13,2
NATIONALITY	
Estonians	65,6
Non-Estonians	34,4
REGIONS	
NW ESTONIA (incl. the capital Tallinn)	47,5
NE ESTONIA	17,5
SE ESTONIA	18,5
SW ESTONIA	10,5
WEST ESTONIA	6,0
EDUCATION	
Primary & basic education	17,7
Secondary education	60,2
Higher education	22,1

^{*}Statistical Office of Estonia does not collect separately data about employed persons. This is a reason why we used partly Estonian Labour Force Survey '98 data (sample size - 13 000 respondents) to design current sample.

Fieldwork description: Length of the route - 2296 households

Carried out interviews - 911

Reasons why not gained:

nationality does not suit
age does not suit, unemployed
not at home 3 times
673
151
292

not at home 3 timesrefusalsother reasons2922654

Nonresponse rate 24.4 %

LATVIA TECHNICAL REPORT

1. FIELDWORK.

All the data for this survey were collected through personal, face-to-face interviews at respondents residences by trained and supervised interviewers of "Latvian Facts". A total of 63 interviewers took part in the survey, all with experience in the previous surveys. The fielder was supervised and checked by 5 regional supervisors. The interviewing was conducted from November 23 to December 7, 1998.

2. SAMPLE DESIGN

2.1. Overall Design.

For "Working Life Barometer" multi-stage probability sample with random route procedure was used. The sample was calculated on the basis of the latest census data (1998), data published in 1998 Statistical Yearbook of Latvia and updated information supplied by State Committee for Statistics of the Republic of Latvia. Sample was stratified geographically in five administrative districts, and quotas were set to achieve correct representation of the main nationalities residing in Latvia. A total of 900 interviews were planned and 921 completed. Interviews were distributed proportionally to number of employees in each of the five districts.

2.2. Respondent selection.

At the households selected by the mentioned above methods respondents were selected according to a Kish table. Respondents were employees at the age of 16 till 64.

2.3. Refusals.

The total amount of refusals was 20,8%. In country and small towns (the amount of inhabitants reaches 20'000) the refusals were less frequent.

The main reasons for refusals were lack of spare time and everyday problems of respondents.

2.4. Break-offs.

16 interviews were interrupted by initiative of respondents. The length of interviews was the main reason why the interviews were interrupted. Respondents explained themselves by being busy, having a lot of work at home.

2.5. Language problems.

All the interviewers are fluent both in Latvian and Russian.

2.6. Questionnaire.

Questionnaires and show - cards were prepared in Latvian and Russian.

3. QUALITY CONTROL

140 addresses of interviewing were submitted to the testing.

The results of testing -

- 129 interviews were affirmed (88 of them were affirmed by the respondent himself);
- 11 the fact of interviewing was neither affirmed nor denied (hypothesis respondent was not at home).

The testing was carried out by supervisors 2 - 4 days after interviewing.

4. COMPARISON OF THE SAMPLE WITH THE ACTUAL POPULATION.

The final sample size is 921 respondents.

Age TOTAL	Percentage of respondents in the sample		Statistical data about number of employees age 15 and over
	100.0 %		100.0%
16 - 24	9,8	15 - 24	10.2
25 - 39	40,7	25 - 39	38,4
40 - 59	45,1	40 - 59	45,5
60 - 64	4,5	60 and	5.9
		over	

<u>Sex</u>

	Sample	Statistical data
TOTAL	100.0 %	100.0 %
Male	45,5	47,7
Female	54,5	52,3

Information about national groups

Nationality

	Sample		Actual population	
TOTAL	100.0		100.00	
Latvian	57,3		55,5	
Russian	32,2		32,5	
Other		10,5		12,0

REGION

Sample Statistical data

	TOTAL		100.0	
100.00				
Riga		40,3		42.81
Vidzeme		20,3		19,09
Kurzeme		13,0		12,44
Zemgale		13,6		11,73
Latgale		12,8		13,93

LITHUANIA TECHNICAL REPORT

SIC Market Research, Raugyklos 15, 2001 Vilnius, Lithuania

Project Manager: Vytenis Isganaitis

Phone + 370 2 627110, fax +370 2 627134, E-mail:

vytenis@sic.lt

Sampling method: Nation-wide representative sample designed by

multistage stratified sampling

Target group: Persons, who have a job and whose age is

between 16-64 years

Sample size: 900

Data collection method: Face-to-face in-home interview

Fieldwork period: November 30 – December 13, 1998

Number of interviewers: 119

Fieldwork results:

Total number of contacts: 1552

Number of completed interviews: 901

Number of refusals: 288

Did not meet the recruitment conditions: 363 (204

of them did not work)

Nonresponse rate 18.6 %

WORKING LIFE BAROMETER

	lay/ evening! I am the interviewer of the Social a We are conducting a survey among the have concerning with work. Would you agree	e Estonian p	opulation in order to find	
рооріо	navo consorming mini monia. Modia you agree		no queenemane.	
FILTER	-QUESTION: Do you work? IF YES → CONTINU	JE WITH INT	ERVIEW, IF NOT → DRO	Р
1.	Are you (read out)			
	wage earner	1	> qst. 2	
	employer	2	> qst.4	
	self employed	3	> qst. 4	
2.	With your employer, do you have			
	a written fixed-term employment contract		1	
	a written termless employment contract		2	
	a written contract for doing a specific work		3	
	no written labour agreement		4	
< <if no<="" td=""><td>agreement, choose 4>></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></if>	agreement, choose 4>>			
	des the employment contract, have you, through to orter paid leave, large volume of work to be covered.			
specific	eation of the date etc)			
yes				1
no				2
	ng have you been in your present job?			
<<ın a p	present workplace, no matter if the owner or the r	name has ch	nanged>>	
4.	years			

5.____ months (mark only, when you have worked less than a year).

state financed firm	1	> qst. 8
state owned or municipal enterprise	2	> qst. 8
privatised firm	3	> qst. 7
firm that is based on a private capital, which has never		
been owned by the state	4	>qst. 7
public organisation	5	>qst. 8
other (specify)	6	>qst.7

7. Is your firm based on

...100% Estonian capital 1 ...100% foreign capital 2

is at least up to 51% private prope is at least up to 51% private prope	=	3 4
do not know	nty of some foreign country	5
8. Please state, whether your firm, enterprise .		
was operating already before 1988		1
is operating following a reorganisation of the		2
newly established enterprise after 1988		3
do not know		4
9. Considering your position in firm, into which	a labour category would you belong?	
manager of the firm or the division	1	
specialist, but not a manager	2	
clerk	3	
manual worker	4	
	5	
other	5	
10. What is the main field of activity of your firm	n?	
agriculture, forestry, hunting, fishing	1	
manufacturing, industry, mining		
energy, gas and water supply		
construction		
trade		
hotels and restaurants	-	
transport, communications and stowing		
financial services		
real estate, rent and business services		
governmental bodies and state defence		
education		
health care, social welfare		
other	13	
11. In addition to your main job do you also ha	ive any other or secondary jobs?	
no 1	=> qst.13	
yes 2	next qst.	
,,,,		
12. How many secondary jobs? (number)		
13. How many employees are there in your wo	orkplace?	
Workplace is considered to be a unit, for insta which the respondent himself perceives to be		,

workplace and in which work and operation he takes part. If the definition is difficult, then this unit should be considered, whose operations and work

1-4 persons 1 5-9 persons 2 10-19 persons 3

is known to the

respondent.

50-99 persons 5 100-499 persons 6 500 and more 7 don't know 14. Has the number of employees in your main workplace during the last 12 monthsincreased 1 ...remained the same 2 ...decreased 3 ...don't know 4 To what extent do the following incidents occur at your workplace ... (1= a lot, 2= quite a lot, 3= to some extent, 4= not at all, 5= do not know) 15. ...disagreements between superiors and employees 1 2 3 4 5 16. ...conflicts between employees 1 2 3 4 17. ...conflicts between groups of employees 2 3 1 4 18. 2 3 ...rivalry, internal competition 1 4 19. 2 ...conflicts with clients 1 3 5 20. ...threat of physical or mental violence 2 3 1 4 To what extent can you influence... (1= totally, 2= rather much, 3= very little, 4= not at all, 5= do not know) 21. 3 4 5 ...your job tasks 2 3 ...your work tempo 4 22. 1 5 23. ...your participating in training 1 2 3 4 5 Who normally executes the following work tasks at your workplace? (1= employee him/herself, 2= employees together, 3= foreman, 4= management or someone else, 5= do not know) 24....daily planning of own work 2 5 1 25....weekly planning of own work 2 3 4 5 1 26....quality control 1 2 3 4 5

During the last 12 months, how has changed in your workplace?

20-49 persons 4

(1= considerably increased, 2= somewhat increased , 3= remained the same, 4= somewhat decreased, 5= considerably decreased, 6= *do not know*)

27.	intensi	ty of work, tempo)				1
2	3	4	5	6			
28.	safety	at work					
1	2	3	4	5	6		
29.	work's	physical stress					1
2	3	4	5	6			
30.	work's	mental stress					1
2	3	4	5	6			
31.	work re	esults					1
2	3	4	5	6			
32.	possib	ility to get training	g from the emplo	oyer	1	2	3
4	5	6					
33.	suppoi	rt from your direc	t superior				1
2	3	4	5	6			
34.	possib	ility to use your p	professional skil	lls		1	2
3	4	5	6				

35. Is there a trade union in your firm or trustees appointed by the employees?

yes, there is a trade union 1 >qst. 36 yes, there are trustees 2 >qst. 40

no 3 >qst. 40

36. Are you a member of a trade union?

yes 1 no 2

37. Are there any collective agreements in your company?

yes 1 no 2 do not know 3

38. Has the number of union members as a proportion of all wage-earners changed in your firm during the last 3 years? Has it ...

...increased 1
...remained the same 2
...decreased 3
...hard to say 4

39. Has the role of the trade union as a representative of employees' rights in your firm during the last 3 years ...

...increased considerably 1
...somewhat increased 2
...remained the same 3
...somewhat decreased 4
...decreased considerably 5
...do not know 6

Do you predominantly negotiate the following matters individually or collectively in your workplace?

(1= individually, 2= collectively)					
40salary 41holidays				1 1	2
42duration and permanence of the v 43employees' safety and health at w		1	2 1	2	
Do you think that the matters in question (1= yes, a lot more, 2= yes, little more, 3=				ent)	
44salary 3 4				1	2
45holidays 3 4				1	2
46duration and permanence of the wo 47employees' safety and health at wor		2 1	3 2	4 3	2
48. On what basis do you receive your sa	lary? Is it				
pure fixed monthly salary					
pure results pay (piecework,fixed monthly salary + results payother (specify)do not wish to say	commissions according to sa (piecework, commissions a			3	2
do not know	_				
	6				
49. What was your net salary in the last n your jobs as well with all the bonuses an			ey you received afte	er tax, conside	ering all
Krones					
50. Do you receive the "salary in envelope	e" or "black salary"?				
sometimes every month never	1 >qst.51 2 >qst.51 3 >qst.52				
< <the absolutely="" answer="" confidential.<="" is="" td=""><td>There is no way that the auth</td><td>orities would</td><td>get the information:</td><td>>></td><td></td></the>	There is no way that the auth	orities would	get the information:	>>	
51. Did the last month salary that you me	ntioned also contain the "enve	elope salary"	/ "black salary"?		
yes 1 no 2					

To what extent does influence your salary?

salary depends	rather		relatively	does not	do not	1 (0)	
little (3)		influence (4)	know (5)	on it (1)		much (2)	
52the work capacity	4		5	1	2		3
53the work's quality	4		5	1	2		3
54results of the depart	=	le firm 5	1	2		3	
		-					
55. Have there been any	delavs in receivi	ng vour salary d	luring the last 12	! months?			
yes 1 <qst. 56<="" td=""><td>,</td><td></td><td>g</td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></qst.>	,		g				
no 2 <qst. 57<="" td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></qst.>							
56. How long have those	delays been?						
up to one week up to 2 weeks		1 2					
up to 1 month		3					
over 1 month		4					
do not know	6	5					
does not wish to answer	6						
57. On how many days w	vere you at work	last week?	days				
58. How many hours in to	otal did yay wark	last wook?	hours				
30. Flow many nours in to	otal did you work	last week!	110u13	•			
Have the following incide	ents accurred in a	our firm during	the last 12 mont	he			
-	-	our min during	tile last 12 mont				
yes no 59someone has been 3	do not know redundant?					1	2
60working day / time h	as been reduced	d?					1
61someone has been	•	ıntary unpaid lea	ave?			1	2
62if someone has left	(i.e. retired) the v	acant place has	s not been filled?	? 1	2	3	
63. Have you been on ov employment contract fixe			(i.e. working time	e which lasts ov	er legitimately a	nd/or by the	
yes	1 <qst. 64<="" td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></qst.>						
no	2 <qst. 69<="" td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></qst.>						
do not know	3 <qst. 69<="" td=""><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td><td></td></qst.>						

64. Have you receive	ed for being overtime	e?					
	ey compensation e was compensated l e was not compensa		5	1 2 3		4	
ao not know						4	
65. What is the reas	son for your being on	overtime? Is it ma	ainly				
your own wish				1			
the employer's c			2				
reasons caused	by work			3			
do not know				4			
66. Is overtime a re	gular phenomena at	your work?					
yes	1						
no	2						
do not know	3						
67. How many hour	rs on average are you	u on overtime in th	ne week?	hours			
68. What are the ch	nanges in being on ov	ertime at your wo	rk compared t	to the last year?	?		
is much more over		1					
is a bit more overting		2					
overtime stays the		3					
is a bit less overtime is much less overtime.		4 5					
there is no overtime		6					
do not know	. ay		7				
•	s possible that in the	•					
(1= certainly yes, 2=	= probably yes, 3= pro	obably not, 4= cert	ainly not, $5 = c$	do not know)			
69. you will lose you	-				1	2	;
70. you will be trans	5 sferred to another job	1		1	2	3	
5 71. your working tir	ne will be reduced			1	2	3	
72. your working re	gime will be changed	d against your will	1	2	3	4	
73. If you would los	se your present job, c	do vou think vou w	ould find a ne	w one that suite	es to vour skil	ls and experien	ces?
·					,	•	
certainly yes probably yes		1 2					
probably not		3					
certainly not		4					
do not know		5					
74. How do you cor	nsider the general em	nployment situatio	n after one ye	ear?			
	-	-	•				

much better		1
somewhat better		2
the same	3	
somewhat worse		4
much worse		5
do not know		6

Interwiever! Qst. 75 ask only those who are wage earners (choice 1 in qst. 1). Others skip to 76

75. Have you thought about becoming an entrepreneur yourself, starting your own business?

no yes, I have given it some serious thought this is what I am going to do 3

76. Do you think that after a year you can buy more products and services with your salary than now?

yes 1 no 2 do not know 3

77. What do you think, how does the financial situation of your company will change during the next year?

it will get considerably better 1
it will get slightly better 2
it will remain unchanged 3
it will worsen a little bit 4
it will worsen considerably 5
don't know 6

During last years many changes in community have taken place. Please assess how have changed according to your opinion ...

improved improved remained worsened worsened do not considerably somewhat the same somewhat considerably know

78meaning of work and interest towards it	1	2	3	4
5 6				
79equal opportunities for men and women	1	2	3	4
5 6				
in the working life				
80consideration of environmental problems	1	2	3	4
5 6				
in your workplace				
81informing you of work aims and future plans	1	2	3	4
5 6				
82managing habits and practice of superiors	1	2	3	4
5 6				
83opportunities to develop yourself in the job	1	2	3	4
5 6				
84possibilities to influence solutions concerning				
your job and position	1	2	3	4
5 6				

4

4

4

4

4

3

3

3

The next few statements concern your own job. Please assess on a 5 point scale to what extent do you agree with them, giving one point in case of a total agreement and 5 points in case of total disagreement. totally totally do not know agree disagree 85. my work is well organised 1 2 5 6 86. my work intensity is too high 5 6 87. I can trust my co-workers 2 6 88. there is a pleasant atmosphere and a spirit of solidarity 2 89. my co-workers think only about themselves, their job, not considering others 1 2 6 90. How satisfied are you with your present job? very satisfied 1 somewhat satisfied not very satisfied 3 not at all satisfied 4 do not know 5 91. Sex (mark without asking) male 1 female 2 92. How old are you?_____ years 93. Are yousingle ...married or cohabiting 2 ...divorced or separated 3 ...widowed 94. What is your household composition? RECORD NUMBER OF PEOPLE IN EACH CATEGORY TOTAL_____, of whom a) working persons (incl. Working pensioners)_____ b) not working pensioners__ c) pupils, students of the full time study___

d) children in the age before school_____e) other not working members of the household__

95. What is your education?

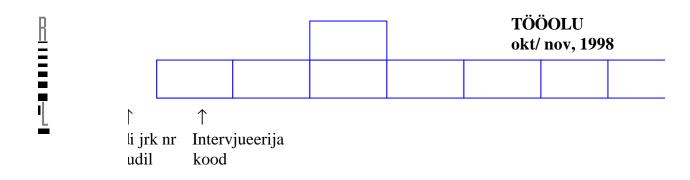
Incomplete primary education		1	
primary or incomplete secondary education		2	
incomplete secondary technical or professional education	3		
technical secondary education		4	
general secondary education		5	
higher education			6
other, specify 7			

96. Have you taken any training courses during the last 12 months?

yes 1 no 2 do not know 3

97. Your nationality?

Estonian		1	
Latvian		2	
Lithuanian		3	
Russian in Estonia	4		
Russian in Latvia		5	
Russian in Lithuania	6		
other (specify)		7	



Sotsiaal - ja turu-uuringute firma Saar Poll viib praegu läbi uuringut, mille eesmärgiks on välja selgitada millised probleemid on praegu inimestel seoses oma tööga. Kas Te oleksite nõus küsimustikule vastama, kui see võtab aega umbes 20 minutit?

FILTERKÜSIMUS: **Kas Te töötate?** KUI JAH, SIIS JÄTKAKE INTERVJUUGA, KUI EI, SIIS TÄNAGE JA LÕPETAGE INTERVJUU

K1. Kas Te olete ... *AINULT ÜKS VASTUS. KUI VASTAJA ÜTLEB MITU VASTUST, SIIS KÜSIGE:*

"Aga kust Te saate oma peamise sissetuleku?"

- palgatöötaja	1	» KÜSIGE K2
- ettevõtja2	» JÄ	TKAKE K4
- füüsilisest isikust ettevõtja	3	» JÄTKAKE K4

K2. Kas Teil on oma tööandjaga ...

- kirjalik tähtajaline tööleping	1	
- kirjalik tähtajatu tööleping	2	
- kirjalik töövõtu leping mingi konkreetse töö tegemiseks		3
- ei ole kirjalikku töölepingut.	4	

K3. Kas lisaks töölepingule on Teil oma tööandja initsiatiivil sõlmitud veel mingeid kokkuleppeid Teie suhtes (näiteks lühem tasutud puhkus, lisatööd, kuupäevata töölt lahkumise avaldus vms)?

- jah	1
- ei	2

Kui kaua Te oma praegusel töökohal juba töötate? Sõltumata sellest, kas selle asutuse/ ettevõtte nimi on muutunud või on omanik vahetunud.

K4.	aastat
K5.	kuud (MÄRKIDA SIIS, KUI ON TÖÖTANUD ALLA AASTA)
K6.	Mis tüüpi asutuses/ ettevõttes Te töötate? ULATAGE KAART 1.
riigi-erastaerakaühisk	elarvelises asutuses
K7.	Kas Teie ettevõte põhineb
	- 100% Eesti kapitalil
K8.	Palun öelge, kas see ettevõte/ asutus
- on lo - või o	s juba enne 1988 aastat
K9.	Kas Te olete oma asutuses/ ettevõttes LUGEGE ETTE
	- juht, allüksuse juht
K10.	Mis on Teie asutuse/ ettevõtte peamine tegevusala? ULATAGE KAART 2.
_	majandus, jahindus ja metsandus, kalandus
- energ	geetika, gaasi– ja veevarustus
- kauba	andus (hulgi- ja jaemüük)

- hotellid ja restoranid	6	
- transport, side, laondus	7	
	8	
	-	9
- riigivalitsemine- ja kaitse (ministeeriumi 10	d, riigiametid, kohalikud omavalitsused jms)	
	11	
12		
- muu		
K11. Kas Teil lisaks põhitööle on vee	el muid töökohti, kõrvaltöid?	
- ei 1	» JÄTKAKE K13	
- jah 2	» KÜSIGE K12	
Jan 2	" Nobiol III2	
K12. Mitu kõrvaltöökohta? KIRJUTA	GE ARV:	
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	ohas? Töökoha all me mõtleme sellist kohta/ üksust,	
	itusplats, jne, mida Te peate oma töökohaks	
ning mille töös Teie osalete.		
4.4.000.1.		
- 1-4 töötajat	1	
- 5-9 töötajat	2	
- 10-19 töötajat	3	
- 20-49 töötajat	4	
- 50-99 töötajat	5	
- 100-499 töötajat	6	
- 500 ja rohkem	7	
- <i>RÖ</i> 8		
K14. Kas Teie töökohas töötavate ini	meste arv on viimase 12 kuu jooksul	
- suurenenud	1	
- jäänud samaks	2	
- vähenenud3		
- <i>RÖ</i> 4		
Kas Teie töökohal esineb ULATAGE K	XAART 3	

	palju	küllalt pal	veidi	ei esine üle	R
te ja alluvate vahelisi lahkhelisid	1	2	3	4	4

e omavahelisi konflikte	1	2	3	4	5
e rühmade vahelisi konflikte	1	2	3	4	5
emist, omavahelist võistlemist	1	2	3	4	5
te klientidega	1	2	3	4	5
või füüsilise vägivallaga ähvardamist	1	2	3	4	5

Mil määral Te saate mõjutada ... ULATAGE KAART 4.

	täielikult	küllalt pal	vähesel mää	üldse mit	RÖ
pülesandeid	1	2	3	4	5
pot	1	2	3	4	5
skoolituses osalemist	1	2	3	4	5

Kes tavaliselt täidab Teie töökohal järgnevaid tööülesandeid? ULATAGE KAART 5.

	töötaja is	töötajad ko	ööde-juha	√ juhtkond või k	RÖ
päeva planeerimine	1	2	3	4	5
jnädala planeerimine	1	2	3	4	5
di kontroll	1	2	3	4	5

Kuidas on Teie töökohal viimase 12 kuu jooksul muutunud ... ULATAGE KAART 6.

	a-tavalt suur	-võrra suur	äänud sam	-võrra väl	ı-tavalt väl	Ro
nsiivsus, kiirus	1	2	3	4	5	6
us	1	2	3	4	5	6
siline pinge, väsitavus	1	2	3	4	5	6
nne pinge, väsitavus	1	2	3	4	5	6
muslikkus	1	2	3	4	5	6
ıs saada tööandja poolset k	oo 1	2	3	4	5	6
ilemuse toetus	1	2	3	4	5	6
ıs kasutada oma ametioskus	si 1	2	3	4	5	6

K35. Kas Teie ettevõttes/ asutuses on olemas ametiühing või töötajate valitud usaldusisik(ud)?

- jah, on ametiühing	1	» KÜSIGE K36
- jah, on usaldusisik(ud)	2	» JÄTKAKE K40
- ei	3	» JÄTKAKE K40

K36. Kas Teie olete ametiühingu liige?

- jah	1
- ei	2

K37. Kas Teie ettevõttes/ asutuses on sõlmitud kollektiivleping(uid)?

- jah		1
- ei	•••••	2
- <i>RÖ</i>	3	

K38. Kuidas on viimase 3 aasta jooksul muutunud ametiühingu liikmete suhteline arv Teie ettevõtte/ asutuse töötajate koguarvuga võrreldes? Kas see on ...

- suurenenud	1
- jäänud samaks	2
- vähenenud	3
- <i>RÖ</i>	4

K39. Kas ametiühingu roll töötajate õiguste esindajana Teie asutuses/ ettevõttes on viimase

3 aasta jooksul ...

- märgatavalt suurenenud	1
- mõnevõrra suurenenud	2
- jäänud samaks	3
- mõnevõrra vähenenud	4
- märgatavalt vähenenud	5
- <i>RÖ</i>	6

Kas Te oma töökohal peate läbirääkimisi järgmistes küsimustes peamiselt individuaal selt või

kollektiivselt?

	Individuaalselt	Kollektiivselt
	1	2
ed	1	2
ngu kestvus	1	2
te tööohutus	1	2

Kas Teie arvates tuleks nendes küsimustes läbirääkimisi pidada rohkem kollektiivselt kui praegu? *ULATAGE KAART 7*.

	jah, palju rohk	jah, veidi rohk	oraegune olukord	i, vähem kui
	1	2	3	4
ed	1	2	3	4
ngu kestvus	1	2	3	4
te tööohutus	1	2	3	4

K48.	Mis alusel toimub Teie töö ta	sustamine? I	Xas selleks on ULATAGE KAART 8.			
	- ainult kuupalk			1		
	- ainult tulemuspalk (tükitöötasu		igilt, preemia vms.)			
	2 - kuupalk pluss tulemuspalk (tük 3	kitöötasu, tasu	läbimüügilt, preemia vms.)			
	- midagi muud, mis? KIRJUTAG	EE				
	4					
		- KEELDUS VASTAMAST - RÖ				
K49. kõiki	Kui suur oli Teie viimase kuu	netopalk, st.	raha, mille Te kätte saite, arvestades			
	öökohti ning sealt saadud preen	niaid ja lisata	susid? KIRJUTAGE			
		krooni				
K50.	Kas Te saate nn. ümbrikupalk	a				
	- mõnikord	1	» KÜSIGE K51			
	- iga kuu	2	» KÜSIGE K51			
	- või mitte kunagi	3	» JÄTKAKE K52			
KUI RI	ESPONDENT KÕHKLEB VÕI KEE	ELDUB VASTA	MAST, SIIS KINNITAGE TALLE VEELKORI	Э,		
<i>ET</i> : "N	Vagu iga küsitlus, on ka see anonüi	ümne. Firma S	aar Poll garanteerib, et Teie vastustest ei sa	a		
keegi t	eada. Teie vastuseid kasutatakse v	aid üldanalüü	si tegemiseks".			
K51. sisalda	as	iimase kuu n	etopalk, st. raha, mille Te kätte saite,			
ka üm	brikupalka?					
	- jah 1 - ei 2					

Kuivõrd mõjutab Teie palgataset ... $ULATAGE\ KAART\ 9.$

		see on määr	küllalt pa	suhteliselt vä	ei mõjut
nt		1	2	3	4
öö kvaliteet		1	2	3	4
se või kogu firi	na töö tulemused	1	2	3	4

	- jah 1		GF K56		
	- ei 2	» JÄTKA	KE K57		
•	Kui suured need hi	llinemised on o	olnud? Kas LUGE	GE ETTE	
	- kuni üks nädal	•••••	1		
	- kuni kaks nädalat	•••••	2		
	- kuni üks kuu	••••••	3		
	- rohkem kui üks kuu	14			
	- <i>RÖ</i>	5			
	- KEELDUS VASTAN	<i>MAST</i>	6		
•	Kui mitu päeva Te	olite tööl eeln	nisel nädalal?		päeva
•		eelmisel nädal ındi	al kokku töötasite?	,	
vii	imase 12 kuu jooksu	l on Teie ettev	õttes/ asutuses		
					Jah
	Ei	$R\ddot{O}$			
	kedagi koondatud	•••••	•••••		2
•		hendatud	••••••		2
•	tööpäevi/ tööaega vä		ele	1	2
	tööpäevi/ tööaega vä saadetud kedagi palg	ata sundpuhkus	010		
•	_	•	nsionäride,		
•	saadetud kedagi palg	jate, näiteks per	nsionäride,	2	3
• • ud j	saadetud kedagi palg töölt lahkunud tööta jäetud täitmata	jate, näiteks per	nsionäride, 1 oksul teinud ületune		
• • ud j	saadetud kedagi palg töölt lahkunud tööta jäetud täitmata Kas Te olete viimas	jate, näiteks per	nsionäride, 1 oksul teinud ületund tööd?		

--» JÄTKAKE K69

- $R\ddot{O}$ 3

K64.	Kas Te olete ületundide tegemise eest saanud	•
	 täielikku või osalist rahalist kompensatsiooni ületunde on kompenseeritud vabade päevadega ületunnid ei ole leidnud mingil moel kompenseer RÖ 	
K65.	Mis põhjusel Te teete ületunde? Kas peamiselt	•••
	 omal soovil	1 2 3
K66.	Kas ületundide tegemine Teie töökohal on regu - jah 1	ılaarne nähtus?
	- ei	
K67.	Kui palju Te nädalas keskmiselt ületunde teete tundi	?
K68. aasta	Kuidas on muutunud ületundide tegemine Teie	e töökohal, kui võrrelda olukorraga
tagasi'	? ULATAGE KAART 10.	
	 ületunde tehakse tunduvalt rohkem ületunde tehakse veidi rohkem ületunde tehakse sama palju ületundide arv on veidi vähenenud ületundide arv on tunduvalt vähenenud ületunde ei tehta enam 	1 2 3 4 5
Kas To	- tiletunde er tenta enam	

	jah, kindlas	tõenäoli-selt	ŏenäoli-selt n	kindlasti mi	
ate oma praeguse töökoha	1	2	3	4	
iakse üle teisele tööle	1	2	3	4	

akse üle osalise ajaga tööle	1	2	3	4
öreziimi muudetakse vastu Teie t	1	2	3	4

K73. Kui Te kaotaksite oma praeguse töökoha, mis Te arvate, kas Teil õnnestuks leida oma ametioskustele ja kogemustele vastav töökoht? *ULATAGE KAART 11*.

- jah, kindlasti1	
- tõenäoliselt jah	2
- tõenäoliselt mitte	3
- kindlasti mitte	4
- <i>RÖ</i> 5	

K74. Kuidas Te arvate, kas aasta pärast on üldine olukord tööturul võrreldes praegusega...?

- oluliselt parem	1
- mõnevõrra parem	2
- sama	3
- mõnevõrra halve m	4
- oluliselt halvem	5
- <i>RÖ</i>	6

KÜSIMUS K75 ESITADA AINULT PALGATÖÖTAJATELE (KÜSIMUSES K1 KOOD"1"), TEISED JÄTKAKE KÜSIMUS K76

K75. Kas Te olete kaalunud võimalust alustada ise tegutsemist ettevõtjana, luua oma firma?

- ei ole1	
- jah, olen seda varianti tõsiselt kaalunud	2
- mul ongi see kavatsus	3

K76. Mis Te arvate, kas Te aasta pärast võite oma palga eest osta enam kaupu ja teenuseid kui praegu?

- jah]
- ei	2
- <i>RÖ</i> 3	

K77. Mis Te arvate, kuidas muutub eeloleval aastal Teie ettevõtte/ asutuse majanduslik olukord? *ULATAGE KAART 12*.

- märgatavalt paremaks	1
- mõnevõrra paremaks	2

- jääb samaks	3
- mõnevõrra halvemaks	4
- märgatavalt halvemaks	5
- <i>RÖ</i>	6

Viimastel aastatel on ühiskonnas toimunud palju muutusi. Järgnevalt palume hinnata, kuidas on Teie arvates üldiselt muutunud ... *ULATAGE KAART 13*.

		enud mä	ienud mõ	äänud sam	nenud mõ	nenud mä	
endus ning	huvi töö vastu üldse	1	2	3	4	5	
ja naiste v	õimaluste võrdsus tööelus	1	2	3	4	5	
nnaga seot	ud probleemide lahendamine	1	2	3	4	5	
eeritus töö ikavadest	eesmärkidest ning ettevõtte	1	2	3	4	5	
-	tavad ja –praktika	1	2	3	4	5	
endamise	võimalused	1	2	3	4	5	
ısed mõju ıvaid otsus	tada oma tööd ja positsiooni eid	1	2	3	4	5	

Järgnevad väited puudutavad Teie enda tööd. Hinnake palun 5-pallilisel skaalal, mil määral Te nendega nõustute, kus "1" tähendab, et Te olete täiesti nõus ja "5" tähendab, et Te pole üldse nõus. *ULATAGE KAART 14*.

		pole üldse			R	
		nõus				
jö on hästi organiseeritud	1	2	3	4	5	ϵ
jö intensiivsus on liiga kõrge	1	2	3	4	5	ť
aastöötajatele võib loota	1	2	3	4	5	ϵ
jökohal on meeldiv õhkkond, koostööva	1	2	3	4	5	6
aastöötajad mõtlevad eelkõige iseendale	1	2	3	4	5	6
eistega arvestamata						

K90. Kuivõrd rahul Te olete oma praeguse tööga? Kas ...

- väga rahul	1
- pigem rahul2	
- pigem ei ole rahul	3
- üldse ei ole rahul4	
- RÖ	5

K91.	VASTAJA SUGU	(MÄRKIDA KÜSIMATA!)
	- <i>MEES</i> - <i>NAINE</i>	1 2
K92.	Kui vana Te olete?	aastat
K93.	Kas Te olete	
	vallalineabielus või vabaabielus.lahutatud või lahus elavlesk	
		nna (need, kes elavad Teiega koos ning on ühes leivas) EE ARV, KUI MÕNE KATEGOORIA ALL EI OLE
	etöötavaid pensio ssi, üliõpilasi (sta poliealisi lapsi	d pensionäre) näre tsionaaris)
K95. kaard		s? ULATAGE KAART 15. Nimetage palun vastav number
	ool või lõpetamat kool, mis ei anna kool, mis annab k aridus (tavaline ke m	(vähem kui 9, 8 või 7 klassi, olenevalt lõpetamise ajast) a keskharidus
	(KIKJUTAGE:)_	

Kas Te olete kalnud koolituskursustei viima	se 12 kuu jooksui:				
- jah					
Mis rahvusest Te olete?					
- eestlane- venelane- muu rahvus, <i>KIRJUTAGE</i>	1 2 3				
	- jah				

Suur tänu

vastuste eest!

Labdien! (Labvakar!) Mans vârds ir, un es strâdâju tirgus un sociâlo pçtîjumu institûtâ "Latvijas Fakti". Mçs veicam sabiedriskâs domas izpçti par visdaþâdâkajiem jautâjumiem. Đî aptauja ir veltîta daþâdiem jautâjumiem par problçmâm, kuras cilvçkiem ir saistîbâ ar darbu. Jûs ðai aptaujai esat izraudzîts pilnîgi nejauði, gluþi kâ loterijâ, un esat viens no daudziem cilvçkiem, kurus mçs intervçjam visâ Latvijâ. Aptauja notiek pilnîgi konfidenciâli, un tomçr Jûs varat izvçlçties piedalîties tajâ vai nç.			
ATLASES JAUTÂJUMS: Vai Jûs strâdâjat? JA JÂ → TURPINÂT IN	ITERVIJU, JA NÇ → BEIGT		
	et uz 2 .jautâjumu et uz 4 .jautâjumu et uz 4 .jautâjumu		
2. Ar Jûsu darba devçju Jums irrakstisks darba lîgums uz noteiktu laikurakstisks darba lîgums uz nenoteiktu laikurakstisks darba lîgums par noteiktu darba venav rakstisks darba lîgums < <ja 4="" izvçlaties="" lîguma,="" nav="">></ja>	1 2 ikðanu 3 4		
3. Papildus Jûsu darba lîgumam, vai Jûs, pçc darba devçja iniciat kâ mazâks apmaksâts atvaïinâjums, liela apjoma darba veikðana datuma norâdîðanas u.c.)			
jâ 1 nç 2			
Cik ilgi Jûs strâdâjat savâ paðreizçjâ darba vietâ? < <paðreizçjâ darba="" ir="" mainîji<="" neatkarîgi="" no="" td="" tâ="" vai="" vietâ,=""><td>IES ÎPAÐNIEKS VAI NOSAUKUMS>></td></paðreizçjâ>	IES ÎPAÐNIEKS VAI NOSAUKUMS>>		
4gadus			
5 mçneðus (ATZÎMÇT TIKAI TAD, JA STRÂDÂ MAZÂK KÂ	GADU).		
6. Kâda veida uzòçmumâ Jûs strâdâjat? (RÂDÎT 1.KARTIÒU)			
valsts finansçtâ firmâ 1 valstij vai paðvaldîbai piederoðâ uzòçmumâ 2 privâtâ firmâ 3 firmâ, kura ir bâzçta uz privâto kapitâlu un kura nekad nav bijusi va 7. jautâjumu	> pâriet uz 8 .jautâjumu > pâriet uz 8 .jautâjumu > pâriet uz 7 .jautâjumu Ists îpaðumâ 4 > pâriet uz		
sabiedriskâ organizâcijâ 5 citâ <i>(kâdâ)</i> 6	> pâriet uz 8 .jautâjumu > pâriet uz 7 .jautâjumu		
7. Kâ îpaðumâ ir Jûsu firma?	, ,		
100% Latvijas kapitāls 100% ârzemju kapitāls vismaz 51% Latvijas privātîpaðums vismaz 51% kādas citas valsts privātîpaðums nezin	1 2 3 4 5		

8. Lûdzu norâdiet, vai Jûsu firma, uzòçmums ...

darbojâs jau pirms 1988.gada	1
darbojas iepriekð eksistçjuðas kompânijas reorganizâcijas rezultâtâ	2
ir no jauna dibinâts uzòçmums pçc 1988.gada	3
nezin	4

9. Runâjot par Jûsu ieòemamo amatu firmâ, kurai amata kategorijai Jûs	piederat?
firmas vai filiâles vadîtâjs	1
speciâlists, bet ne vadîtâjs (arî konsultants)	
ofisa/kantora darbinieks (sekretâre, asistents u.c.)	
apkalpojoðá sektora darbinieks (párdevçjs, oficiants, frizieris u.c.)	
strâdnieks	
cits	6
10. Kâda ir Jûsu firmas galvenâ darbîbas joma?	
lauksaimniecîba, meþsaimniecîba, medîbas, zvejniecîba	
raþoðana, rûpniecîba, kalnrûpniecîbaelektrîbas, gâzes un ûdens apgâde	
celtniecîba	
tirdzniecîbatirdzniecība	
viesnîcas un restorâni	
transports, komunikâcijas un kravu pârvadâjumi	
finansu pakalpojumi	
nekustamais îpaðums, nomas un biznesa pakalpojumi	
valdîbas institûcijas un valsts aizsardzîba	
izglîtîba	11
veselîbas aprûpe, sociâlâ labklâjîba	12
cits	13
11. Papildus savam pamatdarbam, vai Jums ir arî kâds cits papildus da	rbs?
nç 1 => pâriet uz 13 .jautâjumu	
jâ 2 pâriet uz nâkoðo jautâjumu.	
, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	
12. Cik daudzi papildus darbi? (SKAITS)	
72. Olk dadd21 papillado dalibi. (Olk/11/0)	
13. Cik daudz darbinieku ir Jûsu darba vietâ?	
Par darba vietu tiek uzskatîta piemçram rûpnîca, birojs, veikals, celtniecî	bas vieta, u.c.,
	kuru respondents pats uzskata
par savu darba vietu	
1-4 cilvçki 1	un kuras darbâ un darbîbâ viòð piedalâs.
5-9 cilvçki 2	Ja to noteikt ir par grûtu, tad par darba vietu tiek
uzskatîta	
10-19 cilvçki 3 zinâms.	tâ, kuras darbîba un darbs respondentam ir
20-49 cilvçki 4	
50-99 cilvçki 5	
100-499 cilvçki 6	
500 un vairâk 7	
nezin 8	
nezin 6	
rieziri ö	
14. Vai darbinieku skaits Jûsu pamata darba vietâ pçdçjo 12 mçneðu laik	â ir
14. Vai darbinieku skaits Jûsu pamata darba vietâ pçdçjo 12 mçneðu laikpieaudzis	â ir
14. Vai darbinieku skaits Jûsu pamata darba vietâ pçdçjo 12 mçneðu laik pieaudzis 1 palicis tâds pats 2	.â ir
14. Vai darbinieku skaits Jûsu pamata darba vietâ pçdçjo 12 mçneðu laikpieaudzis	â ir

Cik bieþi sekojoðie incidenti notiek Jûsu darba vietâ ...

(1= biebi, 2= diezgan biebi, 3= reti, 4= nekad, 5= nezin) 15. 16. 17. 18. 19. 20. Cik lielâ mçrâ Jûs varat ietekmçt... (1= pilnîbâ, 2= diezgan daudz, 3= ïoti maz, 4= nemaz, 5= nezin) 21. ...Jûsu darba uzdevumus 1 2 3 5 22. ...Jûsu darba tempu 1 2 3 4 5 23. ...Jûsu piedalîðanos apmâcîbâ 1 2 5 Kurð parasti dara ar sekojoðás lietas Jûsu darba vietá? (1= pats darbinieks, 2= darbinieki kopâ, 3= meistars, darbu vadîtâjs, 4= uzòçmuma vadîtâjs, vai kâds cits, 5= nezin) 2 24....darba dienas plânoðana 3 5 1 25....darba nedçïas plânoðana 2 3 4 5 1 26....kvalitâtes kontrole 1 2 3 5 Kâ pçdçjo 12 mçneðu laikâ Jûsu darba vietâ ir izmainîjies...? (1= nozîmîgi pieaudzis, 2= nedaudz pieaudzis, 3= palicis tâds pats, 4= nedaudz samazinâjies, 5= nozîmîgi samazinâjies, 6 = nezin) 27. 28 29 30 31 ...iespçja saòemt apmâcîbu no darba devçja......1.......2.........3.........4.........5.........6 32 33. 34. 35. Vai Jûsu firmâ ir darbinieku iecelta arodbiedrîba vai pârstâvis? jâ, ir arodbiedrîba 1 > pâriet uz 36. jautâjumu jâ, ir pârstâvji 2 > pâriet uz 40. jautâjumu 3 > pâriet uz 40. jautâjumu nç 36. Vai Jûs esat arodbiedrîbas biedrs? Jâ 2 Nç

37. Vai Jûsu kompânijâ ir kâdas kolektîvâs vienoðanâs?

1 2

3

Jâ

Nç

Nezin

38. Vai arodbiedrîbas biedru skaits ir mainîjies plaikâ? Vai tas ir	oroporcionâli visu d	arbinieku skaita	izmaiòâm Jûsu firmâ pçdç	jo 3 gadu
palielinâjies 1palicis tâds pats 2samazinâjies 3grûti pateikt 4				
39. Vai arodbiedrîbas kâ strâdnieku tiesîbu pârs	stâvja loma Jûsu firr	nâ pçdçjo 3 gad	u laikâ ir	
nozîmîgi pieaugusi nedaudz pieaugusi palikusi tâda pati nedaudz samazinâjusies nozîmîgi samazinâjusies nezin	1 2 3 4 5 6			
Vai Jûs pârsvarâ apsprieþat sekojoðas lietas ind (1= individuâli, 2= kolektîvi)	dividuâli vai kolektîv	i Jûsu darba vie	tâ?	
40alga 41atvaïinâjums 42darba lîguma ilgums un pastâvîgums 43darbinieku droðiba un veselîba darbâ	1 1 1 1	2 2 2 2		
Vai Jûs domâjat, ka iepriekőçjâ jautâjumâ minçt (1= jâ, daudz vairâk, 2= jâ, nedaudz vairâk, 3= nç				
44alga 45atvaïinâjums 46darba lîguma ilgums un pastâvîgums 47darba lîguma ilgums un pastâvîgums	1 2 1 2 1 2 1 2	3 3 3 3	4 4 4 4	
48. Kâdâ veidâ Jûs saòemat savu algu? Vai tâ ir	·			
tikai fiksçta mçneða alga	centi no tirdzniecîba a (gabaldarbs, proce	as, prçmija u.c.) enti no tirdzniecí	îbas, prçmija u.c.)	2 3 4
49. Kâda bija Jûsu neto alga pagâjuðajâ mçnes atvilkðanas, òemot vçrâ visus citus Jûsu darbus				odokïu
50. Vai Jûs saòemat "algu aploksnç" vai "melno	algu"?			
daþreiz 1 > pâriet uz 5katru mçnesi 2 > pâriet uz 5nekad 3 > pâriet uz 5	1 .jautâjumu 1 .jautâjumu			

<<Đî atbilde ir pilnîgi	konfidenciâla.	Informâcija nekur	netiks izpausta>>
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51. Vai pçdçjâ mçneða alga, kuru Jûs minçjât arî ietvçra sevî "algu aploksnç" / "melno algu"?

jâ 1 nç 2

Cik lielâ mçrâ Jûsu algu ietekmç...?

, ,	Alga ir atkarîga no tâ (1)	diezgan daudz (2)	diezgan maz (3)	nemaz neietekmç (4)	nezin (5)
52darba apjoms	1	2	3	4	5
53darba kvalitâte	1	2	3	4	5
54visas firmas vai departamenta rezultâti	1	2	3	4	5

55. Vai pçdçjo 12 mçneðu laikâ ir bijuðas kâdas aizkavçðanâs algas izmaksâ?

Jâ 1 < pâriet uz **56**.jautâjumu Nç 2 < pâriet uz **57**.jautâjumu

56. Cik ilgas ir bijuðas ðîs aizkavçðanâs?

 Lîdz 1 nedçïai
 1

 lîdz 2 nedçïâm
 2

 lîdz 1 mçnesim
 3

 vairâk kâ 1 mçnesi
 4

 nezin
 5

 nevçlas atbildçt
 6

57. Cik dienas Jûs bijât darbâ pagâjuðajâ nedçïâ? _____dienas

58. Cik stundas kopumā Jûs strādājāt pagājuðajā nedçïā? _____stundas

Vai sekojoðas lietas ir notikuðas Jûsu firmâ pçdçjo 12 mçneðu laikâ...?

	jâ	nç	
	nezin		
59kâds ir ticis atlaists ðtatu samazināðanas rezultātā?	1	2	3
60darba diena / laiks tika samazinâts?	1	2	3
61kâds ir ticis piespiedus aizsûtîts bezalgas atvaïinâjumâ?	1	2	3
62ja kâds ir aizgājis (t.i. aizgājis no darba) vai vakantā vieta netika aizpildīta?	1	2	3

63. Vai Jûs esat strâdâjis virsstundas pçdçjo 2 mçneðu laikâ (t.i. darba laiks, kas ilgst ilgâk par likumâ paredzçto, vai Jûsu darba lîgumâ noteikto laiku)?

Jâ 1 < pâriet uz **64**.jautâjumu

Nç Nezin	2 < pâriet uz 69 .jautâjumu 3 < pâriet uz 69 .jautâjumu				
64. Vai Jûs par virs	sstundâm esat saòçmis?				
	naudas kompensâciju kompensçtas iedodot brîvas dienas ka kompensçtas	1 2 3 4			
65. Kâds ir iemesls	s Jûsu darbam virsstundâs? Vai tas	ir galvenokârt			
Jûsu paða vçlçða darba devçja rîke darbâ raduðies i nezin	ojums 2				
66. Vai virsstundas	ir regulâra parâdîba Jûsu darbâ?				
Jâ nç <i>nezin</i>	1 2 3				
67. Vidçji cik stund	as nedçïâ Jûs strâdâjat virsstundas	?stund	as		
68. Kâdas ir izmaid	oas virsstundu strâdâðanâ Jûsu dar	bâ salîdzinot ar pagâ	ijuðo gadu?		
Ir daudz vairâk virs Ir nedaudz vairâk v Virsstundas ir tikpa Ir nedaudz mazâk virs Ir daudz mazâk virs Virsstundu vairs na nezin	irsstundu 2 at 3 virsstundu 4 sstundu 5				
	espçju, ka nâkoðajâ gadâ? rîzâk jâ, 3= drîzâk nç, 4= noteikti nç,	5= nezin)			
69. Jûs zaudçsiet p	paðreizçjo darbu	1 5	2	3	4
70. Jûs pârcels cita	à darbâ	1 5	2	3	4
71. Jûsu darba laik	s tiks samazinâts	1 5	2	3	4
72. Jûsu darba reþ	îms tiks izmainîts pret Jûsu gribu	1 5	2	3	4
73. Ja Jûs zaudçtu	ı Jûsu tagadçjo darbu, vai Jûs domâ	ijat, ka Jûs atrastu ja	unu darbu, kas at	bilst Jûsu prasn	nei un pieredzei?
Noteikti jâ Drîzâk jâ Drîzâk nç	1 2 3				

Noteikti nç 4 nezin 5

74. Kâ Jûs domâjat, kâda bûs vispârçjâ nodarbinâtîbas situâcija pçc viena gada, salîdzinot ar paðreizçjo situâciju?

Daudz labâka1Mazliet labâka2Tâda pati3Mazliet sliktâka4Daudz sliktâka5nezin6

INTERVÇTÂJ! **75**. JAUTÂJUMU JAUTÂT TIKAI TIEM, KAS IR DARBA ÒÇMÇJI (ATBILDE 1 JAUTÂJUMÂ 1). PÂRÇJIEM PÂRIET PIE **76.** JAUTÂJUMA.

75. Vai Jûs esat domâjis par to, ka pats varçtu kïût par uzòçmçju, sâkt pats savu biznesu?

Nç 1
Jâ, es esmu par to nopietni domâjis 2
Tas ir tas, ko es domâju darît 3

76. Vai Jûs domâjat, ka pçc gada Jûs varçsiet nopirkt vairâk preces un pakalpojumus ar Jûsu algu nekâ tagad?

 Jâ
 1

 nç
 2

 nezin
 3

77. Kâ Jûs domâjat, kâ Jûsu kompânijas finansiâlâ situâcija mainîsies nâkoðâ gada laikâ?

Tâ ievçrojami uzlabosies1Tâ nedaudz uzlabosies2Tâ paliks nemainîga3Tâ nedaudz pasliktinâsies4Tâ ievçrojami pasliktinâsies5nezin6

Pçdçjo gadu laikâ sabiedrîbâ ir notikuðas daudzas pârmaiòas.

Lûdzu novçrtçjiet, kâ pçc Jûsu domâm ir mainîjies ...

	, ,				ievçrojami pasliktinâjies	nezin
78darba nozîma un interese par to	1	2	3	4	5	6
79vienâdas iespçjas vîrieðiem un sievietçm darba jomâ	i1	2	3	4	5	6
80apkârtçjâs vides problçmu òemðana vçrâ Jûsu darba	vietâ .1	2	3	4	5	6
81Jûsu informçðana par darba mçríjem un nâkotnes pla						
82uzòçmuma vadîbas un darbu vadîtâju darbîba	1	2	3	4	5	6
83iespçjas attîstît sevi darbâ						
84iespçja ietekmçt risinâjumus, kas attiecas uz Jûsu da						

Nâkoðie daþi apgalvojumi attiecas uz Jûsu paða darbu. Lûdzu novçrtçjiet lietojot 5 punktu skalu, cik lielâ mçrâ Jûs tiem piekrîtat, kur 1 nozîmç "pilnîgi nepiekrîtu" un 5 nozîmç "pilnîgi piekrîtu".

Pilnîgi pilnîgi *nezin* piekrîtu nepiekrîtu

85. Mans darbs ir labi organizçts 86. Mana darba intensitâte ir pârâ 87. Es uzticos saviem lîdzstrâdnie 88. Ir patîkama atmosfçra un solic 89. Mani lîdzstrâdnieki domâ tikai	kiem Iaritâtes gars	1 1 1 1 ou, neòemot vçra	2 2 2 2 â citus	3 3 3 1	4 4 4 4 2
90. Cik apmierinâts Jûs esat ar Jú	isu paðreizçjo darl	ou?			
Ïoti apmierinâts Diezgan apmierinâts Diezgan neapmierinâts Pilnîgi neapmierinâts nezin	1 2 3 4 5				
91. Dzimums (atzîmçt nejautâjot) vîrietis 1 sieviete 2					
92. Cik Jums ir gadi? g	adi				
93. Vai Jûs esat					
neprecçjies /-usies precçjies vai dzîvo kopâ ðíîries /-usies atraitnis /-ne	1 2 3 4				
94. Kâds ir Jûsu ìimenes sastâvs?	PIERAKSTÎT CILV	ÇKU SKAITU K	ATRÂ Þ	KATEG	ORIJÂ
KOPÂ, no kuriem					
 a) strâdâjoðie (t.sk. strâdâjoðie p b) nestrâdâjoðie pensionâri c) skolnieki, studenti dienas noda d) pirmsskolas vecuma bçrni e) citi nestrâdâjoði ìimenes locek 	aïâ		-		
95. Kâda ir Jûsu izglîtîba?					
nepabeigta pamatizglîtîba pamata vai nepabeigta vidçjâ izglî nepabeigta vidçjâ tehniskâ vai pro vidçjâ tehniskâ izglîtîba vidçjâ izglîtîba augstâkâ izglîtîba cita, norâdît	ıfesionâlâ izglîtîba	1 2 3 4 5 6 7			

96. Vai Jûs esat piedalîjies kâdos apmâcîbas kursos pçdçjo 12 mçneðu laikâ?

Jâ	1
nç	2
nezin	3

97. Jûsu tautîba?

1
2
3
4
5
6
7

3 Nr.

Interviuotojas: _____

Šiuo metu UAB "SIC Rinkos tyrimai" atlieka Lietuvos gyventoju apklausa. Mes noretume išsiaiškinti Lietuvos darbo rinkos padeti, sužinoti, kokios dažniausiai iškyla susijusios su darbu problemos. Jus šiai apklausai buvote pasirinktas(a) atsitiktines atrankos budu. Ar galeciau utduoti Jums keletr klausimr? Mes garantuojame, kad Just atsakymai bus anonimiški ir Jusu suteikta informacija bus panaudota tik statistinei analizei.
ATRANKINIS KLAUSIMAS: Ar Jus dirbate?
1. Taip \Rightarrow TESKITE APKLAUSA
2. Ne \Rightarrow NUTRAUKITE APKLAUSA
1. Jus esate PERSKAITYKITE ATSAKYMUS. GALI BUTI TIK VIENAS ATSAKYMAS. JEIGU RESPONDENTAS PATEIKS KELIS ATSAKYMUS, PAKLAUSKITE, KUR JIS GAUNA DIDESNI ATLYGINIMA.
1. Samdomas darbuotojas
2. Darbdavys ⇒ PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 4
3. Dirba savarankiškai (individualios
imones savininkas, dirba pagal patenta) \Rightarrow PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 4
2. Ar su savo darbdaviu Jus esate sudares PERSKAITYKITE ATSAKYMUS.
Terminuotr radtidkr darbo sutartá
2. Neterminuotr radtidkr darbo sutartá
3. Civilinc sutartá (autorinc sutartá darbui pagal patentr tam tikro darbo atlikimui)
4. Raštiška sutartis nesudaryta
3. Ar darbdavio iniciatyva be darbo sutarties Jus esate sudares dar koki nors papildoma susitarima (susitarete del trumpesniu atostogu, didesnes darbo apimties, pasirašete atleidimo iš darbo prašyma, kuriame nera datos ir pan.)? 4. Taip
5. Ne
Kiek laiko Jus jau dirbate dabartineje savo darbovieteje? JEIGU KEITESI IMONES SAVININKAS AR PAVADINIMAS, SKAICIUOKITE KAD DIRBOTE TOJE PACIOJE DARBOVIETEJE. 4 metu
5 menesiu (MENESIU SKAICIU IRAŠYKITE TIK TOKIU ATVEJU, JEIGU RESPONDENTAS DIRBA MAŽIAU NEGU METUS)

6. Kokio tipo istaigoje, imoneje Jus dirbate? GALIMAS T	TK VIE	
Biudtetinëje ástaigoje	\Rightarrow	PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 8
2. Valstybineje arba savivaldybes imoneje		⇒ PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 8
3. Privatizuotoje imoneje		
4. Privacioje imoneje, kurioje niekada nebuvo valstybe	_	talo
5. Visuomeninėje organizacijoje	\Rightarrow	PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 8
6. Kita (parašykite)		
7. Jusu imones kapitala sudaro PERSKAITYKI ATSAKYMAS.	TE VI	SUS ATSAKYMUS. GALIMAS TIK VIENAS
1. 100 % vietinis kapitalas		
2. 100 % užsienio kapitalas		
3. Ne mažiau kaip 51 % vietinis kapitalas		
4. Ne mažiau kaip 51 % užsienio kapitalas		
5. Nežinau		
8. Jusu istaiga, imone PERSKAITYKITE VISUS	S ATSA	AKYMUS. GALIMAS TIK VIENAS ATSAKYMAS.
1. Egzistavo dar iki 1988 metu		
2. Imone ikurta reorganizavus anksciau veikusir ámono	:	
3. Naujai ikurta imone po 1988 metu		
4. Nežinau		
9. Šioje istaigoje, organizacijoje, imoneje Ju <i>GALIMAS TIK VIENAS ATSAKYMAS</i> .	s esa	te PERSKAITYKITE VISUS ATSAKYMUS.
1. Imones, organizacijos vadovas arba skyriaus vadov	as	
2. Specialistas, bet ne vadovas (pvz. konsultantas)		
3. Tarnautojas (pareigunas, sekretore ir kt.)		
4. Paslaugu sferos darbuotojas (pardavejas, padavejas	s, kirpe	ejas, aukle ir kt.)
5. Darbininkas		
6. Kita (parašykite)	-	

10. Kokia yra Jusu istaigos/ imones pagrindine veiklos sfera? *GALIMAS TIK VIENAS ATSAKYMAS. PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 2.*

- 1. Temës ukis, midkininkystë, medtioklë, tvejyba
- 2. Išgaunamoji, apdirbamoji pramone
- 3. Energetika, duju ir vandens tiekimas
- 4. Statyba
- 5. Prekyba
- 6. Vie? buciai ir restoranai
- 7. Transportas, ryšiai, sandeliavimas
- 8. Finansai
- 9. Nekilnojamasis turtas, nuoma, tarpininkavimas

- 10. Valstybes valdymas ir krašto apsauga (ministerijos, žinybos, savivaldybes)
- 11. ? vietimas ir mokslas
- 12. Sveikatos apsauga, socialine rupyba
- 13. Kita

<i>11</i> .	Ar	be savo	pagrindines	darbovietes	Jus dar	kur	nors dirbate?

- 1. Ne \Rightarrow PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 13
- 2. Taip
- 13. Kelios vietose Jus dirbate papildomai? PARAŠYKITE SKAICIU.
- **14. Kiek yra darbuotoju pagrindineje Jusu darbovieteje?** *PAAIŠKINKITE RESPONDENTUI, KAD DARBOVIETC REIKIA SUPRASTI KAIP DARBO VIETR, KURIR SUVOKIA KAIP SAVO, KURIOJE DIRBA IR KURIOS VEIKLOJE DALYVAUJA (PVZ. GAMYKLA, BIURAS, PARDUOTUVË, STATYBOS AIKĐTELË).*
- 1. 1 4 darbuotojai
- 2. 5 9 darbuotojai
- 3. 10 19 darbuotoju
- 4. 20 49 darbuotojai
- 5. 50 99 darbuotojai
- 6. 100 499 darbuotojai
- 7. 500 ir daugiau darbuotoju
- 8. Nežinau
- 16. Ar per paskutinius 12 menesiu darbuotoju skaicius Jusu <u>pagrindineje</u> darbovieteje...? *PERSKAITYKITE VISUS ATSAKYMUS*.
- 1. Padidejo
- 2. Liko toks pats
- 3. Sumatëjo
- 4. Nežinau

Dabar aš noreciau pasiteirauti, ar Jusu darbe iškyla...? PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 3. PERSKAITYKITE KLAUSIMUS, TYMĖKITE KIEKVIENOJE EILUTĖJE.

	Gana dažnai	Kartai	Gana re	⁷ isai neišl	Nežina
Nesutarimai tarp vadovu ir pavaldiniu	1	2	3	4	5
Konfliktai tarp darbuotoju	1	2	3	4	5
Konfliktai tarp darbuotoju grupiu	1	2	3	4	5
Konkurencija tarp darbuotoju	1	2	3	4	5

Konfliktai su klientais	1	2	3	4	5
Grasinimai panaudoti fizine ar psicholog	1	2	3	4	5
a l					

Ar Jus galite daryti poveiki, priimant sprendimus del...? PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 4. PERSKAITYKITE KLAUSIMUS, TYMËKITE KIEKVIENOJE EILUTËJE.

	Pilnai galiu	Pakan kamai	•	isiškai ne	Nežina
Jusu darbo užduoc22. iu	1	2	3	4	5
Jusu darbo tempo	1	2	3	4	5
Jusu dalyvavimo apmokymuose	1	2	3	4	5

Kas paprastai Jusu darbovieteje užsiima šiais dalykais? PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 5. PERSKAITYKITE KLAUSIMUS, TYMĖKITE KIEKVIENOJE EILUTĖJE.

	ts dar-buc	uotojai, kartu j	arbu vykdy	Vado-va	Neži-na
Kiekvienos Jusu darbo dienos plano suc	1	2	3	4	5
Jusu darbo savaites plano sudaryi	1	2	3	4	5
Kokybes patikrinimu	1	2	3	4	5

O dabar noreciau paklausti, ar per paskutiniuosius 12 menesiu Jusu darbe pasikeite...? PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 6. PERSKAITYKITE KLAUSIMUS, TYMËKITE KIEKVIENOJE EILUTËJE.

	Žymiai	Truput	Truput iko toks		Žymiai	Neži-na
	padidej	padidej		Suma-të	Suma-të	
Darbo greitis, intensyvumas	1	2	3	4	5	6
Darbo saugumas	1	2	3	4	5	6
Fizinio darbo kruvis	1	2	3	4	5	6
Protinio darbo kruvis	1	2	3	4	5	6
Darbo efektyvumas	1	2	3	4	5	6
Galimybe mokytis darbdavio	1	2	3	4	5	6
aita	1	2	3	'	3	
Tiesioginio viršininko	1	2	3	4	5	6
kymas	1	2	3	•	J	O .
Galimybe panaudoti savo žinias	1	2	3	4	5	6

35. Ar Jusu imoneje, organizacijoje yra profsajunga arba dirbanciuju išrinkti atstovai?

- 1. Taip, yra profsajunga
- 2. Taip, yra dirbanciuju atstovai \Rightarrow PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 40
- 2. Ne \Rightarrow PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 40

36. Ar Jus esate profsajungos narys?

1. Taip

2. Ne

- 37. Ar Jusu imoneje, istaigoje yra sudarytos kolektyvines sutartys?
- 1. Taip
- 2. Ne
- 3. Nežinau
- 38. Kaip per paskutiniuosius 3 metus pasikeite Jusu imones/ istaigos profsajungos nariu skaicius, lyginant su bendru darbuotoju skaiciumi?
- 1. Padidejo
- 2. Liko toks pats
- 3. Sumatëjo
- 4. Nežinau
- 39. Ar Jusu imones/ istaigos profsajungos, atstovaujancios dirbanciuju teises, itaka ir vaidmuo per paskutiniuosius 3 metus...? *PERSKAITYKITE VISUS ATSAKYMUS*.
- 1. Tymiai padidėjo
- 2. Truputi padidejo
- 3. Nepakito
- 4. Truputi sumažejo
- 5. Tymiai sumatėjo
- 6. Nežinau
- O dabar aš noreciau pasiteirauti, ar Jus savo darbovieteje vedate derybas individualiai arba kolektyviai šiais klausimais? *PERSKAITYKITE KLAUSIMUS*.

	Individualiai	Kolektyviai
Del atlyginimu	1	2
Del atostogu	1	2
Del darbo sutarties trukmes ir pobudžio	1	2
Del darbo saugumo ir darbuotoju sveikatos	1	2

Kaip Jus manote, ar Jusu darbovieteje šiais klausimais turetu vykti daugiau kolektyviniu derybu? *PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 7. PERSKAITYKITE KLAUSIMUS.*

	ymiai dau	ruputi daı	situacija yı	ıžiau negu
Del atlyginimu	1	2	3	4
Del atostogu	1	2	3	4

Del darbo sutarties trukmes ir pobudžio	1	2	3	4
Del darbo saugumo ir darbuotoju sveikatos	1	2	3	4

48. Iš ko susideda Jusu atlyginimas? PARODYKITI	EKORTELE Nr. 8.
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- 1. Tik iš fiksuotos menesines algos
- 2. Tik i? atlygio ut atliktr darbr (vienetinis apmokëjimas)
- 3. Iš fiksuotos algos ir atlygio už atlikta darba
- 4. Kita (parašykite)_____
- 5. Atsisako pasakyti
- 6. Nežinau
- 49. Kokio dydtio atlyginimr Jus gavote praeitr mënesá? Pasakykite sumr, kurir Jus gavote "á rankas", áskaitant visas Jusr darbo vietas ir ten gautas premijas ir priedus prie atlyginimo. *PARAŠYKITE SUMA*.

_____ litai

50. Ar Jus gaunate neoficialu atlyginima, taip vadinama "atlyginima voke"? *PERSKAITYKITE VISUS ATSAKYMUS. PRIMINKITE RESPONDENTUI, KAD VISI ATSAKYMAI, TAIP PAR IR ŠIS, YRA ANONIMIŠKI IR NEGALI BUTI NIEKAM PERDUOTI.*

- 1. Kartais
- 2. Kiekvienr mënesá
- 3. Niekada

⇒ PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 52

51. Ar Jusu pamineto praeito menesio atlyginimo sudetyje buvo taip pat ir "atlyginimas voke"?

1. Taip 2. Ne

Ar Jusu atlyginimo dydžiui turi itakos...? PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 9. PERSKAI-TYKITE KLAUSIMUS, TYMËKITE KIEKVIENOJE EILUTËJE.

	∠emianti it	ankamai stipr	ledidele it	leturi ita	ınku pasa
Darbu apimtis	1	2	3	4	5
Atliktu darbu kokybe	1	2	3	4	5
Skyriaus arba visos istaigos,	1	2	3	4	5
es darbo rezultatai	1	2	7		

55. Ar per paskutinius 12 menesiu bent karta buvo laiku nesumoketas atlyginimas?

- 1. Taip
- 2. Ne

⇒ PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 57

56. Kiek buvo veluojama išmoketi atlyginima? PERSKAITYKITE VISUS ATSAKYMUS.

- 1. Mažiau nei savaite
- 2. Mažiau nei dvi savaites
- 3. Matiau nei mënesá

- 4. Daugiau nei menesi
- 5. Nežinau
- 6. Atsisake pasakyti

57. Kiek dienu Jus dirbote praejusia savaite?
dienas
58. Kiek valandu Jus dirbote praejusia savaite?
valandas

Ar per paskutiniuosius 12 menesiu Jusu imoneje, istaigoje...? PERSKAITYKITE KLAUSIMUS, TYMËKITE KIEKVIENOJE EILUTËJE.

	Taip	Ne	Nežina
Buvo atleistas bent vienas darbuotojas	1	2	3
Buvo sutrumpinta darbo diena, darbo laikas	1	2	3
Bent vienas darbuotojas buvo priverstinai tas i neapmokamas atostogas	1	2	3
I likusias laisvas darbo vietas (pvz. vietoje išejusiu sija) nebuvo priimta nauju darbuotoju	1	2	3

63. Ar per paskutiniuosius du menesius Jus dirbote viršvalandžius, t.y. dirbote ilgiau nei nustatyta istatymuose ir/ arba darbo sutartyje?

1. Taip

2. Ne \Rightarrow PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 69

3. Nežinau ⇒ *PEREIKITE PRIE KLAUSIMO Nr. 69*

64. Ar ut virdvalandtius Jus...?

- 1. Gavote pilna arba daline pinigine kompensacija
- 2. Gavote laisvu dienu
- 3. Negavote jokios kompensacijos
- 4. Nežinau

65. Kodel Jus dirbate viršvalandžius? *PERSKAITYKITE VISUS ATSAKYMUS. GALIMAS TIK VIENAS ATSAKYMU VARIANTAS.*

- 1. Savo noru
- 2. Darbdavio nurodymu
- 3. Tokia yra darbo specifika
- 4. Nežinau

66. Ar iprasta Jusu darbovieteje dirbti viršvalandžius?

- 1. Taip
- 2. Ne

67. Kiek vidutiniškai per savaitc Jus dirbate virdvalandtir?

_____ valandas

68. Kaip Jusu imoneje, istaigoje pasikeite darbo viršvalandžiais situacija, palyginus su praeitais metais? *PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 10.*

- 1. Viršvalandtir dirbama tymiai daugiau
- 2. Viršvalandtir dirbama truputá daugiau
- 3. Viršvalandtir dirbama tiek pat
- 4. Viršvalandtir dirbama truputá matiau
- 5. Viršvalandtir dirbama tymiai matiau
- 6. Viršvalandtir nebedirbama
- 7. Nežinau

Kaip Jus manote, ar imanoma, kad kitais metais...? PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 11. PERSKAITYKITE KLAUSIMUS, TYMËKITE KIEKVIENOJE EILUTËJE.

	Žinoma t	Galbut t	Galbut	Žinoma	Nežina
Jus prarasite dabartine savo darbo vieta	1	2	3	4	5
Jus perves i kita darba	1	2	3	4	5
Jus dirbsite nepilna darbo diena	1	2	3	4	5
Jusu darbo režimas bus pakeistas, sižvelgiant i Jusu pageidavimus	1	2	3	4	5

73. Kaip Jus manote, ar Jus susirastumete nauja darba, atitinkanti Jusu žinias ir patirti, jeigu prarastumete dabartini? *PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 11.*

- 1. Žinoma taip
- 2. Tikriausiai taip
- 3. Tikriausiai ne
- 4. Žinoma ne
- 5. Nežinau

74. Kaip Jus manote, ar po metu žmoniu šansai susirasti jiems tinkanti darba...?

- 1. Bus žymiai didesni
- 2. Bus truputi didesni
- 3. Liks tokie patys
- 4. Bus truputi mažesni
- 5. Bus žymiai mažesni
- 6. Nežinau

ŠI KLAUSIMA UŽDUOKITE TIK TIEMS RESPONDENTAMS, KURIE YRA SAMDOMI DARBUOTOJAI. Žr. ATSAKYMA I PIRMA KLAUSIMA.

75. Ar Jus esate svarstes galimybe pradeti savo versla?

1. Ne

- 2. Taip, aš svarsciau tokir galimybc, kol kas neketinu pradëti savo verslr
- 3. Aš ketinu pradeti savo versla

TOLIAU KLAUSIMAI VISIEMS RESPONDENTAMS.

76. Kaip Jus manote, ar kitais metais už savo atlyginima galesite nusipirkti daugiau prekiu ir paslaugu nei dabar?

- 1. Taip
- 2. Ne
- 3. Nežinau

77. Kaip, Jusu nuomone, kitais metais pasikeis Jusu imones, istaigos finansine padetis? *PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 12.*

- 1. Tymiai pagerës
- 2. Truputi pageres
- 3. Liks tokia pati
- 4. Truputi pabloges
- 5. Tymiai pablogës
- 6. Nežinau

Per paskutiniuosius keletr metr visuomenėje ávyko daug pokyciu. Kaip Jus manote, ar pasikeite...? *PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 13. PERSKAITYKITE KLAUSIMUS, TYMĖKITE KIEKVIENOJE EILUTĖJE.*

	Žymiai pagerej	-	lepasi-k	Truputi pablogej	•	Ne-žin
Potiuris á darbr ir interesas dirb	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vyru ir moteru lygiateisiš- as darbo atžvilgiu	1	2	3	4	5	6
Aplinkosauginiu klausimu spreno, imoneje	1	2	3	4	5	6
Informacija apie Jusu istaigos, ii kslus ir planus	1	2	3	4	5	6
Jusu istaigos, imones valdymo i ir priemones	1	2	3	4	5	6
Galimybes pagilinti savo žinias	1	2	3	4	5	6
Galimybes daryti itaka ndimams, susijusiems su darbu	1	2	3	4	5	6

Dabar aš noreciau perskaityti keletr teiginir apie Jusr darbr. Ar Jus sutinkate su jais? Điuos teiginius ávertinkite 5 balr sistemoje, kur "1" reidkia, kad Jus visidkai sutinkate, o "5" – visidkai nesutinkate. *PARODYKITE KORTELE Nr. 14. PERSKAITYKITE TEIGINIUS, TYMËKITE KIEKVIENOJE EILUTËJE.*

	siškai su	Su-	dalies su	Vesu-ti	siškai nesu	Ne-žin
		tinkı				
Mano darbas yra gerai organizuotas	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mano darbas yra pernelyg intensyvu	1	2	3	4	5	6
Aš galiu pasitiketi savo kolegomis	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mano darbe yra geras mikroklimata bendradarbiavimas	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mano kolegos visu pirma rupinasi sa neatsižvelgia i kitu interesus	1	2	3	4	5	6

90. Ar Jus esate patenkintas dabartiniu savo darbu? Jus esate... PERSKAITYKITE VISUS ATSAKYMUS.

- 1. Labai patenkintas
- 2. Patenkintas
- 3. Nelabai patenkintas
- 4. Visiškai nepatenkintas
- 5. Nežinau

DABAR KELETAS KLAUSIMU APIE JUS

Υ11	OKLALISIMO	<i>NEUTDUOKITE.</i>	$\Delta T S \Delta K V M R$	PATVMFKITF	$D\Lambda TVC$

91. Respondento lytis:

- 1. Vyras
- 2. Moteris

92. Kiek Jums metu?

	-		
n	Ili	11	metai

93. Jusu šeimynine padetis. PERSKAITYKITE VISUS ATSAKYMU VARIANTUS.

- 1. Nevedcs/ netekëjusi
- 2. Vedcs/ idtekëjusi/ gyvenate kartu, neáregistravc santuokos
- 3. Išsiskyre/ gyvename atskirai
- 4. Našlys(e)

96. Kokio dydtio ir sudėties yra Jusr deima?		ŕ
gyvenate ir turite bendrr uká. IRAŠYKITE SKAI	ICIUS. JEIGU KURIAI N	ORS GRUPEI NEPRIKLAUSO
NE VIENAS ASMUO, IRAŠYKITE "0".		
Šeimoje yra asmenys		
Iš ju:		
Dirbantieji (taip pat ir dirbantys pensininkai) Nadidantys pensininkai		
2. Nedirbantys pensininkai.		
3. Moksleiviai, studentai (tik dieniniu skyriu)		
4. Ikimokyklinio amžiaus vaikai		
5. Kiti nedirbantys šeimos nariai		
97. Jusu išsimokslinimas? PARODYKITE KORTEL	ENr. 15.	
1. Pradinis raba nebaigtas pagrindinis		
2. Pagrindinis arba nebaigtas vidurinis		
3. Nebaigtas vidurinis (profesine technikos mokykla	, amatu mokykla)	
4. Specialus vidurinis (technikumas)		
5. Vidurinis (vidurine mokykla)		
6. Auk? tasis		
7. Kita (parašykite)		
98. Ar per paskutiniuosius 12 menesiu Jus mok	etes kokiuose nors kursu	iose?
1. Taip		
2. Ne		
3. Nežinau		
99. Jusu tautybe?		
1. Lietuvis(-e)		
2. Rusas(-e)		
3. Lenkas(-e)		
4. Kita (<i>parašykite</i>)		
TOLIAU F	PILDO INTERVIUOTOJA.	S
100. Vietoves pavadinimas. JEI KAIMO VIETOV	E, NURODYKITE RAJON	IO PAVADINIMA.
		
99. Vietoves dydis (gyventoju skaicius):		
1. Daugiau nei 200 tukst.	3. $50 - 100$ tukst.	5. $2 - 10$ tukst.
2. 100 - 200 tukst.	4. $10 - 50$ tukst.	6. Iki 2 tukst.

Interviu data:	Interviuotojo parašas:

NUOŠIRDTIAI DËKOJAME UT ATSAKYMUS

+THE RUSSIAN QUESTIONNAIRE (not included this file)